



Universidad de Jaén

Facultad de Humanidades y
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Attention to Diversity in Content and Language Integrated Learning: A Quantitative and Qualitative Study.

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Table of Contents

LIST OF ACRONYMS	10
CHAPTER 1. INTRODUCTION	14
CHAPTER 2. BILINGUAL EDUCATION	15
2.1. HISTORY AND DEFINITION OF BILINGUAL EDUCATION	16
2.1.1. <i>Immersion</i>	20
2.1.2. <i>Bilingual education in the west</i>	21
2.1.2.1. Canada	21
2.1.2.2. North America	26
2.1.2.3. History of bilingualism in North America	29
2.1.2.4. Bilingual Act of 1968	30
2.1.2.5. Content-Based Instruction.....	31
2.1.2.6. Maintenance	31
2.1.2.7. Transitional	32
2.1.2.8. ESL.....	32
2.2. BILINGUAL EDUCATION IN EUROPE	33
2.2.1 <i>History of foreign language teaching methods</i>	36
2.2.1.1. Summary of outdated models	37
2.2.1.2. Summary of CLIL-relevant models.....	38
2.2.2. <i>From L2 to CLIL</i>	42
2.3. LANGUAGE LEARNING IN THE 21 ST CENTURY	51
2.3.1. <i>English as a Lingua Franca</i>	60
2.3.2. <i>Intercultural competence</i>	65
2.3.3. <i>Language policy in the European Union</i>	70
2.3.4. <i>Current legislation in Spain</i>	74
2.4. INCLUSIVE EDUCATION AND DIVERSITY	80
2.4.1. <i>Background</i>	80
2.4.2. <i>Initiatives and support</i>	93
2.4.3. <i>Achievement and inclusion</i>	97
2.4.4. <i>Inclusion and CLIL</i>	100
2.4.5. <i>Quality practices in inclusive education</i>	103
2.5. CLIL	119

2.5.1. Definitions and characteristics.....	119
2.5.2. Fundamental features of CLIL.....	124
2.5.2.1. Learner autonomy	129
2.5.2.2. The 4C's Framework	131
2.5.2.2.1. Content and cognition.....	132
2.5.2.2.2. Communication	135
2.5.2.2.3. Culture	137
2.5.3. Methodology.....	140
2.5.4. Objectives.....	148
2.5.5. Differences between CLIL and immersion.....	150
2.5.6. Innovation	157
2.5.7. Roles of stakeholders	159
2.5.7.1. Teachers.....	160
2.5.7.2. Teacher training.....	170
2.5.7.3. Students	178
2.5.7.4. Parents	179
2.5.8. Role of the L1	181
2.5.9. Assessment.....	185
2.5.10. CLIL in a positive light	190
2.5.11. CLIL in a negative light.....	199
2.5.12. Conclusion.....	207
CHAPTER 3. RESEARCH IN BILINGUAL EDUCATION	209
3.1. INTRODUCTION.....	210
3.2. STAKEHOLDERS' PERCEPTIONS STUDIES.....	214
3.3. LANGUAGE STUDIES	220
3.4. CONTENT ATTAINMENT STUDIES.....	225
3.5. CLIL IMPLEMENTATION STUDIES	228
3.6. RESEARCH ON INCLUSION AND ACHIEVEMENT	232
3.6.1. Background	233
3.6.2. Individual variables and achievement	235
3.6.2.1. SES and attainment.....	239
3.6.2.2. L1 influence on L2 achievement	249

3.6.2.3. Influence of gender on achievement	251
3.6.2.4. Motivation and CLIL	254
3.6.2.5. Extramural exposure studies	259
3.6.2.6. Urban and rural context findings.....	260
<i>3.6.3. Findings related to diversity.....</i>	<i>260</i>
3.6.3.1. Theoretical studies	262
3.6.3.2. Qualitative studies	262
3.6.3.3. Quantitative studies	265
3.6.3.4. ADiBE findings	265
<i>3.6.4. Future research needs.....</i>	<i>282</i>
3.7. SPAIN	286
<i>3.7.1. Introduction</i>	<i>286</i>
<i>3.7.2. Education in Spain.....</i>	<i>291</i>
<i>3.7.3. Government policies</i>	<i>293</i>
<i>3.7.4. Communities in Spain.....</i>	<i>295</i>
3.7.4.1. Bilingual communities	296
3.7.4.2. Monolingual communities.....	297
3.7.4.2.1. CLIL in Andalusia.....	299
3.7.4.2.2. From the APPP to the Strategic Plan for the Development of Languages.....	302
3.7.4.2.3. Objective 1: Consolidate the bilingual program	306
3.7.4.2.4. Objective 2: Increase and improve teacher training.....	307
3.7.4.2.5. Objective 3: Optimize the I+D+i program	308
3.7.4.2.6. Objective 4: Increase extramural exposure to languages.....	309
3.7.4.2.7. Objective 5: Promote intercultural awareness	310
3.7.4.2.8. Objective 6: Improve language learning results	311
3.8. CONCLUSION	311
CHAPTER 4. RESEARCH DESIGN	315
4.1. JUSTIFICATION OF THE INVESTIGATION	316
4.2. OBJECTIVES.....	320
4.3. METHODOLOGY	322
<i>4.3.1. Research design</i>	<i>322</i>
<i>4.3.2. Sample.....</i>	<i>323</i>
4.3.2.1. Quantitative sample	323

4.3.2.2. Qualitative sample	323
4.3.2.2.1. Students	324
4.3.2.2.2. Teachers	329
4.3.2.2.3. Parents	333
4.3.3. Variables	335
4.3.4. Instruments.....	336
4.3.5 Quantitative data collection process	345
4.3.5.1. Test design and validation: L2 (English)	345
4.3.5.2. Test design: Content (History)	345
4.3.5.3. Test administration	346
4.3.5.4. Test assessment	346
<i>4.3.6. Qualitative data collection process.....</i>	<i>347</i>
4.3.6.1. Questionnaire design.....	347
4.3.6.2. Questionnaire validation	351
4.3.6.3. Questionnaire administration	351
4.3.6.4. Interviews	352
4.3.6.5. Focus groups	355
4.3.6.6. Classroom observations.....	355
4.3.6.7. Data analysis: statistical methodology	357
<i>4.3.7. Intervention program.....</i>	<i>358</i>
4.3.7.1. Contextual specifications.....	358
4.3.7.2. Introduction	359
4.3.7.3. Legislation for diversity.....	366
4.3.7.4. Timeline	367
4.3.7.5. Test administration.....	367
4.3.7.6. Establishment of the tiers.....	368
4.3.7.7. Key components	371
4.3.7.7.1. Intercultural competence	371
4.3.7.7.2. Differentiation	375
4.3.7.8. Methodology	379
4.3.7.9. Differentiation instruction for the tiers.....	387
4.3.7.10. Materials and resources	392
4.3.7.11. Task design.....	395

4.3.7.12. Language use	397
4.3.7.13. Assessment	401
4.3.7.14. Conclusion.....	402
CHAPTER 5. QUANTITATIVE RESULTS AND DISCUSSION	405
5.1. INTRODUCTION	406
5.2. UNDERACHIEVERS	407
5.3. NORMAL ACHIEVERS	410
5.4. OVERACHIEVERS	412
5.5. DIVERSITY WITHIN THE TIERS	414
5.6. EFFECTS OF CLIL ON FL (ENGLISH) COMPETENCE	415
5.6.1. <i>By tier</i>	415
5.6.2. <i>L2 competence: Differential effects of intervening variables</i>	418
5.6.2.1. Gender	419
5.6.2.2. SES.....	419
5.6.2.3. Self-demand	420
5.6.2.4. Anxiety in the face of exams.....	420
5.6.2.5. Disinterest in study	421
5.6.2.6. Self-esteem	422
5.6.2.7. Verbal intelligence	422
5.6.2.8. Discriminant analysis of intervening variables	423
5.7. EFFECTS OF CLIL ON CONTENT ACQUISITION	424
5.7.1. <i>By tier</i>	424
5.7.2. <i>Content acquisition: differential effects of intervening variables</i>	427
5.7.2.1. Gender	427
5.7.2.2. SES.....	428
5.7.2.3. Self-demand	428
5.7.2.4. Anxiety in the face of exams.....	429
5.7.2.5. Disinterest in study	429
5.7.2.6. Self-esteem	430
5.7.2.7. Verbal intelligence	431
5.7.2.8. Discriminant analysis of intervening variables	432
5.8. EFFECTS OF CLIL ON L1 COMPETENCE.....	432
5.8.1. <i>By tier</i>	432

5.8.2. <i>L1 competence: differential effect of intervening variables</i>	433
5.8.2.1. Gender	433
5.8.2.2. SES.....	434
5.8.2.3. Self-demand.....	435
5.8.2.4. Anxiety in the face of exams.....	435
5.8.2.5. Disinterest in study	436
5.8.2.6. Self-esteem	437
5.8.2.7. Verbal intelligence	437
5.8.2.8. Discriminant analysis of intervening variables	438
5.9. CONCLUSION.....	438
CHAPTER 6. QUALITATIVE RESULTS AND DISCUSSION	442
6.1. INTRODUCTION	443
6.2. STUDENTS.....	443
6.2.1 <i>Questionnaires</i>	443
6.2.2. <i>Statistical differences related to variables</i>	449
6.2.3. <i>Focus groups</i>	451
6.2.4. <i>Thematic findings</i>	457
6.2.4.1 Attention to diversity.....	457
6.2.4.2. Linguistic aspects	458
6.2.4.3. Methodology and groupings	461
6.2.4.4. Materials and resources	463
6.2.4.5. Assessment	465
6.2.4.6. Collaboration and training.....	467
6.3. TEACHERS.....	468
6.3.1. <i>Questionnaires</i>	469
6.3.2. <i>Statistical differences by variable</i>	482
6.3.3. <i>Teacher interviews</i>	483
6.3.4. <i>Thematic findings</i>	492
6.3.4.1. Attention to diversity.....	493
6.3.4.2. Linguistic aspects	496
6.3.4.3. Methodology in class	498
6.3.4.4. Materials and resources	502
6.3.4.5. Teacher coordination.....	503

6.3.4.6. Evaluation	505
6.3.4.7. Teacher training	507
6.4. PARENTS	509
6.4.1. Questionnaires	510
6.4.2. Statistical differences by variables.....	519
6.5. DIRECT OBSERVATIONS	523
6.6. ACROSS-COHORT COMPARISON BY THEMATIC BLOCK.....	533
6.6.1. Linguistic aspects	533
6.6.2 Groupings and methodology	537
6.6.3. Materials and resources	544
6.6.4. Assessment.....	547
6.6.5. Collaboration and teacher training.....	552
6.6.6. Across-cohort conclusions.....	555
CHAPTER 7. CONCLUSIONS	558
7.1. OVERVIEW	559
7.2. LIMITATIONS AND LINES FOR FURTHER RESEARCH	567
RESUMEN DE LA TESIS EN ESPAÑOL	571
BIBLIOGRAPHY	591
APPENDICES.....	628
APPENDIX I ENGLISH COMPETENCE TEST	629
APPENDIX II STUDENT QUESTIONNAIRES	642
APPENDIX III TEACHER QUESTIONNAIRES	646
APPENDIX IV PARENT QUESTIONNAIRES.....	652
APPENDIX V TEACHER INTERVIEW TRANSCRIPTS	656
APPENDIX VI OBSERVATION PROTOCOL	669
APPENDIX VII SAMPLE ACTIVITIES FROM INTERVENTION PROGRAM	677
APPENDIX VIII READING LISTS / ADDITIONAL COURSE MATERIALS.....	678

Index of Graphs

GRAPH 1: QUALITATIVE SAMPLE (STUDENTS, TEACHERS, AND PARENTS).....	324
GRAPH 2: GENDER OF STUDENTS	325
GRAPH 3: AGE OF STUDENTS.....	326
GRAPH 4: NATIONALITIES OF STUDENTS	326
GRAPH 5: LEVEL OF STUDIES (FATHER)	327
GRAPH 6: LEVEL OF STUDIES (MOTHER).....	327
GRAPH 7: AGE OF PARENTS (FATHER).....	328
GRAPH 8: AGE OF PARENTS (MOTHER).....	328
GRAPH 9: EXTRAMURAL EXPOSURE TO ENGLISH.....	329
GRAPH 10: GENDER OF TEACHERS	330
GRAPH 11: AGE OF TEACHERS.....	330
GRAPH 12: NATIONALITIES OF TEACHERS	331
GRAPH 13: PERCENTAGE OF SUBJECTS TAUGHT IN ENGLISH	331
GRAPH 14: TEACHING EXPERIENCE (TEACHERS)	332
GRAPH 15: ENGLISH PROFICIENCY (TEACHERS).....	332
GRAPH 16: AGE OF PARENTS	333
GRAPH 17: GENDER OF PARENTS.....	333
GRAPH 18: NATIONALITY OF PARENTS	334
GRAPH 19: LEVEL OF STUDIES OF PARENTS.....	334
GRAPH 20: CONTENT GRADES BY TIER.....	338
GRAPH 21: L1 GRADES BY TIER.....	338
GRAPH 22: ENGLISH LEVEL BY TIER.....	339
GRAPH 23: AVERAGE L2 GRADE BY TIER.....	339
GRAPH 24: VERBAL INTELLIGENCE LEVELS.....	340
GRAPH 25: FACTOR 1 (VAIN DESIRE TO WORK AND SELF-ESTEEM).....	341
GRAPH 26: FACTOR 2 (ANXIETY IN THE FACE OF EXAMS).....	342
GRAPH 27: FACTOR 3 (INTEREST IN STUDY)	342
GRAPH 28: FACTOR 4 (REALISTIC PERSONAL SELF-DEMAND)	343
GRAPH 29: STUDENTS BY TIER.....	370
GRAPH 30: OVERACHIEVERS AS PERTAINING TO DIVERSE NEEDS.....	389
GRAPH 31: UNDERACHIEVERS AS PERTAINING TO DIVERSE NEEDS.....	390
GRAPH 32: NORMAL ACHIEVERS AS PERTAINING TO DIVERSE NEEDS.....	391
GRAPH 33: STUDENTS WITH LINGUISTIC NEEDS.....	392
GRAPH 34: UNDERACHIEVERS SORTED BY CONTENT, L1, L2, VERBAL INTELLIGENCE, AND APTITUDE SCORES.....	408
GRAPH 35: UNDERACHIEVERS SORTED ACCORDING TO THE DIFFERENT MOTIVATIONAL FACTORS	409
GRAPH 36: UNDERACHIEVERS AS PERTAINING TO DIVERSE NEEDS.....	410
GRAPH 37: NORMAL ACHIEVERS SORTED BY CONTENT, L1, L2, VERBAL INTELLIGENCE, AND APTITUDE SCORES.....	410
GRAPH 38: NORMAL ACHIEVERS SORTED ACCORDING TO THE DIFFERENT MOTIVATIONAL FACTORS	411
GRAPH 39: NORMAL-ACHIEVERS AS PERTAINING TO DIVERSE NEEDS	412
GRAPH 40: OVERACHIEVERS SORTED BY CONTENT, L1, L2, VERBAL INTELLIGENCE, AND APTITUDE SCORES.....	413
GRAPH 41: OVERACHIEVERS SORTED ACCORDING TO THE DIFFERENT MOTIVATIONAL FACTORS	413
GRAPH 42: OVERACHIEVERS AS PERTAINING TO DIVERSE NEEDS	414
GRAPH 43: DIVERSE STUDENTS IN NEED OF ADAPTATION MEASURES.....	415
GRAPH 44: UNDERACHIEVERS: ENGLISH (PRE- AND POST-TESTS).....	416
GRAPH 45: NORMAL ACHIEVERS ENGLISH (PRE- AND POST-SCORES).....	417
GRAPH 46: OVERACHIEVERS ENGLISH (PRE- AND POST-SCORES)	418
GRAPH 47: SUBJECT KNOWLEDGE IMPROVEMENT IN UNDERACHIEVERS.....	424
GRAPH 48: SUBJECT KNOWLEDGE IMPROVEMENT IN NORMAL ACHIEVERS.....	425
GRAPH 49: SUBJECT KNOWLEDGE IMPROVEMENT IN OVERACHIEVERS	426
GRAPH 50: LINGUISTIC ASPECTS (STUDENTS' QUESTIONNAIRES RESPONSES).....	444
GRAPH 51: METHODOLOGY AND GROUPING (STUDENTS' QUESTIONNAIRES RESPONSES)	446
GRAPH 52: MATERIALS AND RESOURCES (STUDENTS' QUESTIONNAIRES RESPONSES).....	447

GRAPH 53: ASSESSMENT (STUDENTS' QUESTIONNAIRES RESPONSES)	448
GRAPH 54: COLLABORATION AND TEACHER TRAINING (STUDENTS' QUESTIONNAIRES RESPONSES)	449
GRAPH 55: LINGUISTIC ASPECTS (TEACHERS' QUESTIONNAIRES RESPONSES)	471
GRAPH 56: METHODOLOGY AND GROUPINGS (TEACHERS' QUESTIONNAIRES RESPONSES)	473
GRAPH 57: MATERIALS AND RESOURCES (TEACHERS' QUESTIONNAIRES RESPONSES)	474
GRAPH 58: EVALUATION AND ASSESSMENT (TEACHERS' QUESTIONNAIRES RESPONSES)	476
GRAPH 59: TEACHER COLLABORATION AND DEVELOPMENT (TEACHERS' QUESTIONNAIRES RESPONSES)	478
GRAPH 60: DIFFICULTIES BY IMPORTANCE (TEACHER QUESTIONNAIRE)	479
GRAPH 61: BEST PRACTICES BY IMPORTANCE (TEACHER QUESTIONNAIRE)	480
GRAPH 62: TEACHER DEVELOPMENT NEEDS BY IMPORTANCE (TEACHER QUESTIONNAIRE)	481
GRAPH 63: LINGUISTIC ASPECTS (PARENTS' QUESTIONNAIRES RESPONSES)	511
GRAPH 64: METHODOLOGY AND GROUPINGS (PARENTS' QUESTIONNAIRES RESPONSES)	513
GRAPH 65: MATERIALS AND RESOURCES (PARENTS' QUESTIONNAIRES RESPONSES)	515
GRAPH 66: ASSESSMENT (PARENTS' QUESTIONNAIRES RESPONSES)	517
GRAPH 67: COLLABORATION AND TEACHER TRAINING (PARENTS' QUESTIONNAIRES RESPONSES)	519

Index of Tables

TABLE 1: STATISTICALLY SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCES IN UNDERACHIEVERS PRE- AND POST-TESTS IN FL	416
TABLE 2: STATISTICALLY SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCES IN NORMAL ACHIEVERS PRE- AND POST-TESTS IN L2.....	417
TABLE 3: STATISTICALLY SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCES IN OVERACHIEVERS PRE- AND POST-TESTS IN L2	418
TABLE 4: EFFECT OF GENDER ON STUDENTS' L2 COMPETENCE	419
TABLE 5: EFFECT OF SES ON STUDENTS' L2 COMPETENCE.....	420
TABLE 6: EFFECT OF THE VARIABLE SELF-DEMAND ON STUDENTS' L2 COMPETENCE.....	420
TABLE 7: EFFECT OF THE VARIABLE ANXIETY IN THE FACE OF EXAMS ON L2 COMPETENCE	421
TABLE 8: EFFECT OF THE VARIABLE OF DISINTEREST IN STUDY ON L2 COMPETENCE.....	421
TABLE 9: EFFECT OF THE VARIABLE OF SELF-ESTEEM ON L2 COMPETENCE.....	422
TABLE 10: EFFECT OF VERBAL INTELLIGENCE LEVEL ON L2 COMPETENCE	423
TABLE 11: DISCRIMINANT ANALYSIS FOR L2. STANDARDIZED CANONICAL DISCRIMINANT FUNCTION COEFFICIENTS.	423
TABLE 12: STATISTICALLY SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCES IN UNDERACHIEVERS PRE- AND POST-TESTS IN CONTENT KNOWLEDGE	425
TABLE 13: STATISTICALLY SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCES IN NORMAL ACHIEVERS PRE- AND POST-TESTS IN CONTENT KNOWLEDGE	426
TABLE 14: STATISTICALLY SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCES IN OVERACHIEVERS PRE- AND POST-TESTS IN CONTENT KNOWLEDGE.....	427
TABLE 15: EFFECT OF GENDER ON STUDENTS' CONTENT KNOWLEDGE.....	427
TABLE 16: EFFECT OF SES ON STUDENTS' CONTENT KNOWLEDGE.....	428
TABLE 17: EFFECT OF THE VARIABLE SELF-DEMAND ON STUDENTS' CONTENT KNOWLEDGE	429
TABLE 18: EFFECT OF EXAM ANXIETY LEVEL ON CONTENT ACQUISITION.....	429
TABLE 19: EFFECT OF LEVEL OF INTEREST IN STUDY ON CONTENT ACQUISITION	430
TABLE 20: EFFECT OF SELF-ESTEEM LEVEL ON CONTENT ACQUISITION.....	431
TABLE 21: EFFECT OF VERBAL INTELLIGENCE LEVEL ON CONTENT ACQUISITION	431
TABLE 22: DISCRIMINANT ANALYSIS FOR CONTENT KNOWLEDGE: STANDARDIZED CANONICAL DISCRIMINANT FUNCTION COEFFICIENTS	432
TABLE 23: SPANISH COMPETENCE BY TIER, PRE- AND POST-SCORES	433
TABLE 24: EFFECT OF INTERVENING VARIABLE OF GENDER ON L1 COMPETENCE	434
TABLE 25: EFFECT OF INTERVENING VARIABLE OF SES ON L1 COMPETENCE.....	434
TABLE 26: EFFECT OF LEVEL OF SELF-DEMAND ON L1 COMPETENCE.....	435
TABLE 27: EFFECT OF ANXIETY LEVEL ON L1 ACQUISITION.....	436
TABLE 28: EFFECT OF LEVEL OF INTEREST IN STUDY ON L1 ACQUISITION.....	436
TABLE 29: EFFECT OF SELF-ESTEEM LEVEL ON L1 COMPETENCE.....	437
TABLE 30: EFFECT OF VERBAL INTELLIGENCE LEVEL ON L1 COMPETENCE	438
TABLE 31: DISCRIMINANT ANALYSIS FOR SPANISH LANGUAGE. STANDARDIZED CANONICAL DISCRIMINANT FUNCTION COEFFICIENTS.	438
TABLE 32: STATISTICALLY SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCES WITHIN THE STUDENT COHORT FOR LINGUISTIC ASPECTS IN TERMS OF SES.....	450
TABLE 33: STATISTICALLY SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCES WITHIN THE STUDENT COHORT FOR COLLABORATION AND TEACHER TRAINING IN TERMS OF SES.....	451
TABLE 34: TEACHER COHORT (MODULATING VARIABLES).....	469
TABLE 35: LINGUISTIC ASPECTS (TEACHERS' QUESTIONNAIRES RESPONSES).....	471
TABLE 36: STATISTICALLY SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCES WITHIN THE TEACHER COHORT FOR LINGUISTIC ASPECTS IN TERMS OF GENDER.....	482
TABLE 37: STATISTICALLY SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCES WITHIN THE TEACHER COHORT FOR METHODOLOGY AND GROUPINGS IN TERMS OF YEARS' TEACHING EXPERIENCE.....	483
TABLE 38: STATISTICALLY SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCES FOR TEACHER COHORT IN COLLABORATION AND TRAINING IN TERMS OF YEARS' TEACHING EXPERIENCE.....	483
TABLE 39: STATISTICALLY SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCES WITHIN THE PARENT COHORT FOR LINGUISTIC ASPECTS IN TERMS OF AGE.	520
TABLE 40: STATISTICALLY SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCES WITHIN THE PARENT COHORT FOR METHODOLOGY AND GROUPINGS IN TERMS OF AGE.	520
TABLE 41: STATISTICALLY SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCES WITHIN THE PARENT COHORT FOR EVALUATION AND ASSESSMENT IN TERMS OF AGE.	521

TABLE 42: STATISTICALLY SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCES WITHIN THE PARENT COHORT FOR LINGUISTIC ASPECTS IN TERMS OF SES.	521
TABLE 43: STATISTICALLY SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCES WITHIN THE PARENT COHORT FOR METHODOLOGY AND GROUPINGS IN TERMS OF SES.	521
TABLE 44: USE OF L2 IN CLASS OBSERVED.	526
TABLE 45: DISCURSIVE FUNCTIONS USED IN THE CLASSROOM OBSERVATIONS	527
TABLE 46: DEVELOPMENT OF COMPETENCES IN CLASSROOM OBSERVATIONS	528
TABLE 47: METHODOLOGY AND GROUPINGS IN THE CLASSROOM OBSERVATIONS	529
TABLE 48: MATERIAL AND RESOURCES IN THE CLASSROOM OBSERVATIONS	531
TABLE 49: COORDINATION AND ORGANIZATION IN THE CLASSROOM OBSERVATIONS	531
TABLE 50: ASSESSMENT EVALUATION IN THE CLASSROOM OBSERVATIONS	532
TABLE 51: ACROSS-COHORT COMPARISON FOR LINGUISTIC ASPECTS	536
TABLE 52: POST-HOC ANALYSIS ACROSS-COHORT LINGUISTIC ASPECTS	537
TABLE 53: ACROSS-COHORT COMPARISON FOR METHODOLOGY AND GROUPING ASPECTS	541
TABLE 54: ACROSS-COHORT METHODOLOGY AND GROUPINGS POST-HOC ANALYSIS	544
TABLE 55: ACROSS-COHORT COMPARISON FOR MATERIALS AND RESOURCES	546
TABLE 56: ACROSS-COHORT MATERIALS AND RESOURCES POST-HOC ANALYSIS	547
TABLE 57: ACROSS-COHORT COMPARISON ON EVALUATION AND ASSESSMENT	550
TABLE 58: ACROSS COHORT EVALUATION AND ASSESSMENT POST-HOC ANALYSIS	552
TABLE 59: ACROSS-COHORT OPINIONS ON EVALUATION AND ASSESSMENT ITEMS	554
TABLE 60: ACROSS COHORT COLLABORATION AND TRAINING POST-HOC ANALYSIS	555

List of acronyms

APPP (Andalusian Plurilingualism Promotion Plan)

BEA (Bilingual Education Act)

BICS (Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills)

CALP (Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency)

CLIL (Content and Language integrated learning)

CLT (Communicative Language Teaching)

CPE (Compulsory Primary Education)

CSE (Compulsory Secondary Education)

EASNIE (European Agency for Special Needs and Inclusive Education)

EADSNE (European Agency for Development of Special Needs Education)

EFAI (Evaluación Factorial de las Aptitudes Intelectuales)

ESL (English as a Second Language)

FLL (Foreign Language Learning)

FLT (Foreign language teaching)

IC (Intercultural competence)

LL (Language learning)

LOMLOE (*Ley Orgánica 3/2020, de 29 de diciembre, por la que se modifica la Ley Orgánica 2/2006*, English: Organic Law 3/2020 of the 29th of December Modifying the Organic Law of Education 2/2003)

L1 (First language)

L2 (Second language, foreign language 1)

L3 (Third language, foreign language 2)

NLA (Non-linguistic area)

PBL (Project-based learning)

SEN (Special educational needs/specific educational needs)

SEND (Special educational needs and/or disabilities)

ST (Stereotype threat)

TBL (Task-based learning)

TA (Teaching assistant)

TDOP (Teaching Dimensions Observation Protocol)

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Not everyone is as lucky as I am to have such amazing people in their life. I am where I am today because of the amazing support I was given and because of the incredible teachers I have had throughout my life. Education is one of the most important places in any child's life and it is my hope that this Thesis continues to add to the conversation and research, so that all the children around the world are given the space and attention they need to fulfill their potential.

Chapter 1.

Introduction

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING: A QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE STUDY. CHAPTER 1 - INTRODUCTION

Bilingualism, while once considered superfluous, is now an indispensable attribute, since being able to converse in and manipulate multiple languages is a necessity in today's globalized world, especially considering the European context: a multitude of linguistically diverse countries, with over 20 official languages. Enter CLIL (Content and Language Integrated Learning): "a dual-focused education approach in which an additional language is used for the learning and teaching of both content and language" (Coyle, Hood & Marsh, 2010, p. 1); the revolutionary method being used to systematically change how languages are studied and learned, adapted with the hope that this revolutionary approach could bring together the "myriad approaches to bilingual education, providing common reference points without imposing any specific models" (Morton, 2023, p. 521).

Languages are fundamental to the interconnected world of the 21st century. As Madrid Fernández (2006) points out, there is an ever-increasing necessity to be competent in multiple languages for the sake of communication. Today, students in Europe must be prepared "to compete in the global economic, political, and cultural world" (Tobin & Abello-Contesse, 2013, p. 206). Sentiments like this reinforce the fact that learning languages today is imperative, not just an added benefit only available to a certain demographic. To put it concisely, "languages [...] are conduits for intercultural communication" (Lorenzo, 2007, p. 28); they are imperative for our modern, globalized, interconnected society; a fact that seems to only be becoming more intense as the years go by.

Beginning in 1995 with the European Commission's renowned *White Paper on Teaching and Learning*, CLIL has been used to improve language competences around the continent and, given the relevance of language learning (henceforth, LL), European countries are embracing the CLIL enthusiasm that has been building up over the past couple decades as a way to address the multilingual debate. As Pérez Cañado (2016b) reminds us, "over the last decade there has been an explosion of interest in CLIL in Europe and beyond, as many teachers, learners, parents, researchers and policy makers have realized the potential of CLIL [...]" (p. vii). For decades, there have been numerous publications and objectives from distinct European policy-makers advocating for bilingual education and greater access to languages for all, which has been widely accepted by many to be possible through CLIL, since "the ability to think in different languages, even if to a modest extent, can have a positive impact on content learning" (Coyle et al. 2010, p. 10).

The importance of languages, and English, in our society, cannot be downplayed. Languages are an inherent part of human culture and help us form individual and "collective identities" (Eurydice, 2023, p. 15). As such, democratic societies, such as Europe, create policies

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING: A QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE STUDY. CHAPTER 1 - INTRODUCTION

to ensure this diversity is maintained and prospers, since language diversity allows users to gain access to other worlds. In a sense, they open minds and perspectives, and are “a true gateway to more enriching experiences and opportunities in life” (idem, 2023, p. 15).

In Spain, the setting of this particular research study, LL scores are not the most commendable, as evidenced by the European Commission (2012b) and results from the 2018 *Programme for International Student Assessment* (PISA) by the *Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development* (OECD). Unfortunately, LL in this country has not been faring well, and when compared to other European countries, it consistently ranks quite low. For its part, CLIL has an eccentric presence in the country, as there are both monolingual and bilingual communities, the latter with decades of experience with bilingual education and the former with hardly any experience or extramural exposure to any FL. Some of the bilingual communities have been using a form of CLIL for years (e.g. Catalonia and The Basque Country), and the outcome of positive research in said regions has led to the continued implementation of CLIL and bolstered language outcomes in these specific regions.

However, this is a stark contrast to the monolingual regions, including Andalusia, the location of the study that forms this Thesis, which have neither tradition with bilingual education nor widely available extracurricular exposure to any language other than Spanish. This situation ushered in the creation of the Andalusian Plan for the Promotion of Plurilingualism (APPP) in 2005 and, more recently in 2016, the updated Strategic Plan for the Development of Languages in Andalusia (Junta D. A., 2017), both created with the intention of tackling the LL deficiency in this unique, completely monolingual environment in southern Spain.

In conjunction with CLIL and LL, at the heart of this dissertation lies diversity and inclusion, a cornerstone in education today given recent findings on neurodiversity, the increasing number of immigrants and migrants and the irrefutable impact of globalization. Diversity lies at the very core of humanity, which is why inclusive education, and inclusive language education, must be given top priority when it comes to research and investigation initiatives. Understandably so, inclusive education is one of the fundamental 17 Sustainable Development Goals of the United Nations¹.

This Thesis will examine several factors: the background of bilingual education in the Western world; the transition from traditional foreign language teaching to CLIL; the

¹ Specifically, Goal 4: Quality Education. To ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities for all. www.globalgoals.org/goals/4

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING: A QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE STUDY. CHAPTER 1 - INTRODUCTION

particularities of Europe, focusing specifically on Spain and inside of Spain, Andalusia; a critical look at the research that has been done regarding this pedagogy; and finally, an in-depth look at inclusive education, including government policies, best practices, and where we currently stand with research now. To go about reporting the study, the Thesis at hand is separated into seven chapters: three theoretical ones followed by four practical ones. The first chapter, an introduction which debriefs the reasons this study has been initiated, is followed by Chapter Two, which paints a thorough detailing on bilingual education around the world, including the antecedents of CLIL in Canada and North America and the history and recent implementation of inclusive education, finishing with Chapter Three, devoted entirely to the peculiarities of CLIL. This final theoretical chapter details the CLIL situation at present and a comprehensive overview of the research that has taken place on European soil and in Spain, specifically, Andalusia, where the present study is conducted, detailing the SPDLA, with specific attention given to attention to diversity. Chapter Four, the first practical chapter, begins with a justification of the investigation, followed by the objectives, research design, and data collection process, and ends with an extensive look into the intervention program that was carried out, highlighting its measures to cater to diversity. Chapter Five sheds light on the quantitative results and discussion, Chapter Six details the qualitative process and results, and, finally, Chapter Seven delineates the main conclusions, limitations, and further research lines.

CLIL is the solution Europe and Spain have been searching for as a way to overcome discriminatory education, language practices, and tailor bilingual education to the unique European community, rich in cultures, ethnicities, and traditions. It is deeply rooted in European frameworks, as evinced by Macaro (2019), who notes that CLIL is “an unstoppable train which has already left the station” (p. 232). This innovative approach to languages is more necessary than ever, as Europe, and the world, become increasingly borderless, and countries, cities, and schools find themselves progressively more heterogeneous, demographically, linguistically, and academically. Thus, one of the greatest problems we now face in language education is creating learning environments that are inclusive of all students. CLIL must be able to step up to this challenge in the 21st century and to cater to diversity, with both under-, normal, and overachievers correspondingly (Madrid & Pérez Cañado, 2018) which is hardly a straightforward task, but one that must be done to ensure that CLIL is truly for all. Given the move to fully bilingual schools around Europe, attention to diversity is consequently one of the main feats CLIL faces, which is why it will be looked at in depth in this Thesis, and why it seeks to answer the question: is CLIL truly inclusive and can it cater to all different types of learners?

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING:
A QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE STUDY. CHAPTER 1 - INTRODUCTION

Chapter 2.

Bilingual Education

2.1. History and definition of bilingual education

Despite the relatively common notion that bilingual education is rather novel, Reilly and Medrano (2009) point out that it cannot be regarded “as a phenomenon of the late 20th century”, since it has been around “in one form or another for 5,000 years or more” (p. 59). For his part, Pavón Vázquez (2013) reverberates this sentiment, noting that although bilingual education may “seem to be a new trend”, CLIL-like methods “date back to the times of the Akkadians” (p. 11). Marsh (2013) echoes this thought, adding that bilingual education, or using a second language as means of instruction, “is a historical global phenomenon that is often a result of social, political and economic strategic actions” (p. 17). Understandably, bilingual education varies from country to country and from language to language, and depends on several factors, each unique to fit a specific environment or objectives. Thus, variation is high when it comes to implementation, and can and will fluctuate even within a same country, such as the case of Spain. As Morton (2023) draws our attention to, “CLIL is very much a contextual phenomenon, understood in different ways in different places” (p. 531).

Before the 1960s, most people had little faith in bilingual education for the general public; notions held of bilingualism at the time led people to believe it was conducive to poor competence skills in vocabulary, writing and grammar (Van de Craen et al., 2007), and generally sub-standard language skills. However, after a pioneer study in 1962 by Peal and Lambert, people began to see bilingualism in a different light, after the researchers “demonstrated that bilinguals actually scored higher than monolinguals on verbal and nonverbal tests” (idem, 2007, p. 185). Additionally, bilingualism was regarded as functional and rewarding, public opinion also being influenced following a study carried out by Cummins in 1976, which reinforced positive perceptions and helped prove that bilingualism was superior to monolingualism. Referencing Vygotsky (1978), Scanlan (2011) points out that language acquisition is viewed as both “sociocultural and developmental”, a hypothesis “grounded in the theory that learning is intrinsically social and that it is borne of social, historical and cultural experiences” (p. 6).

From the 1970s onward, new studies on language acquisition were conducted aimed on researching the bilingual mind. Research in said field “shifted from a behavioristic perspective to a more cognitive one”, which in turn led to an explosion of research (Van de Craen et al., 2007, p. 186). Information procured from studies at the time highlighted the additional advantages bilingualism and multilingualism provided, paving the way for more universal and widespread acceptance of bilingual education in addition to dispelling common misconceptions about bilingual or plurilingual individuals. For his part, Pavón Vázquez (2013) delineates the benefits of

bilingualism, which are now widely recognized around the globe, as bilingual education has gained an esteemed reputation:

[...] it has been shown that speakers of more than one language possess a higher memory capacity, sharper accuracy in making decisions and solving problems, a better capacity to formulate hypotheses, absence of distraction with irrelevant information when performing tasks, and a better ability to engage in multi-tasking (p. 14).

Regarding what constitutes bilingual education, there is some discord among researchers. Cummins (2013) defines it as: "the use of two languages of instruction at some point in a student's school career" (p. 7). For her part, Navés (2009) states that bilingual education can be "any use of two languages in school [...] for a variety of social and pedagogical purposes" (p. 4). Similarly, Halbach (2009) notes that whereas traditional LL puts the language as the purpose of the class, "bilingual education implies teaching the language as a vehicle for communication, rather than an end itself" (p. 20). This author (2009) further delineates the conception of bilingual education, where the language "is used [...] for the communication of new ideas and concepts" (p. 20). A few years ago, Marsh et al. (2020) highlighted the fact that the very term bilingual is "subject to differing definitions" (p. 3), while more recently, Morton (2023) explained that CLIL is no longer being categorized as a singular "solution to perceived problems"; rather it is "seen more and more as a broadly educational approach" (p. 531).

Along the same lines as the previously mentioned concept, pinpointing exactly what is referred to by *bilingual* is correspondingly challenging, notwithstanding the various contributions to the literature. Despite minor variances, the concept of bilingual education is clearer, whereas the abstract understanding of what constitutes someone or something as bilingual is when uncertainties are drawn. Researchers dispute the degree to which languages must be spoken and what competence levels must be reached before individuals can or should be considered bilingual. Similarly, other aspects must be taken into consideration, since bilingualism is not just understood as having the capacity to speak two languages; rather, biliteracy and biculturalism are also considered as fundamental when referring to someone or something as bilingual.

Alluding to a more inclusive definition, Cable et al. (2006) argue that the term bilingual does not refer to equal levels of competence in the languages spoken, but should be used to reference a specific instance of children and families who use the languages in their daily lives. Hence, they define bilingualism as "having the ability to live one's life through more than one language" (p. 129). This way of defining bilingualism is, according to the researchers, all-encompassing and includes the word multilingual. The authors do not equate bilingualism to "equality of proficiency" in any way; thus, the languages known do not need to be equal in terms

of ability. The authors stipulate that a child “whose life experience regularly involves two or more languages” is what would render him or her *bilingual* (p. 129). This more comprehensive definition is used, the authors say, because it permits the community or an individual to “emphasize the positive benefits of fostering pupils’ proficiency in two (or more) languages without making them feel like they have to be perfectly balanced or equally competent in both (or more) languages” (p. 129). For his part, Marsh (2002) explains how the term *bilingual* is confusing, given myriad connotations. In the past, he says, this word was used for a specific type of person who was usually living or residing in a country foreign to them. The author (2002) explains that the word itself is very controversial and much more complex than initially thought, notwithstanding the varying opinions on what does or does not constitute as bilingual:

The term bilingual education presupposes that the learners are, or will become, bilingual. Bilingualism is often associated with children who are brought up in bilingual families, and its use is often linked to speakers of languages belonging to linguistic minority groups who are in the process of being integrated into a wider linguistic environment (p. 55).

To wax further on the complexity of bilingualism, Marsh (2002) reasons it can be understood “in terms of equilingualism”, defining an *equilingual* as “a person who is equally competent in two languages” (p. 55). The expression itself also carries an ulterior implication since, academically speaking, “[...] those who refer to the term mean to say that at the end of the educational process the students will have achieved equal measures of both languages, balanced like capabilities in the two languages they are learning” (idem, 2002, p. 55).

Another perspective comes from Scanlan (2011), who uses the definition put forth by Brisk (2006) to explain that bilinguals are “unique individuals with more than one language available to them, rather than as the sum of two monolinguals [...]” (p. xvii). This type of understanding, the author (2011) says, should be used by schools and governing bodies as a way to give children involved in bilingual education “cross-cultural” experiences since, in this way, they will be more successful in their academic and social endeavours when they are both allowed and encouraged to “value and cultivate their bilingualism and feel adjusted to both their heritage culture and their host culture” (p. xvii). Recently, Marsh et al. (2020) use the term in particular “to refer to an individual who frequently uses two or more languages or language varieties with greater or lesser fluency” (p. 3).

However, regional peculiarities abound as well: as Brüning and Purmann (2014) delineate, the word *bilingual* takes on a distinct meaning on the European scene, given the richness and diversity of languages in the region. The authors (2014) argue that here bilingualism “does not refer to the mastery of a second language at native-like proficiency, but it describes a

partial foreign language competence” (p. 315). Similarly, Rampton (1996) made a bold proposal to substitute *native speaker* with the term *expert*, with a view to intentionally remove the stigma and privileged notion of being a native speaker of a foreign language, given the fact that many foreign language learners (henceforth, FLL) today are non-natives and should not be held to an unattainable *native* standard. This proposal is reflected more recently in the updated *Common European Framework of References for Languages* (henceforth, CEFRL) where the C2 proficiency descriptor explains that, although it refers to *Mastery*, this is only in reference to an amount of precision and preciseness, and not a measurement of how native-like a speaker is (Council of Europe, 2018).

Turning now to cultural interpretations, it is by considering two very distinct instances of bilingual education that differences become ostentatiously more apparent: North America and Europe. On one hand, in Canada, bilingualism, à la immersion, is used as a way to reconcile students with the two official languages of the country (English and French) with the objective of graduating students with high competence levels in both languages. Just south of this country, on the same continent, North American bilingual programs seek to give children native-like competence in English as a Second Language classrooms (henceforth, ESL), with little regard for L1s distinct from English due to the fact that English is necessary for work and social success. When contrasted with some Europe countries (for instance, Spain), there is huge variance in these outcomes: few European bilingual programs aim for the acquisition of native-like fluency, generally accepted given the widespread belief that this would be neither feasible nor necessary for work or social purposes. Given these very different goals, it is clear why there is no clear international definition of what bilingual education is, what comprises bilingualism, or who should be labelled *bilingual*. However, despite the uncertainty in specificities, and objectives and definitions aside, languages are inherently associated with culture and tradition, and there is no argument over their importance in the world and to human society. It is universally agreed upon how vital bilingual education has been, and will continue to be, albeit incongruent interpretations of this very subject.

Ultimately, bilingual education is a complicated subject and term, but disparities aside, research should be done on a supranational level. As Aquino-Sterling (2021) contends, there needs to be research that spans national and international borders with “comparative and evidence-based understandings” (p. 186). This, the author (2021) states, is what will allow authorities to “continue to establish scholarly collaborations for advancing bi-multi-lingual education at regional, national, and cross-national level” (p. 186), instead of trying to define what is or is not bilingualism. To continue, this section will look at a history of bilingual education in

Canada and the United States and how it has shaped bilingual education in Europe, beginning first with the most recognizable form: immersion.

2.1.1. Immersion

One of the most well-known forms of bilingual education is *immersion*, a generic term that encompasses various meanings. Since the 1960s, hundreds of thousands of children have passed through immersion programs, giving precedence to the large amounts of research done on the implementation and outcomes of such (Marsh, 2002). Immersion programs are a common way of teaching languages and constitute one of the most popular forms of bilingual education in the world. There are various types of immersion programs, which fluctuate regarding both entry age and target language exposure: *partial*, *total*, *dual*, *late*, *early*, and other variations (Cenoz et al., 2014). Having developed primarily in Canada, educators and lawmakers soon realized that certain operational factors were quintessential to these programs, as Marsh (2002) elucidates: "immersion bilingual education was thus an educational approach that embraced a methodological perspective" (p. 57).

Regarding the advantages for bilingual education, immersion programs have time and again received positive reviews. Children in immersion programs tend to have native-like receptive skills and higher levels of proficiency and, likewise, they are able to assimilate the subject matter at the same level or higher than their monolingual peers. Furthermore, students are not jeopardized linguistically nor cognitively in that it is not detrimental of the native language. To boot, students of immersion programs foster more positive attitudes towards the L2 and its native speakers (Cenoz et al., 2014; Marsh, 2002).

However, no program will be without its critics. Navés (2009) points out some of the weaker areas for immersion students, mostly those concerned with grammatical competence and vocabulary knowledge. Moreover, productive skills such as speaking are not positively influenced, she argues. In this same vein, Swain (1988) lists four weaknesses of immersion: "no focus on form; functionally forced; listening is selective; and, the absence of productive skills" (p. 34).

Despite these criticisms, immersion programs are unquestionably one of most impactful instances of foreign language teaching (henceforth, FLT) in all of language teaching history (Madrid & Hughes, 2011). Immersion programs tout such success because, as Genesee (1994) points out, when engaged in learning environments with meaningful context and genuine purpose, learners are more encouraged and motivated to learn. The same author (1994) notes that these types of programs, where content and language are integrated, are undoubtedly superior to approaches where language is taught as its own entity.

2.1.2. Bilingual education in the west

2.1.2.1. Canada

A unique nation, the Canadians are innovators in bilingual education, a country which arguably has more experience with modern bilingual education than any other country in the world. One of the leading researchers in this setting, Genesee (1994), highlights how pioneering this country is, calling attention to "the most interesting and effective innovations in second language education in the last three decades" (p. 1). As a result of this remarkable success, the country has paved the way for bilingual education since the 1960s (Madrid & Hughes, 2011). These programs have and continue to contribute to the ever-growing levels of bilingualism in the country, flourishing language competence levels, as well as solidifying "Canada's national unity" (CPF, 2012, p. 1).

Given the presence of two official languages in Canada, English and French, instated by the *Canada's Royal Commission on Bilingualism and Biculturalism* in 1969, where it was officially recommended that French be an official language in conjunction with English (Canadian Council on Learning, 2007), it is only sensible that this country sought out a functional and effective way to teach both languages efficiently while simultaneously working to preserve the cultural identity of the nation by keeping both languages alive and in active use (Coyle et al., 2010). Alluding to the most peculiar characteristic of this country, Baker (1993) touches on the bicultural aspect of the country, in respect to other immersion programs, since Canadians appreciate the traditions and cultures of both French- and English-speaking persons. Coyle et al. (2010) elaborate on this, stating that the programs started in Canada as a way to improve the population's bilingual capacity and, although the reason why the programs became so popular in such a short amount of time is not entirely clear, the same authors indicate both the grassroots effort by parents and pressure from policy-makers as having substantial influence.

The Canadian Council on Learning (2007) sets forth guidelines regarding LL for the country and minimum competence levels for all Canadian citizens. Immersion courses are identified as a way to strengthen French LL around the country, given research-based evidence that proves these to be cost-worthy and effective. In this same vein, further well-documented research from the Canadian Council on Learning (2007) shows that immersion courses are widely promoted and generously supported in the country: 81% of Canadians surveyed supported bilingual education in Canada and wish for Canada to remain a bilingual country. The Canadian government itself attributes a number of benefits to bilingualism, economically, cognitively, and culturally, highlighting that bilingual speakers earn more, have enhanced problem-solving skills, and, most importantly, are able to be more active as Canadian citizens (idem, 2007).

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING: A QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE STUDY. CHAPTER 2 BILINGUAL EDUCATION

There are different immersion programs throughout the country and the two different ways to distinguish the programs are by the age the programs begin (*early*: ages five to six; *delayed* or *middle*: ages nine to 10; *late*: ages 11 to 14) and by intensity of the content given in the FL (*total*: 100%; *immersion* or *partial*: minimum of 50% immersion curriculum). Reilly and Medrano (2009) rationalize that many different forms of immersion courses are available, ranging from weak to strong. Furthermore, they explain there are four types of bilingual programs available:

- *Basic French* (traditional language classroom), French is taught as a single subject.
- *Extended French*: additional exposure to French is provided supplementing the core French in other subjects such as History or social studies.
- *Intensive French*: the newest form, the year is split in half, with intensive French LL taking place the first half of the year and the second half of the year dedicated to curricular studies.
- *French immersion*: French is the language of instruction in most all classes, it is not a subject that is taught rather it is how content is communicated.

The grassroots initiatives in this country are another unique aspect of its history. The original immersion bilingual education programs, created in 1965 in Quebec with an experimental kindergarten class, stemmed from parents' desire for their English-speaking children to have constructive exposure to the French language and to ultimately become bilingual in both French and English while keeping their mother tongue fully intact (Marsh, 2002; Reilly & Medrano, 2009). The grassroots movement made it both popular and effective, given the fact that it arose from stakeholders who were genuinely concerned with the outcomes, allowing it to gain momentum and sustainability. For their part, Coyle et al. (2010) argue that the real reason the immersion programs received such support from the beginning "was a proactive need to strengthen national unity" (p. 8). The authors remark on The Official Languages Act, which established two official languages in Canada and, henceforth, the right of any Canadian to use either of the languages, anywhere, at any time.

To strengthen the argument of their worth, Navés (2009) calls the Canadian immersion programs "extremely efficient and effective" (p. 2). She elaborates on research conducted with the stakeholders in these programs and highlights that only positive results have been found. Other researchers agree with the previously cited author and have commented on the positive outcomes of Canadian immersion programs (Genesee, 1994; Madrid & Hughes, 2011). Arguably, the greatest benefit of the programs is how much they have impacted modern LL, as touted by Madrid and Hughes (2011).

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING: A QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE STUDY. CHAPTER 2 BILINGUAL EDUCATION

Commenting upon research done on French immersion courses, the Canadian Council on Learning (2007) noted that findings from the past 40 years show that immersion students outstrip their peers who only take core (or traditional FL) classes:

Immersion students, especially those in early immersion, have been found to perform as well as native French students on tests of reading and listening comprehension. However, French-immersion students do not typically show native-like proficiency in speaking and writing skills although their linguistic deficiencies are generally not a serious obstacle to their effective use of French for academic or interpersonal purposes (p. 4).

Research from these courses has found that additive bilingualism² is at play (Reilly & Medrano, 2009). Most importantly, students are able to learn a second language at no detriment to their mother tongue because “languages are interdependent [and] skills developed in the second language are available for learning and using in the first language and vice versa” (CPF, 2012, p. 3).

The main objective of the immersion courses is another clear distinction from other forms of bilingual education, since, as Reilly and Medrano (2009) highlight, immersion courses have “bilingualism as an intended outcome” (p. 59). Immersion courses found in Canada can be characterized as additive bilingualism due to the peculiar situation where there are two prestigious languages (French and English) featured in the bilingual schools and outside in the community. Evidence drawn from studies indicates that students who are enrolled in immersion courses have a much stronger desire to further their FLL, contrasted with students enrolled in traditional FL classrooms, who do not seem to harbor nearly as much aspiration to continue FL studying in higher education and beyond (Canadian Council on Learning, 2007).

One of the main advocates for these programs, parents, campaign fiercely for immersion courses in the country, rationalizing their argument based on the generally accepted advantages these programs are able to provide to their offspring. French immersion in Canada is remarked to be a well-proven, functional style to FLL, and parents, amongst other citizens, pride themselves on the fact that no other program in the world has the rich history of years of intense research (CPF, 2012).

² “Additive means that even if a bilingual, for example a younger person, may unintentionally mix words and phrases in communication, cognitively the L1 and L2 provide an extra capacity which has been termed multicompetence” (Marsh et al., 2020, p. 28).

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING: A QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE STUDY. CHAPTER 2 BILINGUAL EDUCATION

Despite their irrefutable success, some flaws with the immersion programs have been found on the Canadian soil (Swain, 1993). One of the main problems is the need to rely heavily on the use of comprehensible input, based on Krashen's *Input Hypothesis* (1985), after studies found production skills to be weak in students. To counteract this fault, Swain (1985) developed the *Output Hypothesis* and, following the creation of such, Canadian programs began the widespread implementation of spoken activity to encourage high quality output and overall better language ability in students (Järvinen, 2006).

Along those same lines, another downside to the immersion courses in Canada remains: the grammar learned tends to be mediocre and unstable (Reilly & Medrano, 2009). Roza (2009) voices in on the negative effect of immersion courses, noting that immersion is insufficient and even though it is beneficial to communicative skills, it fails to deliver on other aspects.

Naturally though, immersion programs from Canada are unique to that particular learning environment. It has been attempted to replicate this immersion system on European soil but this cannot be done, given the stark contrasts between the Canadian and European contexts. There are various characteristics which can explain the unique makeup of the Canadian environment, as recompiled from Marsh (2002) and Reilly and Medrano (2009):

- A large supply of fully competent, bilingual teachers.
- The homogeneity of language starting levels.
- The homogeneity of socio-economic status of children.
- It began as a grassroots movement by parents.
- Participation in the programs is optional.
- It features a consistent pedagogical doctrine.
- The mother tongue of students is taken into account.
- The use of authentic language in the programs.

Widely accepted is the fact that European bilingual education archetypes cannot aspire to mirror or reproduce the Canadian model, as observed by Marsh (2002): "what has clearly been hugely successful and popular in Canada however does not necessarily transpose easily into European contexts" (p. 56). Despite this, and although not completely replicable, it does serve as a point of reference for policy-makers and educators in other parts of the world. Attending to those with qualms about FLL and mother tongue proficiency, Baetens Beardsmore (2002) argues that the extensive literature gathered from Canada proves most effective in eliminating fears about the negative effects that immersion programs could have on the L1, as the research has confirmed that second language instruction does not "cause any collateral damage" to the L1 (p. 25).

Similarly, Canadian immersion programs have been helpful in guiding general bilingual education research. Authors herald “the set of experiences gained through the Canadian model of immersion and its European applications” to be a beaconing light in the CLIL trajectory (Nikula et al., 2013, p. 71, referencing Johnson & Swain, 1997; Tedick et al., 2011). The Canadian immersion models reveal that students who are instructed in languages other than the L1 can profit immensely both in language and content proficiency (Nikula et al., 2013, p. 71). Along those same lines, immersion programs are considered to be “the historical precursor of CLIL programmes” (Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2010, p. 368) due to the fact that Canadian immersion education “was the prime conceptual reference point” when CLIL was in the early stages (Dalton-Puffer, 2011, p. 194). Those in the country are proud of its origins and how it has been a building block for bilingual education schemes internationally.

Regarding diversity in immersion, research drawn from these programs is insufficient³; however, there has been some positive feedback from researchers including Genesee (2007), who found that immersion programs in Canada were adequately “suitable and effective for a wide variety of learners”, including low-achievement students and those who “struggle” with their studies (p. 13). Findings from this country show that FLL does not have to be as exclusive as once thought, and governments, parents and teachers alike should disregard the previous notion that LL is only for certain types of students, since this reprehensible belief has been debunked and recent research sheds light on the fact that almost all types of learners can benefit from bilingual settings (Genesee, 2007, 2015; Genesee & Lindholm-Leary, 2013). In particular, Genesee (2015) finds that students with low attainment levels benefit from immersion programs in Canada, and are able to possess “increased levels of functional proficiency in French” (p. 12).

Hence, relevant research indicates there is no substantiation that would suggest the need to keep certain kids from enjoying the well-known benefits of bilingualism, although the decision must be made wholeheartedly, underlines Genesee (2015), as once the it has been made to place challenged or disadvantaged students in immersion courses, they should stay there for the years to come:

Thus, at present, there is no evidence to preclude most students from participating in immersion/bilingual programs, including students who might otherwise be at-risk for academic difficulties. At the same time, second language learning in school settings and the benefits of learning two languages take time. Thus, parents must make a long-term commitment to immersion

³ Cf. Chapter 3 for where research stands regarding diversity and inclusion

education and avoid switching students out of these programs unless there is strong evidence that individual children will perform better in a monolingual program (p. 13).

The Canadian Parents for French (CPF, 2012) also act as advocates for inclusive bilingual education, seeking to publish “recommendations for more inclusionary practices” as well as foment “equitable access” to immersion learning for all Canadian students based upon research on inclusive education (Genesee, 2007, p. 11). On the issue of inclusion, the parental stakeholders make it clear that the question is not if certain students should be included, but rather how they can best reap the benefits:

Myths about French immersion abound, and children who have any kind of learning disorder are often excluded from immersion programs for fear of compounding their problems, despite research showing that at-risk students can become bilingual and attain levels of first-language and academic ability commensurate with their learning challenges [...] Research evidence shows that language-acquisition systems of at-risk students are extremely powerful, even when they do not function normally. The challenge is how to create a learning environment in which these children’s potential can be fully realized (CPF, 2012, p. 11).

The stakeholders put forth inclusive practices for use in Canadian immersion programs, including bolstering teacher training and dispelling misconceptions regarding academically-challenged students, since some teachers might be “hesitant” to include these types of students, due to lack of experience, knowledge, or guidance (idem, 2012, p. 12). The advocates provide a list of interventions that teachers can include in their lessons to better attend to a diverse range of students (idem, 2012): “demonstrating techniques; using manipulatives; supporting oral language with writing; judicious use of students’ first language; pre-teaching vocabulary; rephrasing and restating; [...] modifying grading systems; varying the length of assignments; chunking tasks; using a variety of assignments; [...] and, offering oral instead of written tests” (pp. 12-13).

It stands clear that the immersion courses have been pioneering in second language research and are likewise inspirational for inclusive education.

2.1.2.2. North America

Moving south to the United States, which shares a continent with the formerly depicted country but little else when it comes to bilingualism, more than one fourth of the population in the U.S.A. holds a language other than English as their L1 and one in five students do not list English as their first language (Gándara & Escamilla, 2017). Against this backdrop of a nation that is truly multilingual, FLT in the United States is quite unique, in that English is given utmost priority, over any other language, despite the statistics revealing that millions of children residing

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING: A QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE STUDY. CHAPTER 2 BILINGUAL EDUCATION

in the U.S.A. speak a home language that is not English. Gándara and Escamilla (2017) note that learning English in the U.S.A. is a necessity for work and studies; therefore, the ultimate goal of ESL teachers in the U.S.A. is for their students to acquire native-like English fluency and not, in contrast to CLIL or immersion, to promote multilingualism or multiculturalism:

When defining bilingual education in the U.S.A., it is important to understand that, unlike in much of the rest of the world, bilingual education in the United States has primarily been a program whose goal is to teach English rather than to develop bilingualism/biliteracy (idem, 2017, p. 5).

Compared to the Canadian-French models, bilingual programs in the U.S.A. are distinct not only by their outcome-orientation, but also for their structural differences. The general make-up of the class differs from state to state; however, most students who partake in the programs in the United States are minority students with limited-English proficiency. Another difference from the Canadian immersion models is how languages play a role culturally: both French and English play a role in education and society in Canada, whereas English is the focal language in the U.S.A. without exception, despite the fact that the U.S.A. currently has no official language(s).

Similar to Canadian immersion, the U.S.A has also benefitted from quality research on these programs. Pérez Cañado (2012) lists the numerous studies done on North American bilingual education: Cummins (1989); Cummins & Swain (1986); Dulay, Burt & Krashen (1982); Genesee (1994, 1987, 2004); Genesee & Jared (2008); Greene (1997); Krashen (1996, 1999); Lambert & Tucker (1972); Lapkin, Hart, & Swain (1991); Lyster (1987); Swain & Cummins (1982); Wesche (2002); Willig (1985).

Bilingual education in the U.S.A. has not been without its challenges. Currently, arguments revolve around the functionality of the programs, highlighted by Fillmore and Snow (2000), who comment upon the reality that English acquisition in the U.S.A. is taking longer than before, questioning why FLL has not been more fruitful. They shed light on the fact that in the past, it took students around five years to learn English; however, now it is taking a minimum of seven years and more commonly up to 10. The same authors argue that the forms of bilingual education are being blamed by many, but they refute this option, claiming that “the problem exists irrespective of the type of program the students are enrolled in” (p. 22). The authors question if indirect language instruction and the use of simplified English, pictures, gestures, and songs, based on the natural approach, is actually working. They propose that this methodology is actually contradictive to LL and might be what is elongating the process of English acquisition in the U.S.A. The authors argue that if bilingual education is to be successful, there must be certain circumstances assured: first and foremost, students “must interact directly and frequently with people who know the language well enough to reveal how it works and how it can be used”

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING: A QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE STUDY. CHAPTER 2 BILINGUAL EDUCATION

(p. 24). These interactions are key to the LL process since the interactions with native speakers are when learners can interact with the language at an “appropriate level” and are given “ample clues” to how to communicate effectively and in a real way (p. 24). Problems begin to emerge when the learners do not have sufficient contact with the native language, specifically when “learners greatly outnumber people who know the language well enough to support acquisition” (p. 24). This disproportion can contribute to a phenomenon called *learnerese*, a deviation of any language that is considerably different from the standard version, a variety that non-native speakers use amongst themselves (idem, 2000). Gibbons (2002) sharpens this thought, alluding to how languages are learned is very much a social action:

While we are all biologically able to acquire language, what languages we learn, how adept we are at using it, and the purpose for which we are able to use it are a matter of the social contexts and situations we have been in: in a very real sense, what and how we learn depends very much on the company we keep (p. 8).

Concerning FLs other than English, mainly destined for North American students that hold English as their mother tongue, statistics show that a relatively low percentage of U.S. citizens are currently receiving any FL instruction. The National K-16 Foreign Language Enrollment Survey Report (American Council, 2017) details: “foreign language enrollments account for approximately 20% of the total school age population” (p. 6). And to boot, of the 50 states, only 11 of them require a foreign language credit as a necessity for high school graduation.

In that same vein, FLL in the U.S.A. is dominated by the Spanish language, with over 8,000 Spanish as a FL programs found throughout North American high schools, followed by French (3,738), German (1,548), Latin (1,513), Chinese (1,144) and American Sign Language (621). Other minority languages can also be found, albeit with marginal presence in schools: Arabic, Greek, Hindi, Japanese, Korean, Persian, Portuguese, Russian, Tajik, Turkish, and Urdu.

Language learning in North America is unique for varying reasons, and one of the most lucid reasons is that there are two types of language learners: those who do not speak English and are given ESL classes and those who hold English as their first language and are taught a FL. Concisely, FLT, when English is the target language, is very efficient, due to both the teaching techniques and the homogeneous monolingual context present in the country.

On the other hand, FLT that deals with languages other than English is quite the opposite. The FLT of other languages uses outdated methodology and many Americans opt out of LL, only heightened by the fact that LL is rarely a requisite in many institutions around the country. A shockingly low number of native English-speaking people in the United States can competently speak another language in addition to English.

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING: A QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE STUDY. CHAPTER 2 BILINGUAL EDUCATION

Recent research from the American Council (2017) shows that teachers, when surveyed about their language teaching approaches, and who were asked to state how they taught their classes, commonly assessed that they used traditional FLT methods, or “a standard approach to foreign language teaching” (p. 31). Further results from the American Council (2017) show how futile the efforts are to educate those in FLT methodology and traditional FLL still takes place:

The data [...] shows that little is being done to document language outcomes [and] show that language educators still have limited knowledge of appropriate ways to assess what students know and are able to do with language after different K-8 language learning sequences. However, lack of knowledge about foreign language teaching and learning at the school level was striking [...] (p. 35).

Referencing Ruiz (1984), Gándara and Escamilla (2017) comment on the problem that the U.S.A. has with prioritizing English: “languages other than English have been (and continue to be) primarily seen as a problem to be remediated by the schools” (p. 5). In that same vein, there is no acceptance of other cultures and languages in school environments, since “[...] in the minds of most Americans, bilingual education is for the purpose of teaching English and not actually educating a student in two languages” (p. 5).

Turning to the differences between the Eastern and Western education systems, Fillmore and Snow (2000) speak about the differences in American and Asian classrooms and the “school culture” that allows for and encourages “judgments about ability” based on teacher evaluation or perceptions of children’s abilities (p. 8). The authors note that in the U.S.A, educators and leaders truly believe that people differ in ability and intelligence and, accordingly, separating these students by level is thought to be functional and necessary and, through the use of readiness tests or different schools, the sorting of school-aged children takes place quite early on. However, this, the authors (2000) say, is fundamentally and structurally wrong since “well before children have had a chance to find out what school is about, they can be declared too fast, middling, or slow learners” (p. 8). They point out that recognizing the differences that exist is positive but the separation of students based on perceived abilities is wrong. Contrasting this situation with Asian countries, the same authors highlight that in this society all children learn together and work on the same curriculum “irrespective of any differences in ability”, and students who do need help get it, but never in the form of “an entirely different curriculum” (p. 40), such as the detrimental practices occurring in the U.S.A, where students are sorted by ability and can be systematically deprived of quality teaching environments, including a discriminatory practice of only allowing a certain portion of the population to access FLL.

2.1.2.3. History of bilingualism in North America

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING: A QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE STUDY. CHAPTER 2 BILINGUAL EDUCATION

To better understand bilingual education in the U.S.A. today, a brief look at the history of this country and its throes with FLL is in order. Historically, the U.S.A. has been a nation of immigrants, and very much continues to be one today. Bilingual education in the U.S.A. has spanned between acceptance and intolerance depending on a variety of factors including politics and the economy. For their part, Gándara and Escamilla (2017) label the relationship between the U.S.A., FLs and immigrants as “uncomfortable” (p. 2).

To summarize briefly the history of bilingual education in the U.S.A., Gándara and Escamilla (2017) reveal that Ohio as the first state to adopt a bilingual education law, in 1839, followed shortly after by Louisiana and New Mexico, and by the end of the 19th century, several other states had followed suit. However, a recession in 1870 was unfavorable towards immigrants and any policies “that seemed to favor them were targeted” (p. 2). Shortly after, the Naturalization Act of 1906 established the requirement of English language proficiency for any immigrant seeking to become a U.S. citizen. Following the First World War, immigrants’ languages and cultures were repressed by policies and laws. The authors (2017) note that this repression was heightened following World War II. However, these policies of repression could not and cannot obstruct the fact that the U.S.A. was and is ever-more a truly multilingual, multicultural country with citizens from around the world, inundated with myriad languages, ethnicities, and cultures in virtually every state.

Despite continuing to be a country of immigrants, boasting the highest number of immigrants in the world (almost 50 million), LL in the U.S.A. today is still less than ideal. Gándara and Escamilla (2017) argue that any improvements that have taken place concerning language competence levels can only be attributed to the immigrants that fill the schools and not the bilingual programs themselves. The fact remains that many North American citizens do not consider the knowledge of a second or third language to be an asset or a necessity for them to be successful in the American work society, as evidenced by Devlin (2018), who notes that FL as a skillset is often regarded as irrelevant by North Americans when it comes to listing traits that would be beneficial when seeking future employment.

2.1.2.4. Bilingual Act of 1968

With the large number of immigrants found in the country and ensuing multitude of cultures and languages abound in the U.S.A., the 1968 Bilingual Education Act (henceforth, BEA) evolved as a way to attempt to cater to the increasingly high number of students in the U.S.A. who were in dire need of language adaptation in the classroom.

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING: A QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE STUDY. CHAPTER 2 BILINGUAL EDUCATION

This act took into consideration students who had limited proficiencies in English and needed extra attention in order to be successful at school and in the workplace. However, the act had ambiguous goals, as Gándara and Escamilla (2017) point out, since no one was certain if students with limited linguistic competencies were intended to be taught in order to become bilingual, or simply taught so as to prioritize the learning of English. However, “the very fact that the legislation named the program ‘bilingual education’ gave credibility to the idea of instruction in two languages” (p. 3).

Over time, the BEA has been adapted numerous times, yet with each adaptation, the laws regarding bilingual education give priority to English versus minority LL. As the previously mentioned authors (2017) point out, each time “the regulations regarding bilingual education have been weakened in favor of the greater support for English-only instructional methods” (p. 4).

In 2001, the BEA was replaced with the *English Language Acquisition, Language Enhancement and Academic Achievement Act*, which clearly emphasizes the objective of bilingual education in the U.S.A. is to acquire the English language: “Since the early 2000s, federal policy has established definitely that bilingual education is for the purpose of teaching English and not about actually educating a student in two languages” (Gándara & Contreras, 2009, p. 11). These authors refer to the *Common Core State Standards* that have been implemented by the U. S. government and contribute to the suffocating monolingual policies in the country.

Typically, in the United States, bilingual education comes packaged as Content-Based Instruction (henceforth, CBI).

2.1.2.5. Content-Based Instruction

As previously stated, almost all of the bilingual education methods employed in the United States can be classified as Content-Based Instruction (CBI). Dueñas (2004) states that this type of bilingual education combines meaningful content and the target language in the classroom, which is ideal for optimal learning conditions. CBI has also been touted as having played a fundamental role in laying the foundation for modern LL. Brinton, Snow and Wesche (1989) and Snow (1998) mark CBI as the “predecessor” to CLIL, arguing that it was the influential force behind the “shift in FL instruction that is commonplace in Europe today” (Julius & Madrid, 2017, p. 18). There are three main types of CBI: *maintenance*, *transitional* and *ESL* which are detailed below.

2.1.2.6. Maintenance

Maintenance is typically for students who have no understanding of the English language, generally because they have only recently arrived in the United States of America. These are also called development programs or maintenance dual language programs and are additive in nature. The native language is used to teach fundamental, basic skills such as math and reading first. Following, the same curriculum is repeated in English. This method tries to nurture parallel learning in both languages and the "intent is to use two languages for content and literacy instruction for a sustained period of time" (Gándara & Escamilla, 2017, p. 7). Research has shown maintenance programs prove to be the best option, preferable to bilingual, English-only, or transitional programs.

According to the National K-16 Foreign Language Enrollment Survey Report (American Council, 2017), "recent evidence points to a renewed interest in language immersion, particularly dual language immersion, as a way to more effectively incorporate second language learning into the curriculum for native and non-native speakers of English" (p. 5).

2.1.2.7. Transitional

For their part, transitional programs feature classes taught in both languages. First, in the mother tongue and then increasingly in English as students' proficiency increases.

The better half of bilingual education programs in the U.S.A. are transitional bilingual education (Gándara & Escamilla, 2017). These programs employ two languages to convey input throughout the day, so the students are able to learn content subject and English simultaneously. The underlying goal of these programs is to learn English and, as such, they have been criticized for various reasons. Firstly, for failing to promote bilingualism; secondly, for contributing to an *English-washing* of languages and loss of students' L1s; and finally, they have been called "assimilationist", meaning they fail to promote any type of intercultural competence or multiculturalism (Gándara & Escamilla, 2017, p. 6).

2.1.2.8. ESL

ESL, or English as a Second Language, is used when there are not enough students available to form bilingual classes or in the case of students that need extra attention, who may be enrolled in extra ESL classes to improve their English. These classes supplement the subject classes, as a way to remedy content that has been *lost in translation*. There can be a mix of languages in these classes and the teachers may not be trained or fluent in all the languages. The speaking and comprehension skills in English are fundamental and worked on first; secondary to these are reading and writing, which come after the basic skills have been assimilated.

2.2. Bilingual education in Europe

Moving to another continent, where LL is vastly different, Europe has, historically, given considerably more importance to language competence in its citizens, given its rich cultural background, or as Eurydice (2023) lyrically waxes “linguistic diversity is part of Europe’s DNA” (p. 19). The Council of Europe includes 47 member states and 24 official languages⁴, almost the entirety of the continent, with an aim that “seeks to develop common democratic and legal principles based on the European Convention on Human Rights [...]. Ever since it was founded in 1949, in the aftermath of the Second World War, the Council of Europe has symbolized reconciliation”, and has made language one of its fundamental elements in this effort (Marsh, 2013, p. 38). The Council of Europe highlights five important aspects when it comes to languages:

- A plurilingual environment;
- using languages in combination with the mother tongue;
- diversity in a linguistic sense;
- citizens having the right to use and learn languages;
- using languages as a way to promote interculturality and tolerance.

Bilingual education is fundamental to European policies, which puts multilingualism and plurilingualism at its core, to strengthen and maintain relations between countries. However, although the research from Canadian and North American models proves they are effective, there are several binding reasons why these cannot be used on the European scene, the first and foremost being that these programs are context- and environment-specific (Marsh, 2002; Wolff, 2002). The programs in Canada and North America are disparate to how English is studied in CLIL programs in Europe, which is caused by factors which are threefold, as explained by Gallardo del Puerto et al. (2009): First, since both the sociolinguistic and sociocultural context in which the L2 is learned is different; secondly, because the authenticity of the output varies greatly; and, thirdly, as differences are found in the L2 teachers and objectives. As Eurydice (2023) underlines, the linguistic diversity within this conjunction of countries makes it an anomaly:

Europe is a linguistically diverse continent. This diversity includes not only official languages of countries but also regional or minority languages spoken for centuries on European territory, not to mention the languages brought by migrants. From the beginning, respect for linguistic diversity

⁴ Bulgarian, Czech, Danish, German, Greek, English, Estonian, Spanish, Finnish, French, Irish Gaelic, Croatian, Hungarian, Italian, Lithuanian, Latvian, Maltese, Dutch, Polish, Portuguese, Romanian, Slovak, Slovenian and Swedish

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING: A QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE STUDY. CHAPTER 2 BILINGUAL EDUCATION

has been seen as a key principle of the European Union and is inscribed in its most fundamental law, the Treaty on European Union (p. 15).

Moreover, globalization, as well as social and economic forces, significantly impact how learning is arranged in each country, how citizens are exposed to languages, and to whom the languages are for, as explained by Coyle et al. (2010). Marsh (2006) clarifies this, stating how globalization and new technologies are causing "[...] the formation of a new global order affecting many societies on an unprecedented scale" (p. 20). The author notes that the implementation of FLT "has been driven by practical and political decision-making", explaining how today's language policies are employed to gain social cohesion, educational development or objectives that are unique to each country (p. 30). The way these policies manifest themselves in the classroom is the only viable way to assess if they are effective or not, hence why immersion programs cannot be implemented throughout Europe and, consequently, why policymakers on this continent must provide a solution to FLL and FLT that facilitates increased exposure to the target language and more enriched opportunities for learners to use the language in meaningful ways (Muñoz, 2002).

Following the breakthrough studies done on bilingualism in the 60s and 70s, FL education in Europe saw new, enriched research and development take place. As a consequence of the EU governance and its ubiquitous policy on language, the *mother tongue + two* initiative concerning its citizens and their language competence in the 1990s was crafted (Van de Craen et al., 2007, referencing the 1995 White Paper). It was around this time that the term bilingualism was replaced with multilingualism, and subsequently, the term "CLIL" came into play: "the Commission also advised its member states to implement a teaching method in order to increase the language knowledge of its citizens: Content and Language Integrated Learning" (Van de Craen et al., 2007, p. 186).

Since 1994, research on education, says Marsh (2013), has been immense and driven based on the real needs of youth, with an aim to make language classes apt for these students:

There has been a steady flow of educators who have introduced CLIL, or become involved in the research or resource building that have maintained a strong and steady power base for its development. This has been the major power within the CLIL development trajectory; and it has been partly driven by commitment to change education and a sense that the types of teaching and learning practices embodied in CLIL not only work, but work with the generations of young people now in our schools and colleges (p. 130).

The CLIL launch in 1994 was both political and educational: politically, it was driven due to lack of mobility between nations, since low competence levels in languages hindered the movement of people; and educationally, it was driven by research from Canadian immersion

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING: A QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE STUDY. CHAPTER 2 BILINGUAL EDUCATION

programs. As Marsh (2013) delineates, it was from this year in time that “interest in CLIL was linked to EU strategic objectives” (p. 72). Some frameworks and noteworthy documents, objectives, agencies, and programs that have backed CLIL and are relevant to its prominence in Europe are listed below, as cited by Marsh (2013, pp. 32-75):

- Council of Europe (1949)
- Education Council (1976)
- European Commission (1978)
- European Parliament (1983, 1984)
- Education Council (1984, 1985)
- The LINGUA Unit (1989)
- Leonardo da Vinci Programme (1992)
- The Presidency to Education Committee (1995)
- Education Ministers Resolution (1995)
- European Centre for Modern Languages (EMCL) (1995)
- European Parliament SOCRATES Programme (1995)
- White Paper on Language Learning (1995)
- Year of Lifelong Learning (1996)
- European Year of Languages (2001)
- Mercator-Education (2002)
- Promoting Language Learning and Linguistic Diversity: An Action Plan (2004-2006)
- European Agency for Development in Specific Needs Education (2005)
- A New Framework Strategy for Multilingualism by the European Commission (2005)
- Council of the European Union (2005)
- Eurydice (2006, 2012)
- European Commission (2007, 2008, 2009, 2011)
- CCN (CLIL Cascade Network) (2008, 2010)
- European Framework for CLIL Teacher Education (EFCT) (2011).

To highlight some of these endeavors and their specific objective of promoting CLIL as a way of tackling LL on the continent, the EMCL, created in 1995, “focuses on bridging the gap between language policy theory and classroom learning practice [and] is committed to the Council of Europe’s policy of fostering linguistic and cultural diversity as a means of promoting intercultural dialogue, democratic citizenship, and human rights” (Marsh, 2013, p. 38). From 2011, The European Framework for CLIL Teacher Education (EFCT), serves as a “conceptual lens and model” and ultimately aims to “provide a set of principles and ideas for designing CLIL professional development and curricula”, acting “as a point of reference” for CLIL teacher training around Europe (idem, p. 2). Decades ago, the Education Council in 1976 listed objectives for FLT and FLL and the “promotion of language teaching outside the traditional school system” (idem, p. 46), while the LINGUA Unit created by the European Council in 1989 upholds “policy and

implementation support for innovation in language teaching and learning” (idem, p. 62). An important milestone in LL documentation, the Presidency to Education Committee in 1995 makes explicit reference to CLIL by mentioning “the teaching of subjects in foreign languages” (idem, p. 48) and similarly, the Education Ministers Resolution of 1995 “states the needs for citizens to acquire a keep up their ability to communicate in at least two community languages in addition to their mother tongue. It refers to the promotion of innovation methods [...] to the teaching of classes in a foreign language for disciplines other than languages” (idem, p. 48).

In this century, the Mercator-Education in 2002 “describes innovative forms of trilingual education [...] and CLIL as one such innovative method in relation to how such an approach can successfully develop improvement of language skills where three languages are used as the medium of instruction” (idem, pp. 51-52). One year later, the Action Plan by the European Commission in 2003 refers specifically to CLIL as how to promote LL. Two years after this was published, the New Framework Strategy for Multilingualism by the European Commission in 2005 served to raise awareness of the benefits of CLIL and provides information and scientific evidence on good CLIL practice and specific teacher training ideas. It states that “CLIL is being increasingly used across Europe and that it provides greater opportunities within the school curriculum for exposure to FLs” (idem, p. 54). Later on, the CLIL Cascade Network in 2008 states that “evidence from neurosciences continues to strengthen parallel research findings from within education on the outcomes of CLIL practice” and it “holds the potential of making a significant contribution to meeting the goals of the Lisbon Strategy” (CCN, 2008, p. 58). An updated CCN in 2010 then highlights the importance of convergence and integration as “hallmark” features of education in the 21st century: “there is evidence that languages should be taught in an integrated way, and not only as a separate subject” and CLIL “provides an opportunity for convergence, and the improved learning of content and language” (CCN, 2010, p. 10). Then in 2009, The European Commission states that “egalitarianism [...] is explicitly found in one [objective]” and that objective is CLIL (Marsh, 2013, p. 72). The European Commission stated concisely that CLIL was destined for success due to its ability to function practically “without imposing undue strain on either curricula, time or resources” (idem, 2013, p. 40). Equally important is its equalitarian nature, as” the approach is seen to open doors on languages for a broader range of learners” (idem, 2013, p. 40).

2.2.1 History of foreign language teaching methods

Language learning has had a long, complicated, and controversial history and has also been riddled with misconceptions and misappropriation. Coyle et al. (2010) connect LL to globalization, justifying that economic and social reasons decide who learns which language when, where, and how. However, historically, the need for LL to become more pliable and

effective led to more open discussion and piqued interest in how successful learning takes place and why (idem, 2010).

There are different reasons for learning languages; thus, it is hard to generalize, but most methods share the fundamental objective of being the most effective in the shortest amount of time (Coyle et al. 2010). Regarding the field of additional language theories, specifically the English language, there are a number of researchers who stand out with their contributions, on which stand the foundations of bilingual and FL education: L. Vygotsky and the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) and the acquisition of new knowledge; S. Krashen's elaboration of the natural order and input hypotheses; B. Bloom's taxonomy of critical thinking skills; H. Gardner's theory of multiple intelligences (MIT); J. Hattie's study of visible learning; and R. Berger's research on project-based learning.

2.2.1.1. Summary of outdated models

In the past, FLL was seen as tedious and difficult, focusing only on the mastery of linguistic structures, leaving communicative purposes by the wayside. It required long-term commitment, rule learning, mental discipline, obligatory memorization, and perpetual lists. There was no attempt to make the process any easier, and was an endeavour seen only for academically-blessed, highly-motivated students who were able to commit to such an arduous process. Put wisely by Lasagabaster and Sierra (2010), this type of *traditional* language teaching is "inauthentic, functionally restricted and therefore lacking a real communication function" (p. 13). This type of FLT has notoriously kept the term *traditional* in referring to its outdated and dysfunctional methodology. The most infamous approach of period that encapsulates traditional FLT would be Grammar-Translation, where grammar and rules took center stage, and communication was given zero priority.

Traditional FL classrooms are unable to give students sufficient and quality input, remarks Pérez-Vidal (2009). She explains that the real problem behind traditional FL classrooms is their relationship, or lack thereof with communicative methodologies. These traditional classes, she says, "ill-represent the wealth of domains of use and functions of language in general communication because communication seldom covers the domains of real communication" (p. 10). The same author argues that these classrooms fail to provide authentic input as well as being at a disadvantage due to the shortage of opportunities in which students are able to provide real output. Marsh et al. (2020) expand on why traditional language lessons often fail, since the content or material being learned "is detached from meaningful content" and "goes against the

principles of innate language learning ability” (p. 5, referencing Krashen’s (1985) affective filter hypothesis⁵).

Following the Grammar-Translation period, the 1950s saw a change in LL, with what subsequently has been called the “cognitive revolution” (Coyle et al., 2010, citing Broadbent, 1958). Researchers Bruner, Piaget, and Vygotsky came on the scene and changed the way languages were viewed and taught. Their research and theories “led to the development of socio-cultural, constructivist perspectives on learning” (Coyle et al., 2010, p. 3).

There was a plethora of approaches devised during this Structuralist period, all aimed at helping to make LL more accessible and interesting: The Direct Method, Audiolingualism, Community Language Learning, Suggestopedia, the Silent Way, Total Physical Response, and the Natural Approach. This change to a structural approach saw LL become more widely acceptable and user-friendly, and aimed to allow a more comprehensive portion of the population the means to speak and communicate in a FL.

All these methods were improvements from the previous method of translating texts; however, in the end, none of them could stand the test of time and all proved to be ineffective in the long run. Following this, a new age in LL arose in which methodology was based around practicality and accessibility, putting communication at the core, which will be summarized below, given its pertinence and relevance to CLIL.

2.2.1.2. Summary of CLIL-relevant models

Following the Structuralist period came the Communicative era, which understandably centered around the communicative competence and focused not only on how languages were learned, but on the teaching process itself. This era concentrated on moving away from the thought that FLL is innately demanding and only suitable for the elite or bright (Marsh, 2002), giving LL a new perspective of accessibility, ease, and utility.

Before this era, LL was not offered to many people based on the notion that many would not be able to commit to such a long and gruelling process, as Marsh (2002) points out. Communicative Language Teaching (henceforth, CLT) came about due to a more widespread belief on behalf of teachers and stakeholders that LL should be focused on real language use,

⁵ As Marsh et al. (2020) define, “affective filter is a metaphor for an imaginary barrier that is said to block learning when it is up and enable successful learning when it is down” (p. 5).

where learners are exposed to communicative situations similar to how he or she learned the native language (Wolff, 2007a).

With CLT, grammar was put to the side and oral skills became the focus of the class. Subsequently, rule learning was assimilated via deductive learning (Wolff, 2007a). The communicative age changed the way people thought about FLs and how they were seen for the first time: accessible. Major changes took place during this paradigm shift that would alter LL forever: learning by doing and using the FL to learn content (Marsh, 2002).

The communicative era continued into the 1980s, a decade which saw the improvement of FLT, where heightened attention was given to those who did the teaching, as opposed to those who did the learning, on whom the focus had mainly been in the past. Coyle et al. (2010) explain that CLT is worth mentioning when talking about connections to CLIL, since “communication approaches are based on theories of language learning requiring a focus on meaning as well as on form (grammar)” (p. 32). It was in this period that being a successful language user meant not only having a high level of fluency but also being able to actively use the language (Marsh, 2002).

Regarding policies for languages, in the middle of the decade (1995), the European Council highlighted the importance of LL by European citizens and it was recommended that students learn at least two other languages, known famously as the *mother tongue + two initiative*. Three years later, in 1998, The Education Council and European Parliament saw the need for “extra means of delivery” (Marsh, 2002, p. 52) in FLT and created several goals for FLL, which focused mainly on exposure to FLs at an early age. It was here that content and language first gained attention together, given that “much introduction of foreign languages to early learners would require combining the teaching of non-language content and language because of the structure and nature of pre-school and primary level schooling” (idem, 2002, p. 52).

Another important revolution during this time was how the word *communication* was viewed and understood, especially in the field of pragmatics⁶; Marsh (2002) preaches that the study and research of pragmatics in the use of FLL and FLT had a great impact on where we have come with FLT today and is what contributed to higher quality teaching environments. He

⁶ Marsh (2002) defines pragmatics as “the study of the choices language users make, the constraints they encounter in using language in social interaction and the effects their use of language has on other participants in the act of communication” (p. 54).

elaborates on the importance of pragmatics, since it shows us how native speakers use it and give us a glance into the social and cultural discourse aspects.

Following this, the 1990s were of particular interest when considering the attention given to teaching and learning through a FL, in conjunction with the countless initiatives that aimed to increase LL purposefulness (Marsh, 2002). This particular decade saw the publishing of a number of reports, and this span of years can be pinpointed as the moment when traditional bilingual education ideas and terminologies were replaced with other options; notably, learning subjects through FLs, or the now well-known terminology: CLIL (idem, 2002). There were several fundamental publications from the mid-1990s to the year 2000 that laid the foundations for CLIL, such as:

- 1995 White Paper (Teaching and Learning – Towards the Learning Society)
- 1996 Green Paper on Mobility
- 1997 Council of Education Ministers Resolution
- 2000 European Council Presidency statement
- 2000 Council Resolution.

Similarly, Marsh (2002) gives an extensive list of all the terms employed between the 1980s and 1990s that referred to learning and teaching in a second language around Europe (pp. 57-58):

- Bilingual education
- Bilingual nursery education
- Bilingual instruction
- Content based language teaching
- Content based second language instruction
- Development of bilingual education
- Dual focused language education
- Dual language bilingual education
- Dual majority language bilingual education
- Language maintenance bilingual education
- Extended language instruction
- Immersion
- Languages across the curriculum
- Language based content teaching
- Language bath

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING: A QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE STUDY. CHAPTER 2 BILINGUAL EDUCATION

- Language enhanced content teaching
- Language enriched education
- Language enriched content instruction
- Language maintenance bilingual education
- Language shower
- Late partial bilingual program
- Learning through an additional language
- Learning with languages
- Mainstream bilingual education
- Modern languages across the curriculum
- Multilingual education
- Plurilingual education
- Sheltered language learning
- Teaching through a FL
- Teaching non-language subjects through a FL
- Transitional bilingual education
- Two-way bilingual education
- Spanish/English/Finnish as a language of instruction.

Other mention-worthy terms are *task-based learning* and *subject-matter teaching*, both of which appeared in the 2000s. However, Coyle et al. (2010) note that, although these may share some characteristics of CLIL, they most certainly are not interchangeable terms.

Unfortunately, despite the innovation, the alleged communicative era was not wholly effective since it lacked authenticity, relevance, and more than anything, real communication (Marsh, 2002). Highlighting the shortcomings of communicative teaching, Coyle et al. (2010) propose it was ultimately: "[...] insufficient in realizing the high level of authenticity of purpose which can be achieved through CLIL" (p. 5).

Notwithstanding the imperfection of this time period, in addition to laying down the foundation for CLIL, the communicative-gear-ed-era brought to light some fundamental issues that needed addressing before LL could be taken to the next step, mainly concerning the confusion on where the focus lay: on form or on meaning. This is where CLIL comes in, as Coyle et al. (2010) conclude: "[...] in CLIL contexts it is not a question of whether to focus on meaning or form but rather than it is fundamental to address *both*, the balance of which will be determined by different variables in specific CLIL settings" (p. 35, authors' emphasis). Nieto Moreno de Diezmas (2016) concurs with this sentiment, adding that "integrated learning entails a two-fold focus: meaning and form" (p. 82). And finally, Graddol (2006) also supports this view, calling

CLIL the “ultimate communicative methodology” (p. 86), given that it arose from the communicative era and seems to fully encapsulate the advantages of this approach while overcoming the shortcomings and making LL effective.

Summarizing Sauvignon (2004), Coyle et al. (2010) list seven principles for communicative LL, which they agree are “inherent” to CLIL (pp. 32-33):

- Language is a tool for communication;
- diversity is recognized and accepted as part of language development;
- learner competence is relative in terms of genre;
- style and correctness are given priority;
- multiple varieties of language are recognized;
- culture is instrumental, and finally; and,
- there is no single methodology for LL and teaching, or set of prescribed techniques.

However, within these principles of CLT, there is a division between theory and practice: “[...] so often ‘communication’ in formal language learning settings is reduced to language practice based on grammatical progression rather than meaning-making” and while practice is discernibly essential to LL, learners must also be “supported in using language for content learning” if LL and CLIL are to be successful (Coyle et al., 2010, p. 33).

The fact remains that methodologies and pedagogies are ever-evolving and, as such, education systems have adapted to keep up with the times. This understanding allows us to appreciate the evolution of LL and the changes that it has undergone to arrive where it is today.

2.2.2. From L2 to CLIL

After the previously mentioned weaknesses in language education, from the 1990's onwards CLIL was given top priority in the EU (Eurydice, 2006), culminating in the pinnacle decision in 2002, when the Heads of State met in Barcelona to agree on objectives that would make LL accessible for all, thus giving all students the opportunity to study two FLs early on in their educative trajectory (Eurydice, 2023). As previously demonstrated, before CLIL came to the scene, language acquisition methodology was in need of vast improvement. For his part, Wolff (2006) describes the LL scene in the mid-1980s as bleak and incomplete, while numerous other authors attest to a multitude of mediocrity: poor input, negative effects on motivation, low quality resources, and lack of effort (Coyle et al., 2010; Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2010; Marsh, 2002; Pérez Cañado, 2013; Pérez-Vidal, 2009), and despite copious amounts of remedial policies, none of these ever proved themselves truly functional. Summed up by Pérez Cañado (2013), studies in Europe have, “consistently evinced that the resources and efforts invested in language learning

have failed to deliver the goods, rendering FL education unresponsive to idealized competence standards" (p. 13). Even the multiple frameworks that have been published have not been able to bring educational policies and methodology up-to-date. This is most evidenced when looking at "language assessment and evaluations practices", which are "frequently out of synchrony with the realities of learning and acquisition" (CCN, 2010, p. 5), and, up until less than a decade ago, a reality in many European countries. Before the appearance of CLIL, there was a void between content and language, which is "understandable given the independent disciplinary backgrounds, separate teacher education programs and individual curricular statues of both content and language subjects" (Järvinen, 2007, p. 254). Dalton-Puffer (2011) divulges on the "expectations" of LL, which have been, and continue to be "fueled by dissatisfaction with the outcomes of school-based FLL and a somewhat stereotypical view of foreign language lessons as a series of mechanistic grammar drills" (p. 193), and hence, why CLIL has become the solution to LL for the continent.

It was in the 90s that misuse of the term bilingual became apparent, as well as the inappropriate labelling of certain instances as bilingual education, due to a widespread disparity among European schools located in bilingual environments or border regions, where bilingual education was truly taking place and high levels of bilingualism were achieved, in contrast to monolingual milieus that were just beginning their journey with bilingual education. This is why "in 1992, the proposition was made that the term bilingual education would not be optimal to describe schools where partial teaching through a FL would be developed" (Marsh, 2013, p. 62).

In 1993, the term CLIC showed up (Content and Language Integrated Classrooms) but did not stick since it "denoted the context, not a methodological approach", and hence the need "for term adjustment" (Marsh, 2013, p. 63), which is exactly what happened one year later with the appearance of CLIL: Content and Language Integrated Learning (EMILE in French, *Enseignement d'une Matière par l'Intégration d'une Langue Étrangère*; AICLE in Spanish, *Aprendizaje Integrado de Contenidos en una Lengua Extranjera*). As explained by Marsh (2006, 2013), it is a terminology insinuating "diverse methodologies which lead to dual-focused education where attention is given to both topic and language instruction" (p. 32). The Education Ministers Resolution of 1995, which stated European citizens' need to be able to use and maintain the ability to communicate in two languages in addition to their native language, used the terminology *innovative methods* such as "the teaching of classes in a foreign language for disciplines other than languages" and, thus, was "one of the first pieces of legislation regarding cooperation of CLIL" (Eurydice, 2006, p. 8).

According to Marsh (2006), the term CLIL was more formally put into action by the University of Jyväskylä (Finland) and the European Platform for Dutch Education. An important

detail is underlined that even though the term *CLIL* itself is only about two decades old, the dual-focused learning environment it describes is anything but novel (Eurydice, 2006; Marsh, 2006; Pavón Vázquez, 2013). Furthermore, it has been argued that while this approach may be seen in Europe as historically innovative, this does not automatically make it pedagogically unique (Cenoz et al., 2014). Following initiatives within Europe, directives on the continent decided to adopt the term CLIL as a “generic umbrella term” under which any and all activity where the target language is used as an instrument in the learning of content and both language and content are present and equally important in the curriculum (Marsh, 2002, p. 59). In that same vein, after the 1995 *White Paper*, there was a “call for learning more languages”, which in turn “led to an upsurge of activities and research on bilingualism in the school sector, which mainly focused on teaching *in* a foreign language rather than teaching *a* foreign language” (Van de Craen et al., 2007, authors’ emphasis).

Highlighting the situation in the late 1990s and early 2000s, shortly after the term CLIL itself was coined, Marsh (2002) notes there was discrepancy between theory and practice when it came to FLT and results inside the European Union. The same author (2006) calls this a “delivery gap” between the targets set for citizens, and the outcomes that were actually being reached; thus, the ensuing motive for giving language education, in the form of CLIL, top priority. Marsh (2006) points out how CLIL is a “functional approach to language learning” (p. 33) and is the modernized form of bilingual education; its aim being to better arm learners with the skills and knowledge suitable for our contemporary and globalized society. One of the first instances of CLIL can be traced to Wales, pinpointed by Van de Craen et al. (2007), an early example of CLIL in Europe, promoted as a way to boost the Welsh language competence.

To isolate another milestone in the trajectory of CLIL’s beginnings, in 1995, the European Commission’s *White Paper on Teaching and Learning: Towards a Learning Society* incited the famous *mother tongue + two initiative* aimed at improving the FL competence of all European citizens by requiring a proficiency in two FLs in addition to the individual’s native language (Nikula et al., 2013). This initiative was created with a view to generally improve the working and student populations of Europe, enabling more language-fluid citizens to move freely around the continent and allow them more competitiveness in the job market, both in and outside of their home country (Genesee, 2015). Pérez-Vidal (2009) delineates CLIL’s birth from the communicative approaches in conjuncture with three modern advancements, taking place in education, technology, and society: “[...] in the field of teaching and learning- the new views on autonomous learning; in the field of technological development- the impact of the widespread use of the internet and ICT; in social relations- the world’s growing internationalization and student mobility schemes” (p. 6).

The need for languages beyond education for work and related purposes, were, as Marsh

(2013) explains, quickly “explored with respect to the capital value of having a population with the ability to use more than one language” (p. 24). The aforementioned author continues explaining this change in thought surrounding languages, mainly the additive nature of LL and benefits it has on overall intelligence: “if we are to shape the future of languages in education around the best interests of young people than we need to recognize that knowledge of more than one language mobilizes the potential for change that is linked to mental processes” (p. 136). Following the beginnings of CLIL, a 2005 European Commission report asserting the functionality and advantageousness of CLIL was published and this methodology was subsequently promoted and widely implemented throughout Europe. CLIL has likewise benefitted from the multilingualism present on the continent, and began to be heralded as the instigator capable of transforming “a classroom from a place which promotes mainstream monolingualism, to a dynamic intercultural and multilingual environment in which to learn” (idem, 2013, p. 158).

Many researchers manifest that CLIL’s profound implementation comes from the want and need of plurilingualism throughout Europe (Coyle, 2007b; Lorenzo, 2007; Marsh, 2006; Pérez Cañado, 2012). For their part, Nikula et al. (2013) agree that CLIL implementation in Europe is due to the increased chances of learning meaningful language. On his behalf, Mehisto (2008) contends CLIL has drawn interest due to the fact that it is “cost-effective” and “a window of opportunity”; a realistic approach capable of bringing about real change in education (p. 130).

It was the very weaknesses of traditional FLT that led to the emergence of CLIL, as a solution to finally combat them and provide a final answer to LL once and for all. Bergillos et al. (2007) note how “CLIL has found impetus both in the decades-old negative reputation which has tainted FL education, rendering it unresponsive to idealized competence standards, and in pan-European moves towards pluriculturalism and plurilingualism” (p. 1). For her part, Pérez Cañado (2013) highlights that CLIL came to: “[...] satisfy a thirst of a post-modern multilingual world whose key words are *fusion* and *flexibility*” (p. 12, author’s emphasis). It is able to meet the demands of the generation of students that are living in an increasingly complex world with blurred borders.

Foreign LL is especially remarkable in Spain, where CLIL has been extensively researched; widely acknowledged to be the catalyst capable of fixing LL problems rooted in the country. The inability of the Spanish education system to graduate competent FL users uniformly throughout the nation has been a topic of heated debate for decades. The emphasis the Spanish government has placed on FLL is highlighted by Reilly and Medrano (2009), who note that FLT and FLL have been prioritized by the Spanish government since 1970, when FLL became compulsory at the age of 10 with the *Ley General de Educación* (LGE, acronym in Spanish) and, 20 years after, in 1990, the *Ley Orgánica General de Sistema Educativa* (LOGSE, acronym in Spanish), which lowered the

age of compulsory LL to eight. However, despite the exposure to an FL at a young age, and after eight years of FL education, graduates continued to have considerably low competence levels upon completion of Compulsory Secondary Education (henceforth, CSE), leading many to believe that acquiring a FL was not possible in the Spanish education system and gave rise to the popular belief that “the only way of achieving an acceptable level of communication in the English language was to attend summer courses in the UK or study at an elite bilingual private school, both of which involved considerable financial outlay for parents” (Reilly & Medrano, 2009, p. 61). The need for an alternative solution was more than palpable, leading to the signing of an agreement between the Spanish Ministry of Education and Science (MEC) and the British Council in 1996, which offered 1,800 students in 43 schools the chance to study in an early partial immersion (CLIL) program (idem, 2009).

The historical failures of the Spanish government to properly and sustainably address the problem regarding LL and proficiency among the Spanish population is attributed by Pérez Cañado (2021a) to “the lack of teaching tradition and social concern for language education”, especially considering the faulty and negligent official legislation in the past two decades that has regulated FLT in the country (p. 4). In the 1990s, this author (2021a) explains, FLL was optional, and was mainly found in Bacalaureate levels, French being the most prevalent L2 taught. The General Education Law of 1970 (*Ley General de Educación*, LGE, acronym in Spanish) introduced FLL in Secondary education and in 1990 the Organic Law of General Education System (*Ley Orgánica General del Sistema Educativo*, LOGSE, acronym in Spanish) is when FLL began to appear in Primary education levels. Twelve years later, in 2002, the Organic Law of Quality Education (*Ley Orgánica de Calidad Educativa*, LOCE acronym in Spanish) introduced FL instruction in Infant education and, four years later, in 2006, the Organic Law of Education (LOE, *Ley Orgánica de Educación*, acronym in Spanish) gave students access to a second, albeit optional, FL (the L3) in Primary education. However, despite early fiascos at legislation, the author (Pérez Cañado, 2021a) acknowledges that the publishing of the LOMCE and more recently Organic Law Modifying the Organic Law of Education (LOMLOE⁷) in 2013 and 2021, respectively, prove that bilingual education in the country is improving, and moving along satisfactorily, and, quite significantly, it also shows us that: “all regional educational authorities are now endorsing plurilingual policies” (idem, p. 4).

As for the detailing of CLIL’s history in Andalusia, Granados and Lorenzo (2022) wax on the more important milestones, beginning in 1996, when the Spanish Ministry of Education and

⁷ Cf. section 2.3.3 for current legislation in Spain and section 3.4.1. for a detailed history of language legislation in Spain.

British Council signed an agreement to widen the offer of bilingual programs to 10 of the country's 17 regions, excluding the southern autonomous community of Andalusia, home to the largest number of Spaniards of all the Spanish communities with well over 8 million Andalusian inhabitants. A decade later, Andalusia launched its first bilingual program, which announced itself as promoting the learning of other languages and the creation of the first bilingual centers. CLIL was clearly defined in the publication of the Regional Decree of March 22nd, 2005 (Official Bulletin 5th of April⁸) by highlighting that these bilingual centers would not just increase the amount of hours dedicated in the curriculum to the L2 or FL, but the FL would become an instrumental language of learning, a vehicular language, parallel to the mother tongue, in that it would be teaching content from the curriculum. This was called a language bath (in Spanish, *baño de lengua*), based on communication, interaction and in the prioritizing of oral aspects.

CLIL is considered Europe's personalized version of the Canadian immersion programs and North American CBI methods, coming about due to the fact that previous approaches to bilingual education in Europe were seemingly "borrowed" from other countries and environments; hence the reason they never completely functioned in this environment. Lorenzo (2007) emphasizes that CLIL is to Europe what bilingual education is to Canada and the U.S.A. Other authors (Fernández Sanjurjo et al., 2019) attest to the fact that CLIL has its roots in Canadian immersion and North American bilingual programs; however, it is by no means a replica of these (e.g. Marsh, 2002; Muñoz, 2007; Lorenzo, 2007; Pérez Cañado, 2012). Shedding more light on this topic, Pérez Cañado (2012) waxes on the uniqueness of CLIL and why "it merits attention in its own right, as it is no longer considered a mere offshoot of other types of bilingual programs, but an increasingly acknowledged trend in foreign language teaching" (p. 4). Finally, for her part, Pérez-Vidal (2009) argues CLIL is different from previous approaches regarding content, given its "multifaceted nature [...] encompassing a social level, an educational level, and a linguistic and cognitive level which comes to mind" (p. 3). Various authors (Fernández Sanjurjo et al., 2019; Smit, 2007) indicate that CLIL is a European term and topic.

Unquestionably, this methodology brings with it the solution to Europe's unique LL climate and the challenges the continent faces as a result of its sociolinguistic and cultural diverseness, or, as Marsh (2002) states, CLIL "has emerged as a pragmatic European solution to a European need" (p. 11). Europe's plan for multilingualism in all European countries and consequent national initiatives have embraced CLIL "as an educational innovation that *suits the times, needs, and aspirations of learners*" (idem, 2002, p. 11, author's emphasis). This is due to, as Eurydice (2023)

⁸ <https://www.juntadeandalucia.es/boja/2006/156/5>

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING: A QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE STUDY. CHAPTER 2 BILINGUAL EDUCATION

alludes, "the mosaic of European languages" (p. 19) is notably unique in that it includes official languages of each participating member country as well as regional languages that, while might not be official, have been in circulation in some European countries for hundreds of years, in addition to the languages brought by immigrants and migrants.

Expounding on the differences between FLT and CLIL, Lasagabaster and Sierra (2010) state the not-so-obvious; FLT on its own does not improve language competence, insisting "intensive FLL does not seem to be the solution [since] research has shown that there is no linear relationship between instruction time and learning achieved [...]" (p. 367). Moreover, it seems that bilingualism itself may not be actual perpetrator of all the added academic benefits; rather, it may actually play less of a role than expected and, paradoxically it might be the "learning contexts" (such as CLIL) where "metalinguistic development may be favored [...] and in which students of a L2 are compelled to apply higher-order strategies" (Francis, 2004, p. 29).

In this same vein, after the passing of several laws manipulating the number of hours students would spend receiving FL instruction, it became apparent that the solution to language acquisition lies in the type and quality of instruction and not the amount of exposure, since increased exposure to the FL does not necessarily equate to an increase in competence, especially true if learning is taking place in a traditional FL classroom. It became categorically evident that contact with the FL must take place in a quality environment, such as CLIL classrooms. This key to increasing proficiency levels in students was finally recognized and widely accepted since "true communication prevails and with it, language programs that pursue cohesion, coherence and text completion as the natural framework of language learning" (Lorenzo, 2007, p. 28). A "new vision" was aroused in the teaching methods from the 1990s, and "CLIL has breathed new life into experiential methods like the task-based approach and made them more authentic" (idem, 2007, p. 28). Touching more upon the authenticity of CLIL, Marsh (2013) acknowledges that the benefits CLIL students enjoy could possibly be achieved in a non-CLIL classroom and even in the traditional FL classroom, yet the fact remains that there are many factors which can inhibit this from happening: "the constraints of time, curriculum, purpose, frequently reduces even the best language teachers' ability to develop language awareness deep within a lesson. Thus, CLIL can provide a platform for supporting language awareness goals due to its integrative nature and pedagogical practice" (pp. 100-101).

Put simply, this innovative approach is a way to bring together and give name to the similarities and success rates that existed in modern language education methodologies which schools and education systems alike had been attempting for decades to identify and understand as a way to enrich LL and teaching (Coyle et al., 2010). CLIL puts a label on these successful practices and mainstreams the experience so that all learners can partake and teachers can begin

to have a more systematic way of teaching.

The embracing of this specific term was part of the movement that aimed to more clearly define CLIL “midst a plethora of related approaches” (Coyle, 2007b, p. 2), including a few such as CBI, immersion, and bilingual education. Before the actual proliferation of CLIL, many European countries already had quite a bit of experience with the integration of content and language. Thus, the reason for bringing about this new term was so researchers could identify “core principles and methodologies, which had been developed over the last 30 years, but which had resulted in the use of a myriad of terminologies”. Moreover, European research groups were looking at “fragmented” and “often-isolated approaches”, concluding that they seemed to be “hindering the spread of what appeared to be a promising educational approach into mainstream education” (Marsh & Wolff, 2007, p. 5). This approach is considered by researchers as both an alternative to communicative language teaching (Bruton, 2011a; Coyle et al., 2010) and an extension of it (Dalton-Puffer, 2007b; Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2010).

There are, according to Coyle et al. (2010), four major driving forces that have led to the widespread implementation of CLIL, in addition to the top-down recommendations given to increase LL:

- Parents concerned about their children’s language competence;
- governments concerned with the socio-economic disadvantage that a lack of language education gives them;
- the need for a foundation with greater inclusion and stronger economy, and;
- language experts who wanted to promote this movement as a way to explore the potential that could come from the integration of language and content.

Moreover, attributable to the proliferation of CLIL are the characteristics of the 21st century: globalization, increasingly invisible borders, technology, the *Knowledge Age*, and socio-economic changes (Coyle et al., 2010; Marsh, 2009). For his part, Marsh (2013) argues that CLIL has become notorious due to its promotion of English, something that nowadays is seen as an asset for working. He comments on the “[...] pressure of internationalization led to English (as a perceived international language) being adopted in higher education, which then placed pressure on general education to follow a similar path” (p. 23). Due to the influence from these factors, education systems in Europe are under pressure to catch up with the modern learner, who learns quicker than ever before and does not respond in the same way to traditional methods. Lorenzo (2007) notes that given the historical importance in Europe of multilingual education, CLIL can hardly be seen as “groundbreaking”; however, it is the “scope and spread” that makes it “noteworthy” (p. 29).

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING: A QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE STUDY. CHAPTER 2 BILINGUAL EDUCATION

On that same note, grassroots support has also been a driving force for CLIL (Lorenzo, 2007). Parents believe that this pedagogy will give their children “the edge” they need to find steady employment (Dalton-Puffer, 2011, p. 183). The author notices that the change in bilingual education was truly made when there was “a clear movement away from relying solely on the idea of the self-propelled, implicit language learner” and people came to rely on educational institutions (p. 194), coupled with both top-down and bottom-up initiatives which have been in sync when it comes to LL policies. CLIL has been charged with driving forward the LL goals put forth by the EU, explaining the rationale why many have enthusiastically jumped behind this movement, emphasized by Dalton-Puffer (2011), since stakeholders involved in CLIL in many European countries hold two similar ideologies: English is of the utmost importance and traditional FLT methods are not fully functional for 21st century students.

In the early 2000s, arguments for the use of CLIL were stronger than ever, owing mainly to the incredible need for reforms in FLT. Given its highly potential nature to be the methodology European language users were seeking, it was the most widely accepted solution. Five major reasons are put forth by Marsh (2013) as to why CLIL is and was espoused in such a pervasive manner: “culture, environment, language, content, and learning” (pp. 66-69).

Explaining these points, the author (2013) details the following: regarding *culture*, it builds intercultural knowledge and understanding about neighboring countries, regions, and minority groups to show the learner the wider cultural context where they are situated. With respect to *environment*, it prepares the student for internationalization and enhances school profiles. Concerning *language*, oral skills are developed with a profound awareness of mother tongue and target languages where learners develop plurilingual interests and attitudes. Next, *content* allows students the opportunity to study a subject in a different way where students understand the subject-specific target language terminology and preparing students for future studies or work. Finally, *learning* complements individual learning strategies where gender gaps are reduced and more diverse methods and forms of classroom practice which increases motivation. As Coyle (2007a) highlights, CLIL is a very general concept that can be applied to all levels of education, for all ages and for all types of courses, with varying degrees of exposure to the language. Echoing this sentiment, Marsh (2002, 2005) notes that CLIL is seen in all levels of education, from preschool to tertiary education, and beyond.

Concerning inclusion, CLIL has also found momentum. Unlike in the past, when learners have been excluded from LL for a plethora of reasons, CLIL has carved a path in FL education, making it viable for all. Historically and up until not that long ago, LL was not accessible for all, outlined by Marsh (2013) as being due to six overarching motives: socioeconomic status, negative attitudes when considering learning differences, weak learning environments, insufficient

legislation, lack of support from family, and lack of clear-cut learning objectives. Fortunately, CLIL is touted as having the potential to break these barriers and accommodate all learners.

Similarly, a new skillset, which includes traits like autonomy and curiosity, is needed for modern students, owing to globalization. Skills which would be difficult to come by in a traditional classroom, but stem from innovative learning environments such as CLIL:

Technological advances and increasing globalisation are changing labour markets around the world [...] Thus, education needs to ensure that young people have acquired the kinds of fundamental skills and attitudes towards learning – including motivation and self-efficacy – that will enable them to benefit from lifelong learning (OECDa, 2019, p. 43).

CLIL's trajectory to success has been a long time coming. Highlighting its relatively short life span, Van de Craen et al. (2007) sum up the drastic change that modern bilingual education has had: "[...] in less than 50 years, bilingualism and bilingual education underwent a complete shift of appreciation: from almost complete rejection until the 1960s to entirely mainstream in the early 2000s" (p. 187); a journey that few academic or scientific subjects can relate to.

2.3. Language learning in the 21st century

Since the beginnings of CLIL and development of modern pedagogies, education has ceaselessly changed rapidly and drastically over the past two decades, quicker than ever before, heavily influenced by the impact of technology on the world. Researchers refer to the educational environment of the 21st century as the *Knowledge Age* (Coyle et al., 2010; Fernández Yubero & Pareja Moreno, 2009; Marsh, 2002). This modern age requires a new mindset, for teachers and learners. As Pérez Cañado (2021b) puts it concisely, teaching and learning have changed drastically in the past years, and learning is now proactive rather than reactive:

The teaching-learning process can thus no longer confine itself to being transmissive and memoristic, but needs to place the onus on the development of the afore-mentioned soft skills, which involve core competencies such as cooperative work, conflict resolution, initiative and leadership, creativity, resilience, proactiveness, decision-making, critical thinking, and ultimately, lifelong learning (p. 33).

With this knowledge comes insight, yet confusion is also at hand, as policy-makers and educators scramble to keep up with the learners of this day and age. The society we live in presents many challenges, not only for LL education, but for education as a whole: "what some of us do not understand is that the reason the digital generation has different skills and literacies is that there has been a profound shift in the kind of skills used and needed to operate in the digital world" (Marsh, 2013, p. 117, referencing Jules et al. 2010). Learners' mindsets have

radically changed, owing mostly to the fact that the young learners of today, Gen Z and Gen Alpha, have been exposed to technology from very young ages and, as such, respond well to educational approaches that allow them to *learn now and use now*, rather than the traditional methodological techniques that hinge on: "learn for now, use later" (Coyle et al., 2010, p. 10). Marsh (2013) explains how digital media has had "a profound impact on the minds of young people and that dissatisfaction with contemporary schooling is steadily rising" (p. 117). Undeniably, one of the main driving forces behind this change is technology and the denominated *Knowledge Age* is the bringing of integrated, participative learning to the forefront, which obstinately requires a shift in behavior, as explained by Marsh (2002): "CLIL is not merely a convenient response to the challenges posed by rapid globalization; rather, it is a solution which is timely, which is in harmony with broader social perspectives and which has proven effective" (p. 5). As Coyle et al. (2010) point out, "integration has become a key concept in the modern age, along the immediacy of purpose" (p. 10). Learners are used to dealing and interacting with various concepts at one time and both integration and immediacy of purpose are found in the CLIL methodology, making it the solution for the learners of today and those to come.

Revealing more about the 21st century, Schleicher (2018) makes note of the "unprecedented challenges" being faced in the world today, which, according to the author, are tri-fold: "social, economic and environmental" (p. 2). As the author notes, the changes that are happening have made the future *uncertain*: students who are in schools now will be living in a future that may look vastly different from the world today. This challenging task will fall into the hands of schools, which must "prepare [students] for jobs that have not been created yet, for technologies that have not yet been invented, to solve problems that have not yet been anticipated. It will be a shared responsibility to seize opportunities and find solutions" (p. 2). As such, education must adapt in order to cater to the learners of today and their attitudes and motivations, since "older learners are increasingly unwilling *to learn now for use later*, but prefer *to learn as you use* and *use as you learn*" (Marsh, 2002, p. 10, author's emphasis).

Introducing the PISA 2018 results, Gurría (2019) highlights further the changes in education, mainly due to technology and the paradigm shift that is taking place in society and schooling regarding digital forms of text and devices: "[...] the demands placed on the reading skills of 15-year-olds have fundamentally changed. The smartphone has transformed the ways in which people read and exchange information; and digitalisation has resulted in the emergence of new forms of text, ranging from the concise, to the lengthy and unwieldy" (p. 3). The same author notes that before mainstream use of the internet, students were able to find "clear and singular answers" to problems or questions in "carefully curated and government approved textbooks", and were able to confidently trust that these were the true answers (idem, 2019, p.

3). However, this is no longer the case, and students are bombarded with misinformation and fake news: "Today, [students] will find hundreds of thousands of answers to their questions online and it is up to them to figure out what is true and what is false, what is right and what is wrong" (idem, 2019, p. 3). Lamentably, many students today have mediocre proficiency levels in reading and written comprehension, virtually unable to "distinguish between fact and opinion, based on implicit cues pertaining to the content or source of the information" (idem, 2019, p. 3). Furthermore, teaching has been made even more challenging since easier information to teach is what has been the quickest to be digitalized and automatized (idem, 2019), leaving teachers grappling with how to create innovative activities that will connect students with more abstract concepts.

Collectively with this shift, another major characterization of the 21st century is globalization and the undeniable importance of English in the world (e.g. Cross, 2022; Doiz et al, 2014; Graddol, 2006). English is very much rooted in many parts of the world; as Pérez Cañado (2021b) declares, it "will remain firmly entrenched in the educational system and will increase its outreach to more diversified levels of society" (p. 39). For his part, Siqueira (2012) argues that due to "its de-nationalism, English has become a language which represents and provides access to several cultures, including those from countries and territories practically unknown or strange to many people" (p. 201). To boot, even though European authorities have been supporting CLIL for the multilingualism it can afford citizens, the "reality" is that CLIL mainly features English as the language of instruction (Llinares & Cross, 2022, p. 171). Banegas (2022) on the other hand cautions that while English might not dominate all CLIL programs, the other languages featured, more often than not, are rarely minority, or regional languages, a feature which "may be detrimental to efforts to promote multilingualism across contexts and regions" (p. 278).

Movement of people is also happening on an unprecedented scale; Nikula et al. (2013) address the changes that have occurred in society, of which have stemmed an "increasing internationalization and mobility, which have highlighted the important role of languages in modern societies, with versatile language repertoires forming a social and economic asset for both individuals and societies" (p. 71). Cavalheiro (2020) says the increase in the number of refugees and migrants who are looking for better living conditions has led to political and economic changes, as well as "cultural, linguistic and societal" changes in many countries around the world (p. 31). Furthermore, the necessity of English has undergone a thorough transformation: it has gone from that of a superfluous knowledge to an imperative competence for employability and integration (Cavalheiro, 2020). Coupled with this, the landscape of communication has shifted, and English is more important than ever for integration and interactions around the world:

Considering the array of linguistic and cultural backgrounds of (im)migrants and refugees, many of the times it is difficult to communicate in the local language of a specific country, especially when one has recently arrived, either for a temporary amount of time or to establish themselves there. In these situations, more often than not, English functions as a *lingua franca*, as the common medium of communication par excellence, especially due to two essential factors. Firstly, it is the most taught language today at a global level and secondly, because it is the most widely learnt language, the amount of non-native English speakers has by far exceeded the number of native speakers (idem, 2020, p. 31).

English is no longer seen as just a FL; rather, it is considered a “basic and commonplace competence” (CCN, 2010, p. 5). As Halbach (2009) insists, students must be aware of this changing presence of English in our society and, likewise, educators need to foment a “real need to use the language from the very beginning” which can help “exert a beneficial influence on students’ attitude towards it” (p. 20), thus transforming the LL process, as students’ positive attitudes towards the language itself has the potential to make FL acquisition more successful. Nikula et al. (2013) touch upon this characteristic of CLIL: “the highly prestigious global *lingua franca* English⁹” is the language used in many CLIL classrooms; a feature which “should not be overlooked” (p. 71).

The learning of another language, English or another, is not only used to proliferate academic achievement, but also to increase work opportunities by helping to graduate more global citizens, able to succeed in this globalized world. Knowing a second or third language vastly enhances the possibility of finding and securing a job, yet the mobilization between European citizens amongst countries is hindered by cultural differences and language barriers (Junta D. A., 2017). The more languages one knows, the more advantaged he or she is in the working world (European Commission, 2008) and, for this reason, all citizens of Europe are encouraged, or required, to be given a plethora of L2s to choose from, and all should have exposure to a second FL (L3) (idem, 2017). Anghel et al. (2016) chime in, stating that knowledge of languages is now argued by many to be indispensable for the future of any student, regardless of nationality: the ability of students to succeed in life in this increasingly globalized world with blurred borders depends heavily on their FL competences. Thus, the increased exposure of languages is important for students in Europe: “by enabling more learners to become pluriliterate, CLIL is accessing potential which often remains untapped” (Coyle et al., 2010, p. 160).

⁹ Cf. section 2.3.1, *English as a Lingua Franca* for more details on ELF.

Reflecting these changes, the *Common European Framework of References for Languages* (CEFRL) has been updated, republished to acclimate itself to the 21st century and “all-important shift” in LL, and follows Rampton’s (1996) suggestion to replace the word *native-speaker* (Pérez Cañado, 2021b, p. 36, referencing Council of Europe, 2018). Descriptors in the new CEFRL no longer categorize the highest level of any FL as *native speakers*, but this term has thus been replaced with *speakers of the target language*. This is in line with CLIL’s goal of teaching a more accessible and useful English for students, and, as Pérez Cañado (2021b) notes, this change has completely transformed the way FLs are taught in the classroom, which comprises of “departing from a standard English model as a convenient starting point in the classroom, but having students develop their own variety as L2 speakers” (Pérez Cañado, 2021b, p. 36). Hence, teaching students an unattainable version of English is no longer viable, and students are being encouraged to learn an English that is functional for them and their individual goals through the CLIL methodology.

Proficiency levels are also being challenged in this day and age, as well as how competence can be defined and exemplified. Madrid Fernández et al. (2021) explain the transformation required when it comes to using scales and rubrics to pinpoint a certain level of competence, given the complexity of language. They (2021) propose that there should be a “multidimensional concept of proficiency that includes the learning of language content (knowing about language) and procedures (skills), the development of strategies and attitudes, and the learner’s intercultural competence [...]” (p. 76, referencing Council of Europe, 2001; 2020).

The actual term *competence*¹⁰ is widely used and can be viewed both positively and negatively, depending on the context. Blair (2020) highlights that the word competence is a “difficult, contested notion, with connotations of management theory and technicist views of human ability” (p. 6). The same author notes that this word “carries shadows from the past” including views about “linguistic perfection, complete acquisition, the final state, perhaps the ‘idealized native speaker’ of the ancient theoretical texts”, and suggests other terms that could be used to substitute this concept, including “proficiency, knowledge, skill, capability” (p. 6). The same author points out that this complex view of the term can lead to discrepancies in what LL and teaching objectives are. For their part, Forghani-Arani et al. (2019) define competence as “the ability to meet complex demands, in certain contexts, by drawing on acquired resources” (p.

¹⁰ Competence is defined by Marsh et al. (2010) as: “the demonstrated ability to use knowledge, skills and person, social and/or methodological abilities, in work or study situations and in professional and personal development [...] in the context of the European Qualifications Framework, competence is described in terms of responsibility and autonomy” (p. 11, referencing European Commission, 2008).

13). In this same vein, the Council of Europe (2016) regards competence as “a dynamic process in which a competent individual mobilises and deploys clusters of psychological resources in an active and adaptive manner in order to respond to new circumstances as these arise” (p. 6).

Another highlighted feature for learners today is the importance of a growth mindset, versus a fixed mindset (Gurría, 2019; OECDa, 2019; Tomlinson, 2017;). As Gurría (2019) explains, education is not just about teaching students facts anymore, but instead, is focused on cultivating global citizens who are responsible and ecological, by “helping them to develop a reliable compass to navigate an increasingly complex, ambiguous and volatile world” (p. 3). Having a growth mindset is not something that all education systems are fomenting, but it is critical to do so if learners today are to be able to compete and survive in this world. Unfortunately, per results from PISA (OECDa, 2019), a shocking majority of students in a multitude of countries reported “that intelligence was something about them that they couldn’t change very much”, the complete opposite of a growth mindset (idem, 2019, p. 3).

As the PISA report *Where All Students Can Succeed* (OECDa, 2019) states, having a growth mindset is fundamentally “associated with students’ motivation to master tasks, generate self-efficacy, setting learning goals and perceiving the value of school [...]” (pp. 3-4). A growth mindset is absolutely fundamental to be able to give all students the chance to be successful, reminding them that any person, given the correct circumstances, can thrive, and that the brain is exceptionally malleable.

Diversity is another key characteristic of the 21st century, which has had a major impact on teaching and learning, and continues to be one of the major challenges in our modern society. Authors Fillmore and Snow (2000) note that many of the problems in education stem from diversity and teachers’ lack of knowledge about cultures other than their own:

Students in our schools come from virtually every corner of the planet, and they bring to school diverse outlooks, languages, cultural beliefs and behaviors, and background experiences. Teachers in schools have not always known what to do with the differences they encounter in their classrooms (p. 34).

Quality bilingual education and inclusive LL are cornerstones of education in Europe today. Research has proven and continues to corroborate that the bilingual mind is superior to the monolingual mind. Genesee (2015) touches upon another advantage of bilingualism including “selective attention”, which allows speakers of more than one language to “minimize interference between languages and ensure their appropriate use” (p. 6). To put it frankly, collective research on bilingualism throughout the years now permits us to certify that “people who have more than one language have advantages over monolinguals” (Marsh et. al, 2020, p. 3).

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING: A QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE STUDY. CHAPTER 2 BILINGUAL EDUCATION

Thus, it has become undeniably advantageous to learn languages, and education systems in Europe have undergone myriad reforms to reflect this, taking into account the importance and priority that languages should be given in children's educational career (CCN, 2010). Especially important are the language assessment measures and criteria that students' successes or failures are based on. At present, these are in dire need of updating in order "to better measure what is valued in language competence for the information age, and not just value what is measured" (idem, 2010, p. 4). Marsh et al. (2020) more recently wax on how important pedagogical practices are when it comes to learning a FL: "successful language learning depends on educational practices that combine opportunities to learn language as a subject, and to learn content through language" (p. 3). Put against this is the "background" of official state, regional, minority, and migrant languages highlighted by Eurydice (2023):

learning languages is a necessity for many people; what is more, it is an opportunity for all, leading to new work or opportunities to study. In addition, as part of culture, languages contribute to building personal and collective identities. In fact, each language offers a specific vision of life. Therefore, language diversity is valued and cherished in democratic societies (p. 19).

Correspondingly, Anghel et al. (2016) agree that languages are important for students' futures and will help them to be more successful in the future: "knowledge of a second language is widely believed to be essential for workers to succeed in an increasingly interconnected business world, and researchers tend to agree" (p. 1202). The authors underline that LL is also economically promising, and research is on their side. Pérez Cañado (2018a) reasons that "a CLIL learning experience provides students with growing intercultural competence and the recognition of the importance of the FL for their future academic or professional endeavors" (p. 157). In another publication, the same author (2013) adds that CLIL benefits its learners with "increased employability" and "better equips individuals for the linguistic and cultural demands of an increasingly integrated and mobile Europe" (p. 18). As for Europe, LL "has an essential role to play in making the European project come true. Effective competences in more than one language directly influence European citizens' ability to benefit from education, training, and work opportunities across Europe" (Eurydice, 2023, p. 15). This is directly related to the high number of official languages in the European Union, which stands at 24 as of 2024.

Adding to the conversation, Genesee (2015) lists many positive advantages of bilingualism and multilingualism, which can be four-faceted: "professional, personal, social and cognitive" (p. 6). Furthermore, Marsh et al. (2020) note the advantages a bilingual mind has over a monolingual brain that only has one language from which to work in:

by having more than one language a bilingual may be able to develop metalinguistic skills in ways in which a monolingual cannot. The bilingual has the capacity to develop critical awareness of

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING: A QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE STUDY. CHAPTER 2 BILINGUAL EDUCATION

language and communication through more than one system, whereas the monolingual only has one (p. 10).

Accordingly, education systems need new learning environments that do not “simply involve adaptation methods, materials, and evaluation procedures” but go beyond that, completely renovating themselves, which will “require a substantial shift in education culture and application requiring an educational leap as significant as the generation leap” (CCN, 2010, p. 7). CLIL has been proclaimed as a way to make that jump in education: a way to bridge the gap, to give learners what they need right for LL in the 21st century (Coyle et al., 2010).

Profound research on bilingual education has given us great insight into how intelligence proliferates with knowledge of an additional language. As the CCN (2010) reports, there has been “an exponential increase in research findings showing the ways in which languages have a positive impact on the brain and human performance” (p. 7). Experts and stakeholders are also aware that second (or third) language acquisition goes beyond language proficiency, giving learners added bonuses related with intelligence level (idem, 2010). Pérez-Vidal (2009) highlights the priority that has been given to languages recently among political institutions and European member states, stating that this is a reason why CLIL has been so widely accepted, being the catalyst needed to bring LL to where it needs to be in the 21st century. She notes that Europe’s overarching goal is multilingualism and CLIL is the “instrument” that will help us reach it (p. 5).

Nowadays, languages are not only confined to the language classroom, but are used “across the curriculum” as a way “to promote multilingualism through a transdisciplinary view of language development in the school system and involves both educational and social goals in the approach” (Pérez-Vidal, 2009, p. 9). Pertinent to this are how languages are present in more places, as Coyle et al. (2010) dictate: the countries that we live in today are increasingly “borderless” and, as such, “[...] communication and the ability to use a lingua franca is becoming a prerequisite for individual success” (pp. 8-9).

Coupled with these societal changes, important stakeholders, the parents, have been important advocates for CLIL, given the obvious need for English in their children’s future, which has led them to “seek educational opportunities for their children that would support their multilingual capacities” (Nikula et al., 2013, p. 71). These bilingual programs are especially important in the case of many parents who cannot afford to send their children abroad or pay for extracurricular language classes, as CLIL offers the same advantages these lucrative opportunities would, both linguistically and academically, making them all the more worthwhile, especially if heeding Lorenzo’s (2007) argument: languages that are not learned during a students’ academic career are, more often than not, not learned later in life.

Another important feature of education in the 21st century is the fact that it is no longer defined as exclusive, but, rather, as inclusive (Madrid & Pérez Cañado, 2018), as all students are considered equal in their right to a quality education, albeit vastly different. More than ever, education, and bilingual education, in the 21st century, is a right for all (Halbach, 2009). Classrooms today in Europe are more heterogeneous than ever, as all types of students are being mainstreamed and globalization is continually increasing the diversity of classrooms in terms of mother tongues, ethnicities, races, and religions, to name a few circumstances. The makeup of classrooms today and “the increasingly diverse nature of pupil population with respect to their linguistic and cultural background, calls for a more inclusive approach to bilingual education research” (Van de Craen et al., 2007, p. 188). For their part, Possi and Milinga (2017) label inclusive education as “a process that involves the transformation of schools and other centres of learning to cater for all children: boys and girls, students from various ethnic groups and linguistic minorities, rural populations, those affected by HIV and AIDs, and those who have exceptional learning needs” (p. 28).

In light of myths surrounding bilingual education and inclusion, Genesee (2015) writes diligently to debunk the myths, specifically regarding bilingualism and children with “developmental disorders and academic challenges” (p. 6). He reasons that many speech therapists, healthcare professionals, and educators have been, in the past, prone to urge or advise parents to keep disabled or challenged students away from second or third LL, and certainly away from bilingual environments, since it was generally assumed that bilingual classes were not adequate for these types of students, for fear that LL would “exacerbate learning difficulties”, especially for students with disabilities (physical, psychological, cognitive), as well as for students “with academic challenges that may be due to the child’s sociocultural background (such as low socioeconomic and minority ethnic group status) or poor academic ability” (p. 11).

Although there are still great lacunae in this field¹¹, all studies to date have provided positive findings regarding challenged students and bilingual education. Given the outcomes of these studies, more children than ever are being immersed in bilingual settings, and those who might once have been previously left out of FL classrooms are now being given the same opportunities as their peers, despite disabilities, learning handicaps, or other internal or external disadvantages they may have or face. As Genesee (2015) sums up, “practically speaking, there

¹¹ Cf. Chapter 3 for more detailed research on inclusion and diversity

is no empirical evidence at present to justify restricting children with developmental disorders from learning two languages” (p. 12).

Language learning has evolved to keep up with the times. Expressing oneself adequately with the aim to be able to communicate in various languages is one of the greatest objectives of our modern society, especially in Europe, and is not only for the gifted, high SES, or academically-blessed, but for every student in the 21st century. Proficiency in a variety of languages is the key for mobility and employability and, as such, “LL has undeniably gained additional momentum through its paramount role in this process, both at pre-university and university levels” (Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2010, p. 371). CLIL is also being used to revamp bilingual education in the 21st century, argues Aquino-Sterling (2021), because:

Framing CLIL as a humanising and socially engaged bilingual pedagogy has the potential to advance CLIL beyond the content area and linguistic needs of the critical world citizens the world needs. If bilingual education is to serve a greater purpose in our world societies, it must begin to reenvision and broaden its curriculum and reductionist focus on language (p. 190).

Teachers are also beginning to see the necessity of showing students how English can be used to assimilate cultural diversity by “broadening learners’ understanding of how English is used differently across cultures, and how it can be used as a common language to discuss issues that promote tolerance, respect and acceptance” (Cavalheiro, 2020, p. 44). The increase in migrants, immigrants, refugees, and people looking for better opportunities in addition to tourism and success of multinationals in this decade has created a melting pot of non-native English speakers, who find themselves together in higher education, jobs, schools, online, and copious other situations, forced to speak English between themselves without even having to leave their own country (idem, 2020). This phenomenon has led people to “rethink what English is being taught”, leaving perfection and form to the side in lieu of an increased *attention to function* as a way to facilitate “successful intercultural communication” (idem, 2020, p. 43). This attention to function and teaching English that caters to a variety of fields and cultures has led to the now recognizable ELF, *English as a Lingua Franca*, or ELF, which will now be discussed more in depth.

2.3.1. English as a Lingua Franca

The importance of English around the world, and the use of this language by a majority of non-native speakers, has led to the emergence of ELF (English as a Lingua Franca), which seeks to teach a standardized version of English for its users, moving away from the American or British versions of English that are usually taught in schools, teaching instead a variety of English that is easier, more fluid, and flexible for the millions of non-native English speakers who interact in this language on a daily basis in various different domains. Due to this prevalence, and the

adoption of the English language by millions of people into their daily lives who are neither British English or American, Baker (2018) argues that the English language should no longer be tied to a specific culture. For his part, Siqueira (2015) says that ELF is a “more realistic approach” to FLL (p. 242). Albeit provocative, many authors, including Cavalheiro (2020), defend ELF for the 21st century, aligning with Baker’s (2018) view of a non-cultured English, noting that this version of English can be used to facilitate intercultural encounters and dialogue and it:

should go beyond the traditional American/British paradigm, so as to broaden learners’ (inter)cultural awareness of how English is used by multiple speakers (native and non-native) in diverse settings, preparing them for real-world interactions once outside school (e.g. academia, business, travel, sports, internet/technology) (p. 32).

Pérez Cañado (2021b) goes into depth regarding the similarities of ELF and CLIL, both of which have “emerged as timely solutions in harmony with the current needs of ELT”, which places English at the front and center of a globalized, interconnected world (p. 32). She notes that non-native speakers are embracing ELF “in response to the increase use and ownership of English”, and in these two novel pedagogies “perfect communication through a native-like proficiency gives way to competent and intelligible language use” (p. 32, referencing Ur, 2011). The same author notes that at first glance, ELF and CLIL would seem to be “enemies” because “whereas CLIL seeks to upgrade language proficiency, ELF might be held to be conducive to downgrading it, in its move away from the native speaker model” (p. 32). However, the exact opposite is found to be true, she argues, for several reasons, including their nature, the type of language taught, the target language, teacher training, the learner, the role of intercultural awareness, the materials, the methodology, the research carried out, and pedagogical implications. Likewise, Vettorel and Corrizatto (2016) argue that both CLIL and ELF help prepare students for “authentic international/intercultural communication” (p. 503) and both approaches use “meaningful exposure” and prioritize fluency in lieu of accuracy (Pérez Cañado, 2021b, p. 33). Davies and Patsko (2013) argue that ELF aims to create students who are able to communicate in English to the highest possible degree, prioritizing intelligibility, and understandability rather than perfection or native-like competence. As Cavalheiro (2020) alludes, the intercultural implications of ELF are impossible to deny: “ELF exchanges therefore reflect participants’ multilingual and multicultural backgrounds, as they recognize not only their linguistic and cultural differences, but also the importance of interaction and negotiation for successful intercultural communication” (p. 32).

Another benefit allows the communication between non-native speakers of English to communicate more fluidly. Mauranen (2018) defines ELF as the spoken English “in situations with widely varying combinations of participants, including first language speakers of different varieties” (p. 8). The same author concludes that English is spoken all over the world, online, and

by a plethora of people: politicians, international students, tourist, migrant workers, asylum seekers, and users of digital media. For his part, Baker (2015) describes ELF as “intercultural in nature since EFL communication is typically defined as involving speakers from different linguacultures” (p. 43). Cavalheiro (2020) comments upon the non-native use of English between these speakers which include techniques such as: “accommodation, code-switching, explicitness, pre-empting misunderstanding or repetition” (p. 32). The author highlights that these strategies are usually associated with low competence levels but argues they are actually “examples of pragmatic competence when employed by intercultural speakers who adapt their speech according to the communicative situation in question and its participants” (idem, 2020, p. 32).

Touching upon the finality of English as a second language for many learners, Llurda (2018) acknowledges that the finality of learning English has changed; instead of teaching students with the objective of achieving competence levels needed for communication with groups of native speakers from a certain country, it now concerns itself with learning language techniques for “different communicative situations among very diverse and far distant communities from anywhere in the world”, irrefutably fundamental for interculturality (p. 519). As Cavalheiro (2020) underlines, most non-native English learners are interacting with other non-native English speakers and, usually, English is the “common denominator” in which many students from different countries can speak when their mother tongues are distinct. Llurda (2018) argues that importance in English LL should be given to communicative purposes, which means “raising their awareness” about the varieties of English (not just standard American and British), as well as focusing on a “more limited range of linguistic elements” in order to maximize understandability when it comes to communicative encounters with other non-native speakers (p. 527). The results of a survey used by Grazzi and Lopriore (2020) found that “standard English is still considered the uncontested reference model in ELT”, revealing the “monolingual paradigm of EFL” (p. 84). Siqueira (2020) touches upon this and the importance of English LLs being able to see themselves “represented in the material” used to teach English and showing students that “English is not the language of only hegemonic inner-circle countries like the US and Britain” (p. 139). Taking a more defiant stand, Graddol (2006) argues that English is no longer just a FL but is, instead, a core skill like that of coding or computer skills required by students in the 21st century. What is more, the English learned in CLIL is not seen as an expertise rather as a tool (Hüttner & Smit, 2014):

The reality of using English professionally is one of necessity in our globalized world, and has little to do with the traditional conceptualizing of learning language to engage with the target language culture and a lot with using English as a Lingua Franca for primarily professional and academic purposes (p. 166).

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING: A QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE STUDY. CHAPTER 2 BILINGUAL EDUCATION

As for the materials that are being used to teach English, Siqueira (2020) reasons they are full of stereotypical references and tend to only show "romantic" circumstances that many learners around the world do not actually have any contact with (p. 139). The same author declares that "it is ELF, not English per se, that really connects people from all walks of life in the most diverse intercultural encounters nowadays" (pp. 139-140).

ELF is important because it is also taking into consideration that different cultures have different speech patterns, that might be different from native English, or the ones that are "valued at school" (Fillmore & Snow, 2000, p. 6). However, these speech patterns are needed for them in their mother tongue and they should be able to learn English without putting their first language patterns in jeopardy (idem, 2000). Likewise, it is important for students wishing to become competent in English to be knowledgeable about the different varieties of English, not just standard British or American English. Cavaleiro (2020) emphasizes the importance of exposing students to all culturally diverse speakers of English including Indian, Asian, Pan-African, European, Latin American, and the like, since most textbooks and courses tend to use depictions of American or British English speakers in many of their editions and this does not align with the reality that these students will encounter in their future. The study carried out by this same author regarding varieties of English, albeit done with younger learners, concludes that "raising learners' awareness of cultural and linguistic diversity is crucial for their understanding of not only how English may sound differently depending on the speaker, but also how it may be used to promote discussion, awareness and acceptance of different people and culture" (p. 42). For his part, Siqueira (2020) notes that ELF materials:

can potentially foster and mirror more realistic practices based on ELF features like intelligibility, pluricentricity, variation, locality, hybridity, accommodation, difference, just to name a few. They can deconstruct monolithic and ethnocentric orientations, they can bring to class meaningful communicative situations other than those romantic, trivial ones we are so much used to seeing [...] (p. 139, referencing Guerra & Cavaleiro, 2020).

These materials, the author argues, have the possibility to be great instigators of change in language education, and "hold a great potential to lead people into teaching and learning English with an attitude" (idem, 2020, p. 139).

ELF puts attention on effective communication, and is "practical in teaching only those features that are crucial for international intelligibility", meaning that "those grammatical, lexical, or phonological aspects which are not conducive to misunderstandings are not accorded attention in class" which is a major advantage, given the fact that time in FLL is in high demand and scarce supply (Pérez Cañado, 2021b, p. 33). CLIL, like ELF, helps students develop what she (idem, 2021b) labels "soft skills", otherwise known as essential abilities including "cooperative work,

conflict resolution, initiative and leadership, creativity, resilience, proactiveness, decision-making, critical thinking, and ultimately, lifelong learning” (p. 33).

Similar to CLIL, ELF has also faced certain criticism. It has been peddled by Graddol (2006) as “probably the most radical and controversial approach to emerge in recent years” (p. 87). Sifakis (2020) argues that there are two main issues facing ELF: first and foremost being the unenthusiastic views that some teachers have regarding the teaching of a different version of English, generally due to notions and opinions about proper English. And secondly, the nonexistence of a framework, guidelines, or methodology when it comes to teaching this revolutionary approach of English as a *lingua franca*.

As it stands, English as a Lingua Franca is controversial and quite a paradigm shift. It requires putting aside rigid, “institutionalized grammar rules” and moving instead to the “encouragement of negotiation from diverse grammars and linguacultural collections that emerge from each and every communicative encounter in English” (Jordão & Marques, 2018, p. 58). In this way, argue the defenders of this approach, functional use of English will be promoted and students, especially low-SES students, will be more interested in the learning of this language knowing that it is tailored to them and their future, with an actual, possible purpose, and not for use in a distant country that they might never have the opportunity to travel to. English itself, in its native, and highly proficient form, really only looks to benefit a very small number of learners which is why, argues Sung (2013), this standard of English is no longer viable nor interesting for students and, hence, why ELF and CLIL have come to the scene for LL, and here to stay.

Tied to the growing importance of English and proposal of ELF has been the emergence of the term CEIL, a play on the acronym CLIL, but which replaces language with English (Content and English Integrated Learning). This, as Llinares and Cross (2022) underline, is a direct response to the globalization and internationalization that has taken place in modern society, and has led to the replacing of other languages with English as the medium of instruction:

In fact, the prominent role of English in CLIL is one feature shared by CLIL programmes which differ in many other aspects. This position of English as a 'new' language for both mainstream children and migrant children in CLIL programs has been considered an opportunity to foster equity in education (p. 171).

The same authors (2022) point out that even though CLIL was created to promote European language competence in its citizens, the reality is that English is the most common language featured in the CLIL programs in most non-English speaking European countries. And, as the authors signal, this is happening world-wide, drawing attention to Asian countries that “clearly position English as the language of CLIL” (idem, 2022, p. 173). As the recent study on

FLL in Europe by Eurydice (2023) has revealed, in 2020, minority FLs other than English, French, German, and Spanish were hardly studied in Europe, and the former being by far the featured language in the majority of programs. In those countries surveyed, more than 90% of students in Europe learn English “in at least one education level” (Eurydice, 2023, p. 21), leading the publication to concisely state: “English, as a foreign language, is one of a kind” (idem, 2023, p. 21).

Equally important, and linked to the spread of ELF, is the promotion of intercultural competence, the creation of true global citizens who are able to communicate, work, and interact across borders with people outside of their home communities. In this way, CLIL can be used to promote the knowledge of other cultures, understanding and uniting citizens of the world in a bid to have a more harmonious and peaceful society.

2.3.2. Intercultural competence

Language is inherently tied to culture. This is because “at the same time that students are incorporating new languages they are experimenting a reconstruction of their own identity” (OECD, 2010, p. 28). Languages, whether they be an L1, L2, L3 or beyond, are closely knit to students’ “sense of belonging at school” (Forghani-Arani et al., 2019, p. 12).

Various authors insist in the absolute necessity of teaching intercultural competence (IC), both for the students and the teachers (e.g. Banegas, 2022; Coyle, 2007; Cross, 2022; Dietz, 2007; Forghani-Arani et al., 2019; Marsh, 2013; Mitchell, 2018). As Forghani-Arani et al. (2019) explain, the basis of diversity instruction is “manifold” given that *multicultural education* is how Anglo-American literature refers to it, while the term *intercultural education* is more widely used in Europe. The same authors insist that there is an international need for IC and everyone can benefit from this. IC is something that is vital for the globalized world of today, and not only for “classrooms with high concentrations of immigrant and/or minority students. Mainstream and minority groups both need an inclusive education that builds on diversity and incorporates multiple perspectives” (idem, 2019, p. 7).

In the past, cultural diversity was catered to through mainly *assimilation* policies, highlights Mitchell (2018), or else a melting pot, where cultural identities were “suppressed in favor of the majority culture”, which then gave way to the *multicultural* approach, or else the fostering of “communal segregation and mutual incomprehension” and what has led to the “desired” approach: *interculturalism*, defined by UNESCO (2008) as “the existence and equitable interaction of diverse cultures and the possibility of generating shared cultural expressions through dialogue and mutual respect” (p. 20).

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING: A QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE STUDY. CHAPTER 2 BILINGUAL EDUCATION

Trends in immigration and migration are on the uptick. Forghani-Arani et al. (2019) suggest that to better contemplate how diversity is multiplying, *birthplace diversity* should be considered. The authors give the examples of two countries: Spain and Ireland. In both, the chance that offspring of these nationalities would be born in foreign countries increased by 20% from 1990 to 2010. Furthermore, in 2015, almost a quarter of high school students aged 15 were foreign-born or had a foreign-born parent, and this statistic is not taking into account refugees (OECD, 2018). In some countries in Europe, highlighting Switzerland and Luxembourg (idem, 2018), these statistics are even sharper, with more than half of all 15-year-old students categorized as foreign or having a foreign parent. Due to the surge in immigrant students, or children of foreign-born parents, there is a heightened awareness of the necessity for IC in classrooms today, as a way to help these students feel integrated, assimilated and collectively part of school and society. Unfortunately, immigrant students generally perform worse in academic subjects and detail “a weaker sense of belonging at school, less satisfaction with life, and greater school-work related anxiety” than their native peers (OECD, 2018, p. 2).

These high statistics of immigrant students, present in all classes around the world, and in high proportions in Europe, only shed light on the need for IC. For a nation to be able to achieve social cohesion amongst native and foreign citizens, immigrants and foreigners must be able to assimilate into society, which can be done most effectively through education.

As Cross (2022) underlines, intercultural awareness is not just teaching students about the existence of cultures different than their own, nor is it about teaching tolerance or acceptance. The author (2022) argues that IC has taken on a new dimension that instead “affords a new form of competence which enables learners to make informed agentic language choices with transformative potential on how they interpret and respond to prevailing social structures” (p. 184). Thus, in teaching this to students, learners must see culture as being inseparable from language, and culture being a product of the language used (Cross, 2022). For intercultural learning, the author argues, teachers must not give priority to the culture of the learner, nor the culture of the FL; rather, the overarching goal would be to end up at a distinct destination: a new understanding of culture from the intersection of culture 1 (learner culture) and culture 2 (foreign culture) (idem, 2022):

From an intercultural perspective, the aim of learning is to develop a greater awareness of these normative expectations, resulting in more personally self-aware, agentic choices for how one makes sense of their world, and to be understood within it. Similarly, within CLIL, language, integrated with content, is functional: the purposeful use of language as learners decide how language is used to achieve an outcome, driven by content (p. 186).

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING: A QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE STUDY. CHAPTER 2 BILINGUAL EDUCATION

Inside of Spain, specifically in Andalusia, there is an increasingly multicultural environment, and the presence of pluriculturalism in Andalusian classrooms is on the rise and something that must be given close attention to. In 2014, there were around 700,000 foreigners residing and paying taxes in this community, many of whom are enrolled in local schools (Lorenzo et al., 2021). Unfortunately, a recent study, *Closing the Gap for Immigrant Students: Policies, Practices, and Performance* (OECD, 2010), shows that foreign students have increased chances of failing than native Spanish students. The study highlights the fact that these students, although not native to Spain, are living in this country and deserve the same quality education guaranteed to their Spanish peers, regardless of their nationality or mother tongue, and it is thus the responsibility of the Andalusian education system to ensure that foreigners living in the community do not fail because they are not being catered to properly.

Attention to diversity, that is, giving students with foreign profiles the resources and help they need to advance through grades, is linked to the social inclusion that comes by means of a solid education. This can be done by adapting the curriculum for any immigrant student, creating a linguistic adaptation classroom, creating family attention, and accompaniment plans. All of this should be done to guarantee the complete assimilation of foreign students in the Andalusian education system and to promote cultural coexistence in the school environment (OECD, 2010). To complete this objective, several measures have been proposed inside the Spanish community, including: the creation of online intercultural educational resources, the extension of the Spanish as a FL program, the designing and publishing of a new curriculum for L2 for foreign students based on the *Cervantes Institute Curricular Plan*, the establishment of programs for foreign families and students that favor integration and social cohesion, the training of teachers in IC and migration via special programs, the creation of credentials that can be obtained by foreigners and immigrants to allow them to join the workforce, the use of CLIL, the modification of laws (such as those that deal with second generation immigrants), and, finally, the encouragement of lenience with immigrant students during their first year (idem, 2010).

Classroom diversity, such as highlighted above, has revealed how necessary it is to develop culturally inclusive curriculums based around methodologies that are flexible, such as CLIL. Unfortunately, the reality is that research collected shows that catering to diversity is hard for both experienced and rookie teachers similarly (Forghani-Arani et al., 2019). Teacher training schemes are vital for any inclusive, intercultural, sustainable education system. In this same vein, quality teachers are "often recognized as one of the most -if not the most- significant factor in the quality of schooling" (idem, 2019, p. 13). Unfortunately, initiatives and support for teachers when it comes to diversity and interculturality is lacking in many countries in Europe. Forghani-Arani et al. (2019) stress the fact that there are "tensions" between what teachers want: to attend

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING: A QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE STUDY. CHAPTER 2 BILINGUAL EDUCATION

to all of their diverse students as best as possible, “especially those students prone to marginalization”, so as to give them the power to be successful in their educational endeavors (p. 22). However, the reality is that many teacher training programs or education degrees do not actively give teachers IC, and thus, “many teachers are simply ill prepared to teach students from diverse cultural and linguistic backgrounds” (idem, 2019, p. 22). Another complicated aspect of diversity is how it can be directly addressed while simultaneously fomenting social cohesion within students of diverse backgrounds (idem, 2019) and “embracing the superdiversity” is, more often than not, challenging (p. 36). Overall:

effective teacher education programs understand diversity not as a deficit but as an asset, a source of opportunities. This represents a step forward from recognizing and ‘dealing with’ the multiplicity of students’ characteristics and backgrounds, to understanding the benefits of diversity to learning processes (idem, 2019, p. 23).

The *OECD Learning Framework 2030* (OECDa, 2019) gives anticipation and reflection as methodology tactics that teachers should employ so they can teach responsibly in today’s classrooms. However, it is true that there is no single “blueprint” for guiding diversity expertise in teachers (Forghani-Arani et al., 2019, p. 21). Where diversity training courses do exist in Europe (only 19% of the programs are mandatory), they “cover a range of topics such as cross-cultural knowledge, cultural awareness and sensitivity, intercultural and professional communication skills, culturally responsive pedagogical approaches, and psychosocial interventions” (idem, 2019, p. 22).

Highlighting some cultural programs that exist internationally, Forghani-Arani et al. (2019) note several institutions that are attempting to take on IC in teacher training schemes: the School of Education at Indiana University has cultural immersion programs on American Indian Reserves; The University of Montreal in Canada has a program that specifically helps teachers commit to welcoming students’ linguistic and cultural diversities as assets for the classroom; the RMIT School of Education in Melbourne teaches IC through technology; and in New Zealand, the Induction and Mentoring Program fuels a mentor/mentee program specifically for teachers who have Maori students in their classes. Finally, the authors list Master’s degrees that deal with IC: *Master of Intercultural Education* at the Marino Institute of Education (Ireland); *Master of Educational Treatment of Diversity* at the University of Latvia, Charles University (Prague), Ludwigsburg University of Education (Germany), and the National University of Distance Education (Spain); and *Master of Multicultural and International Education* at the Oslo and Akershus University College for Applied Sciences (Norway).

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING: A QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE STUDY. CHAPTER 2 BILINGUAL EDUCATION

The consideration about how language can and should be used to promote IC has also been taken up in literature. Fillmore and Snow argue that there are five fundamental roles for any educator: firstly, the ability to communicate with students; secondly, to teach them; thirdly, to assess them fairly and individually; fourthly, to be knowledgeable about the language and subject they are teaching; and, fifthly, to be able to aid students in the process of socialization, especially marginalized, discriminated, minority, immigrant or challenged students. In this way, the roles that educators must take on, propose the authors (2000), are the following: "communicator, educator, evaluator, educated human being, and agent of socialization" (p. 4). Teachers should, the authors say (2000), be aware of how "traumatic" the process of socialization and integration can be for marginalized, foreign or discriminated students and make a conscious effort to integrate them: "Teachers who respect their students' home languages and cultures, and who understand the crucial role they play in the lives of the children and their families, can help children make the necessary transitions [...]" (p. 12).

As for teachers, it is imperative that they are trained when it comes to knowledge about interculturality, and it has been argued that IC, or diversity competence be "a core teacher competence" (Forghani-Arani et al., 2019, p. 13). Through the lens of a teacher, IC means appreciating and celebrating diversity and interculturality in their students whilst backed with a knowledge about issues related to diversity and training that allow them to be inclusive in their teaching to promote a more collaborative, cohesive classroom unit (idem, 2019). This means giving teachers an adequate background of issues surrounding equity and social justice through "historical, structural, and political contexts" which have been conducive of prejudice, stereotyping and discriminating policies in education (Forghani-Arani et al., 2019, p. 14). Educators must be able to deal with students' diverseness in its cultural, linguistic, and social form and enrich their teaching with it.

As previously mentioned, reflective teaching and learning must also stem from the educators, who need to be constantly questioning preconceived notions they may have about culture, which can be a result of their own life experiences, and be ready and willing to challenge their own attitudes and opinions. Implicit bias (Forghani-Arani et al., 2019; Yale University, 2017) must be taken into account; teachers should know if they are susceptible to any of these and work to correct them. Furthermore, they need to take into account that both explicit and implicit attitudes exist: the former are easy to become aware of but the latter consist of "associative knowledge for which we often lack awareness" (Forghani-Arani et al., 2019, p. 17). Similarly, being empathetic can help integrate, rather than isolate, marginalized students.

Finally, it is through flexible methodologies, like CLIL, that teachers will be able to reach more students, as policies that allow teaching to be more personalized, less standardized, and

less prescription-based “recipes” are more desired so that it is easier for teachers to be “creative, flexible, and innovative” (Forghani-Arani et al., 2019, p. 14).

2.3.3. Language policy in the European Union

At the heart of Europe lie culturally- and linguistically-rich citizens, all of whom live in very diverse member states. CLIL implementation is derived from the European language policy: every citizen should be multilingual and possess competence levels in at least two languages in addition to their mother tongue. Marsh (2002) waxes on how crucial it is that language barriers in Europe are as unhampering as possible, given “the importance of linguistic diversity in education and training in making Europe the most competitive and knowledge-based economy in the world” (p. 9). By factoring in the intercultural competence that European policies wished to promote alongside outdated methodologies for FLT, it is understood how CLIL came to the scene, owing its success to this perfect storm: it is here to solve a problem at regional, national and European levels (Lorenzo, 2007), as it is a method that allows for adaptation depending on the needs of the region where it is to be implemented both locally and regionally in conjunction with the principles that are demanded nationally and transnationally (Coyle et al., 2010). As Eurydice (2023) more recently heralds, “teaching and learning in language-heterogeneous contexts can provide an opportunity for students to become aware of other languages and cultures, and can therefore enrich the school experience” (p. 36).

It is not hard to see why, apart from specific border regions and countries with dual official languages, the European dream of multilingualism was just that for the many monolingual states and regions: an unrealistic fantasy before CLIL came along with a physical, detailed agenda to go about fomenting plurilingualism in European citizens. Lorenzo (2007) clarifies:

The European supranational state in the making since the mid twentieth century has been built upon ideals like mobility, economic cohesion, maintenance of cultural diversity and other principles that would be hard to make real without efficient language learning schemes (p. 27).

In a time of increased necessity for language proficiency, coupled with a weak LL system, CLIL is an innovative means that is being used to achieve the language goals set forth by European countries and supported by all stakeholders involved. These policy goals, state Dalton-Puffer (2011), “aim at creating multilingual citizens, which is not surprising given the extent of linguistic diversity of the European Union” (pp. 184-185). Wolff (2002) explains how language policy in the EU favored CLIL: “[...] the education systems in Europe had to look for new and better ways to secure and to improve the quality of foreign language teaching and learning” (p. 47). CLIL was and is that approach.

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING: A QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE STUDY. CHAPTER 2 BILINGUAL EDUCATION

By allowing schools to have a wider selection of FLs to choose from, CLIL has the opportunity to boost plurilingualism, hence why it is pivotal in Europe's conquest of language proficiency improvement, as well as a powerful force charged with being capable of driving its plurilingual agenda forward by increasing communicative competences amongst citizens (Wolff, 2002). Along similar lines, authors attest that CLIL can also reinforce European language pillars including the European identity, as Lorenzo (2007) reminds us: "a European identity should surpass ethnical and national identities [and] the idea of a mutual search for understanding and a willingness to communicate should preside over all European relations" (p. 30). However, this is a cautionary tale if English monopolizes the CLIL market when it comes to language of instruction (e.g. Banegas, 2022; Cross, 2022; Llinares & Cross, 2022).

Madrid and Hughes (2011) point out how "in order to meet new demands for plurilingual competence [...] almost every country in the world has adopted a multitude of initiatives" (p. 11). The European initiative comes in the form of CLIL, which many judge positively to have the right amount of innovation, stamina, and functionality to bring about real change in today's society, a way to bring European citizens up to higher standard regarding LL (Coyle, 2002; Coyle et al., 2010; Lorenzo, 2007; Madrid & Hughes, 2011; Marsh, 2006; Pérez Cañado, 2013; Pérez Cañado & Ráez Padilla, 2015; Wolff, 2006). Fomenting LL helps European citizens become more tolerant, as emphasized by Eurydice (2023), it helps to: "strengthen the European dimension in education and training: it develops learners' interest in, understanding of and appreciation of other cultures and, ultimately, fosters a European identity that is inclusive and open to other cultures" (p. 15).

Broadly speaking, the learning of another language does not only serve as a way to increase educational opportunities, but also serves to increase future work prospects, as the more languages a person can manipulate, the greater possibility of finding employment one has. The Eurofound study *Labour Mobility in the EU: Recent trends and policies* found that the limited movement between citizens of the EU in different countries is hindered by cultural differences and language barriers (Junta D. A., 2017). The European Commission (2008) explains that the more languages one knows, the more advantaged they are in the working world. For this reason, many governments suggest that all citizens in Europe have a range of languages to choose from as their first FL and all should be exposed to a second FL at the very least.

As for the prominence of CLIL in Europe, Pérez-Vidal (2009) indicates three principal reasons: "the political policies which promote globalization and mobility; new pedagogical understanding into learner differences and autonomous learning; and advances in technology" (p. 6). The previously cited author also explains how mobility has especially been important in the adoption of CLIL within European borders and the concept of the European Citizen, the Europe

of Knowledge, and Europe of Languages and the “preservation of cultural and linguistic diversity” (p. 8).

Many political institutions and member state governments are concerned with maintaining a culturally and linguistically rich Europe, which, as clearly stated by Pérez-Vidal (2009), “will only be possible if a Europe of languages is built, preserved and developed” (p. 7). Therefore, as the author continues, education policies “must enhance open-mindedness and cultural communication” (p. 8). She insists on the intensification of European citizenship, which can be attained through the sharing of values and a sense of belonging to a cultural area that extends beyond the borders of one’s nation and culture to one of a European area.

Languages are the vital key to preserving and enriching European culture and all investment in language teaching, “involves a high rate of return” (Lorenzo, 2007, p. 30). Changes in education are extremely complicated, put forth Dalton-Puffer et al. (2014):

Educational change is technically simple but politically and socially complex [...] this humanistic philosophy [*theory of communicative action*] has been the seedbed of European language policy with its well-known key notions of intercultural competence, multiple identities, and multilingual citizens (p. 214).

Byram’s (1997) intercultural communicative competence has been cited as helping students to become more aware of their own culture, as well as how they have been shaped by it, to allow them to become intercultural citizens of the 21st century: “by adopting a critical approach to culture and communication, it is necessary to have an open disposition to discover and acknowledge the differences that occur in communication, and to mediate between different communicative practices and cultural groups” (Cavalheiro, 2020, pp. 33-34). This type of knowledge is incredibly important for students today if we hope for them to become competent speakers of English, or of any other foreign language they are learning (idem, 2020).

With reference to the legislation regarding CLIL implementation in Europe, the 1992 *Maastricht Treaty* “marks the first formal EU reference to education, training, and languages” (Marsh, 2013, p. 47) and indicates the importance of three specific matters (Junta D. A., 2017, p. 12):

1. The continual development of CLIL methodology
2. Application of the linguistic competence in all curricular areas
3. The learning of languages through cultural contents in extracurricular settings.

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING: A QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE STUDY. CHAPTER 2 BILINGUAL EDUCATION

Before CLIL appeared, language policy in Europe can be traced back to 1958, when the European Union established French, German, Italian, and Dutch as the official languages. Yet this was of course only a declaration of the languages and lacked a legitimate promotion or inclusion of them in education. With the turn of the century, along with the *White Paper*, the Council of Europe implemented two documents in 2001, with the intention of furthering and bettering language education in Europe: *The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment*, and *The European Language Portfolio*. Pérez-Vidal (2009) argues that it was “under the auspices of the Council of Europe, and thanks to the work of Commission-funded projects, the CLIL concept began to emerge and take shape through a number of experiments held in different European countries” (p. 5).

In that same vein, The *Luxembourg Presidency Position on Plurilingual Education* demanded “a greater public recognition of the benefits of CLIL and the possibilities it has to increase prosperity, social and individual cohesion is needed” (Junta D. A, 2017, p. 12). The European Commission’s (2011) *Language Learning at Pre-primary Level: A Policy Handbook* explicitly recommends CLIL methodology be present in all lower levels of education and *Multilingualism: An Asset for Europe and a Shared Commitment* advises CLIL methodology be used for vocation training and adult learning, both in specialized training and for the training of CLIL teachers.

Most recently, in 2019 the Council of Europe updated the 2002 objective of the *mother tongue + 2 initiative*, moving the LL agenda forward by hoping to influence the “mindset of policymakers and education practitioners, inspiring them to adopt comprehensive language education policies, and innovative and inclusive language teaching methods and strategies” (Eurydice, 2023, p. 16). The new recommendation seeks to improve students’ language repertoire: language spoken at school, FLs, and mother tongues distinct from the L1 of the country where they are studying. This new objective puts the linguistic diversity of European citizens at the core of its policy and, thus, intends to make European society more inclusive and tolerant, as well as fomenting the learning of all languages, not just one’s L1 and English.

As Llinares and Cross (2022) bring to our attention, the monopoly English has over CLIL is something that must be regulated, especially concerning LL in Europe. Despite being born from a need to bolster citizens’ linguistic capacities the fact remains that English has begun to dominate the programs, which does not effusively support the *mother tongue + 2 initiative*. The reason behind the “prestigious status of English” (San Isidro & Pérez Cañado, 2023, p. 274) can be pinpointed on “globalization and internationalization” (Llinares & Cross, 2022, p. 171). This means FLT, while important to ensure education is equitable, must also find a balance between teaching

students the lingua franca for the times, while also enabling them to be European citizens with true multilingual capabilities.

Albeit suffering from stagnation and dubious sceptics from the start, CLIL has over two decades of legislation promoting its use and is, at the present moment, completely entrenched in European LL policies and education systems. Following, the particular language policies in Spain will be examined in further detail as pertinent to this Thesis.

2.3.4. Current legislation in Spain

Inside Spain, FLL has been a top concern in legislation since 1970. The current laws in Spain regarding LL follow the European Commission (2016), LOMLOE (2021) and Royal Decree of 126/2014 (Madrid & Pérez Cañado, 2018). Regarding foreign, and not minority or regional languages, De Valenzuela et al. (2016) characterize the learners in Spain as “sequential bilinguals”, given the fact that the majority of the students in this country begin to learn the L2 only when they enter school and do not have contact with it outside of these institutions (p. 38). Only a minority are “simultaneous bilinguals” who are learning foreign languages at home from a young age, mostly occurring in Spain’s bi- or plurilingual regions (idem, 2016, p. 39).

The new education law in Spain, the denominated Organic Law Modifying the Organic Law of Education (henceforth, LOMLOE, acronym in Spanish) was passed at the end of 2020 and brings about new changes in education, especially concerning diversity and inclusion. This law came into effect in January 2021 and modifies the LOE education law that was passed in 2006. The law, as explained on the Spanish Ministry of Education website¹², is considered suitable for the 21st century: “quality and excellence of an education system must be closely tied to equity, personalization attention in education and the autonomy of education centers when it comes to accountability” (Ministry website, author’s translation). The new law plans to increase the public spending budget of education by at least five percent of Spain’s GDP. The LOMLOE promotes a normalized inclusive education in all schools, as well as in special needs centers, and gives a margin of 10 years (that is, until 2031), for standard schools to gain access to the necessary resources and materials needed to better attend to students with disabilities, both physical and mental. This decade-long margin shows just how much attention schools should be dedicating to their bettering of attention to diversity capabilities, including measures and tools that right now

¹² <https://www.educacionyfp.gob.es>

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING: A QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE STUDY. CHAPTER 2 BILINGUAL EDUCATION

are only present in special education schools, as well as the requirement of fully capable, licensed teachers for this task. There are 19 new principles under this reform:

1. Ensuring children's rights are safeguarded.
2. Quality educational practices that do not discriminate.
3. Safeguarding equal opportunities for all students.
4. Transparency and transmission of values.
5. Fomenting lifelong learning.
6. Flexibility in learner and societal changes.
7. Educational and professional orientation and counselling for students.
8. Individual and shared effort and motivation.
9. Recognition of the fundamental role parents, guardians, and legal tutors play.
10. Autonomy in the competences framework.
11. Participation in the educational community.
12. Education geared towards the prevention of conflicts and peaceful resolution.
13. Promotion of effective equality as well as prevention of gender-based violence.
14. Teachers as essential roles in quality education.
15. Research, experimentation, and innovation in education.
16. Evaluation of the entirety of the education system.
17. Cooperation between administrations.
18. Right of parents and legal tutors to choose the type of education and center of their children.
19. Education based on ecological transition.

The new approach to education inside the LOMLOE recognizes several important pillars, first and foremost being the superior interest of minors and child's rights, as well as the importance of education for sustainable development, conceding a central role to the development of digital competences, fomenting the continual improvement of the educative centers and personalized learning, and driving gender equality. Via this new law, there are now 12 objectives of the Spanish education system:

1. The complete development of personality and abilities in all students.

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING:
A QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE STUDY. CHAPTER 2 BILINGUAL EDUCATION

2. Education based on the respect of fundamental rights and freedoms.
3. Education based on tolerance and freedom within the democratic principles of coexistence.
4. An emphasis on individual responsibility, merit, and personal effort.
5. The acquisition of values towards living beings, the rights of animals, and the environment.
6. The development of students' capacity to regulate their own learning.
7. Education in respect and recognition of cultural and linguistic plurality in Spain.
8. The acquisition of work habits and knowledge in all areas.
9. The preparation of students for the exercising of professional activities based on social caring and collaboration.
10. Giving students the capacity to use official, co-official, and foreign languages.
11. An education that enables students to be actively participant in economic, social, and cultural life.
12. The creation of capable students in the complete integration of the digital society.

The LOMLOE is evidence that the previously implemented measures for catering to diversity were not sufficient and this law is fruition of remedial actions coming together to correct issues with inclusive education on a national level. The Spanish Ministry of Education decided to go beyond the modification of special education centers, giving focus instead to a total revamping of inclusion and diversity measures in Spanish schools by updating teacher training facets and teaching practices, to be able to implement quality education standards on a national level. These changes seek to guarantee that all learners can will receive a quality education despite their ability, race, religion, culture, aptitude, background, or any other factor that would make them susceptible to discriminatory education practices.

To achieve an education system that can adapt to the needs laid out by the LOMLOE, the promotion of the conditions that guarantee inclusive education is an aspect that must be fundamentally considered as a guarantor of the human rights of all children. Every person, according to this new educational law, should be able to receive quality public education, regardless of their socioeconomic or cultural diversity. For this purpose, the three main objectives of the LOMLOE are: increase educational and formative opportunities for everyone, avoid the separation of students, and strengthen digital competence in students across all grade levels.

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING: A QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE STUDY. CHAPTER 2 BILINGUAL EDUCATION

Understandably, supporting this whole framework is one fundamental element: teacher training. By ensuring the Spanish education system has teachers who are not only aware but understanding of catering to all types of learners in the classroom, who are trained properly and regularly and who understand the necessity of using an intercultural approach in their teaching, the Spanish government looks to ensure the success of education for all in this country.

There are 11 important changes to education under the law:

1. Curriculums based around the development of competences.
2. Learning standards based on evaluations will be eliminated.
3. The government will determine the minimum required learning standards which will count as 50% of the timetables in Autonomous Communities that have a co-official language and 60% in those that do not.
4. Materials will no longer be classified as core, specific, or elective.
5. A new committee within the Ministry of Education will be created that, in coordination with the autonomous communities, will help revise and update curricula.
6. Inclusive education will become a fundamental principle, specifically aimed at attending to the diverse needs of all students.
7. Organization, methodological, and curricular measures will be adopted to conform with the principles of Universal Design Learning (UDL), guaranteeing children's rights and facilitating access to necessary support.
8. Personalized learning centered on competence-based curriculum with an aim to achieve significant learning and scholarly success.
9. Coordination between learning stages will be reinforced, with a view to guarantee an adequate continuance of learning through grades.
10. Articulation and complementation in formal and non-formal education will be promoted with the aim that this will contribute to the acquisition of competences for the complete development of each child's personality.
11. Final tests at the end of Primary, Secondary, and Baccalaureate will be eliminated.

To attend to diversity, each student, according to their interests, abilities, and expectations, will be able to enroll, upon completion of third grade of CSE in Curricular Diversification Programs and Basic Professional Training Courses. Academic and professional counselling will be provided with gender-specific perspectives. At the termination of the second and fourth grades of CSE, each student will be given personalized counselling advice, relating to their personal needs and necessities.

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING: A QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE STUDY. CHAPTER 2 BILINGUAL EDUCATION

Regarding assessment, the evaluation of each course will be reflected with the course's objectives. Graduating or passing will also be allowed to happen with curricular adaptations and schools will have the decision on assessment, passing and graduating standards. All schools will carry out diagnostic testing on acquired competences in the second year of CSE and, at the end of this educational period, all students will receive an official certificate that will count towards accreditation and continuation of their learning. With regards to repeating grades, this is considered to be only allowed in exceptional and extenuating circumstances, and only when all the reinforcement and extra support means and measures have been used and if implemented, will carry with it a personalized and specific plan for that student. In any case, a student may repeat a grade only once and shall only repeat two (different) grades throughout the entirety of CSE.

To further detail the changes to special education needs (SEN) students, the LOMLOE will focus efforts on lifting the barriers that have been limiting some students to their right to education, rather than on the disability. Early detection, diagnosis, and treatment, as well as inclusive education, will be fomented, with better personalized attention given to students with a view to prevent learning difficulties. The participation of students and families in the identification process and valuing of educative needs will be regulated and the student-teacher ratio can be lower than the established ratio by law. The educational authorities will be able to provide resources and support necessary and specific education attention for those with disabilities during the academic year in all education levels. If there are sufficiently accredited circumstances that do not allow for a student to achieve basic education objectives, they will be given an extra year of schooling. Educational authorities will be allowed to include sign language in their school course offerings. Notwithstanding that the majority of students will be incorporated into standard public schools, the educational authorities will continue to give the necessary support to special educational centers so that students who require very specialized attention are able to continue their enrollment in these and, likewise, these centers will also function as centers of reference and support for standard schools. Finally, the government, in collaboration with the educational authorities in the autonomous communities, will develop a plan so that in a span of 10 years, standard schools will have the resources required to be able to attend, in better conditions, to disabled or challenged students.

Concerning the changes to advance equity and equality in schools and between disadvantaged and 'normal' learners, the barriers that students face related to socioeconomic status and culture that limit their right to education are defined and discussed. The educational administrations will have necessary measures to avoid the segregation of students for socioeconomic, or any other, reasons and their following and mentoring throughout their

educational journey. There will be an adequate and balanced distribution of educational support in special education centers. As for admission criteria for schools, it will be established and simplified with a view to obtain more equitable admission. The school zones will respect proximity criteria and will be socially heterogeneous. There will also be admission representatives to guarantee admittance to schools so as to avoid segregation and who will ensure a balanced presence in centers with challenged students. Furthermore, single-sex education centers that are publicly funded will be eliminated. Any complementary activities that are necessary for the completion of the curriculum should be programed and able to be carried out without having any discrimination upon students for economic reasons.

The evaluations in fourth of CPE (Compulsory Primary Education) and second of CSE will be of diagnostic and census characters and should evaluate, at least, the competence level of students in language and Mathematics. The general evaluation of the education system that takes place in sixth of CPE and fourth of CSE will be carried out with a view to measure the equity of the system and the performance trajectories while keeping the context of the center in mind. These will be formative with a view to advise the centers, as well as informative for the families and for the educational community. The inspections that take place in the centers will base their work on principles of legality, professionalism, independence, impartiality, efficiency, and transparency. There will be a new evaluation of all centers, their services, programs, and directive functioning, which will be advised and assessed.

This new education law looks to bolster Spain's plans for helping all students have access to a quality education, regardless of any factor, internal or external, that might have previously led to their discrimination. The plans and promises that the LOMLOE aspires to fulfill are linked with the fourth objective in the *2030 United Nations Agenda for Sustainable Development*¹³ (United Nations, 2015).

To take a closer look at the community of Andalusia, where this study takes place, policies set forth have been constantly updated and renovated to remedy the LL barrier that exists in this particular region. The Strategy Plan for the Development of Languages in Andalusia (in Spanish, *Plan Estratégico de Desarrollo de las Lenguas en Andalucía*) elaborates on the findings from the European Survey on Language Competences (ESLC), in which 13 European countries evaluated a sample of students in fourth grade of CSE in both English and French in listening, reading and

¹³ Sustainable Development Goal 4, which aims "to ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities for all" by 2030. See UNESCO website: <https://en.unesco.org/themes/education2030-sdg4>.

writing (Junta D.A., 2017). Findings show that all stakeholders regard LL as important. Further findings reveal that almost three-fourths of those surveyed think that bettering linguistic competences should be of top political priority, 80% agree that all European Union citizens should be able to speak in more than one language in addition to their mother tongue, and almost 100% agree that languages are important for the future of children¹⁴.

2.4. Inclusive education and diversity

2.4.1. Background

There are an estimated one billion people in the world with some form of disability, accounting for 15% of the world's population. According to the World Bank¹⁵, disabled people are much more likely to come from and stay in lower SES backgrounds than abled people. For its part, The European Commission (2013) approximates that there are 800 million young children around the world who are "affected by biological, environmental, and psychosocial conditions that can limit their cognitive development", estimating there are over 15 million SEN children living in Europe (p. 6).

Even when considering the simple acronym SEN, incongruities are seen. The term SEN can stand for both *Special Educational Needs* and *Specific Educational Needs* and, understandably, these are understood differently around the world (Marsh, 2013). However, most agree that the terms distinguish themselves based on the "issue of diversity [and] represent groups of learners who need specific forms of educational provision, whether learning content subjects or languages" (Marsh, 2013, p. 76). The term, "special needs", is defined by Scanlan (2011) as "a broad umbrella term that includes conditions which entitle students to various support services (e.g., a student with a diagnosed disability who receives special education services) as well as conditions that disadvantage students but do not trigger legal entitlements (e.g., a student experiencing a family hardship who therefore meets with a school counselor)" (p. 7). For her part, Liasidou (2013) has coined the term SEND (*Special Educational Needs and/or Disabilities*) and specifies, relating SEN and LL, that "the notion of special educational needs should be understood in relation to students' cultural and linguistic background in order to distinguish and identify effectively their language- and disability-related needs" (p. 11). On their behalf, Nasir et al. (2006) explain diversity as being viewed as a "pedagogical asset" of functional

¹⁴ Cf. section 3.4.3.3. for more detailed information on the SPDLA and education in Spain.

¹⁵ www.worldbank.org/

education systems (p. 498). Special education needs, or SEN, will be used henceforth to denote students in need of special attention or education, referring to all students such as those with diagnosed learning disabilities, disadvantaged or marginalized students, and all of those with extenuating circumstances. In this same vein, given the obscurity of these terms, this paper uses the term *diversity* to refer the inherently diverse qualities that all humans possess, in line with Pérez Cañado (2021b), and not as terms exclusively concerned with special needs education provision. Similarly, it sees diversity and differences as natural to the human species which should be used to enrich classrooms (Nassir et al., 2006; UNESCO, 2017).

Similar to children themselves, learning disabilities come in various different forms. Some students may be conditioned by an internal trait, or their struggle could be related to an external factor. These disadvantages do not mean that the children are any less capable or intelligent, but it does mean that they might require special attention, personalized instruction, and/or adaptations if they are to hit the same milestones as their peers. All children must be given the chance to succeed and it is the job of all involved in students' lives to make sure that all classrooms truly attend to these students, making them as inclusive as possible. As for what exclusion is, UNESCO (2020) explains that individuals can face exclusion from a four-faceted scope: *physically, socially, psychologically, and systematically*.

In light of this new movement of inclusion in education, and considering how broad the topic is, the terms inclusion and diversity have been, and continue to be, interpreted in various ways (Artiles et al., 2006; European Commission, 2013; Göransson & Nilholm, 2014). Göransson and Nilholm (2014) underscore how inclusive education definitions can be defined progressively, in a hierarchical relation. Inclusion can be (p. 268):

1. Moving disabled students into mainstream classrooms ("placement definition");
2. Solving the social or academic needs of disabled learners ("specified individualized definition");
3. Meeting the needs of all students ("general individualized definition"); and,
4. Creating communities that are capable of join populations together ("community definition").

In truth, the precariousness of these terms leads to a myriad of problems. For their part, Florian et al. (2016) acknowledge some issues that arise because of the broadness of the concepts, which are "problematic" and leave them "open to a range of interpretations which continue to confound the field" (p. 12). The authors themselves distinguish inclusion as allowing every person the opportunity to experience high-quality education. They also explain how distinctions between students and how education is delivered based on differences is conducive

towards unequal, unfair education. Inclusion is, for the previously cited authors (2016), “both the means for, and a consequence of, school systems attempting to address issues of inequality by widening access and participation” (p. 10).

Other authors give their understanding of the term: Marsh (2013) defines inclusion as “both integration of students with diverse abilities and disabilities into mainstream education and also equity of access to education” (p. 71). Emphasizing the antonym, Booth (2000) defines it as “the process of increasing participation and decreasing exclusion from the culture, curriculum and community of mainstream schools” (p. 9). For her part, Cioè-Peña (2017) notes that there are three ways to define inclusion: *socially*, *scientifically*, and *educationally*, but that “the most colloquial understanding of inclusion deals with the integration of students with diverse ability levels” (p. 907). As UNESCO (2020) draws our attention to, there is misconception surrounding what inclusion means; hence, the need for explanation and clarification of what the term signifies. Generally, inclusion is thought to mean aiding students with disabilities “within general education settings”, but this notion has recently become less widely appreciated, mainly due to the fact that it is quite limited in its specifications (idem, 2020). Now, on an international level, the term is becoming recognized “as a principle that supports and welcomes diversity amongst all learners” (idem, 2020, p. 24), which pinpoints its efforts in overcoming social exclusion that may stem from any external factor or circumstance. Inclusion, the governing body adds (2020), stems from “the belief that education is a basic human right and the foundation for a more just society” (p. 24). For their part, Cable et al. (2006) define inclusion following delineations set forth by Sebba and Ainscow (1996): “the process by which a school attempts to respond to all pupils as individuals by reconsidering its school organization and provision” (p. 9). The authors underline the importance of stressing the wording of *who* is to do the adapting: it is the schools, and not the students, that must adapt, as schools must be ones that take on this challenge if inclusion is to be a reality. For OECDa (2019), inclusion is “ensuring that all students acquire essential foundation skills” (p. 41). It is a process that involves eradicating any obstacles that a learner may face regarding their involvement and/or outcomes in schooling.

Putting aside specifications and exact definitions, inclusion is critical for education today, as it is the only way we will be able to “overcome barriers limiting the presence, participation and achievement of learners” (UNESCO, 2017, p. 13). Ultimately, inclusion can be viewed as “seeing individual differences not as problems to be fixed, but as opportunities for democratizing and enriching learning” (idem, 2017, p. 13). Cioè-Peña (2017) reverberates on this sentiment: “at the core of all definitions is the need and desire to make room within both physical and intellectual spaces for the participation of all people” (p. 907). However, the same author warns that this outlook can also be disadvantageous since only focusing on disabilities leads inclusion discussion

and policies to be “grounded on the idea that only one particular kind of student gets excluded when the reality is that many types of students continue to be excluded from inclusive spaces” (p. 907).

Learning disabilities are becoming more widely recognized as kids are exhibiting traits and characteristics that teachers and parents are starting to attribute to disorders rather than intellect, motivation, or laziness. The reality is that many disadvantaged students live and learn in European schools, who are on the receiving end of a lesser-quality education that is not tailored to their specific needs. The call has been made: all students deserve an education that is suitable for their background and characteristics. This is needed urgently, as findings of late reveal some common disabilities, such as dyslexia, which affects a person’s ability to read, and autism, a developmental disorder with varying levels of severity which can affect social interaction and communication, are much more numerous than previously thought. The British Council (2012) alerts us that at least 20% of students in classrooms today have needs related to dyslexia and the European Commission (2013) signals the same might very well be true for autism. Given these shockingly high statistics, understandably, inclusion has been made a priority in the 21st century. For his part, Scanlan (2011) calls for the inclusion of traditionally disadvantaged students to be given the utmost importance. He gives a four-layered “conceptual framework” (p. 6):

1. Linguistically diverse students are bilingual;
2. language acquisition is sociocultural and developmental;
3. service delivery systems should be best equipped to meet students’ special needs; and
4. parent engagement is essential and ecological.

Referring to the third point, the author clarifies that “students’ special needs are varied, interconnected, and dynamic, and that they thus cannot effectively be met in a normal programmatic manner” (p. 6). In many cases, argue Fillmore and Snow (2000), linguistic behaviors and readiness levels are different not only because of differences in aptitudes and inherent human differences, but also because of differences in beliefs. The authors explain that some cultures encourage children “to listen rather than to ask questions of adults” and, thus, when these students underperform, “it does not necessarily mean that they are lacking in ability” (p. 9). Liasidou (2013) explains how inclusion can also be interpreted generally and the definition should

Extend beyond the notion of disability to include learner diversity on the grounds of students’ varied ethnic/race, linguistic, biographical, and developmental characteristics. A broad definition of inclusion denotes an intersectional dimension of students’ ‘disabled identities’ that results from the interactive relationship between their innate characteristics/needs and socio- political/cultural contextual dynamics (p. 11 referencing Thomas, 1999).

Currently, Cioè-Peña (2017) argues that the most frequently employed explanation of inclusion is the one denoting the coming together of neurodiverse and neurotypical students. The same author mentions the beginnings of inclusion, or the integrating of people with disabilities, into mainstream society, which “stems back to the early 20th century when disability rights advocates were seeking equal access to employment” (p. 912, referencing Danforth, 2014; Fliescher & Zames 2012). Albeit this early start, true disability rights advocacy did not begin until after the 1950s (Cioè-Peña, 2017). Fortunately, fewer education systems and schools today continue to exclude certain types of learners from mainstream education, and, likewise, the mindset regarding types of learners and difficulties has changed, although progress is still being made. The notion nowadays is that all students should be allowed to benefit from quality education and there is ample support backing this new ideology. However, improvement is still needed. As Liasidou (2013) points out, “there is considerable empirical evidence suggesting that educational services do not meet the needs of culturally and linguistically diverse students with SEN, who are more likely, in comparison with their peers, to leave school early and to experience educational failure” (pp. 11-12).

In the past, many schools remained exclusive due to the widespread belief that becoming inclusive “would have negative effects on the academic performance of other students and/or lower overall standards” (Florian et al., 2016, p. 1), but today, this notion has been widely dispelled. For his part, Mitchell (2018) advocates for the promotion of inclusive education for two reasons: the fact that both SEN and non-SEN students will “profit academically” and, secondly, by being together in the same classroom, both types of learners will begin to have an “appreciation” for diversity (p. 22). This is something that is much required if society is to change its discourse about ability, normalcy, and standardization. As Cioè-Peña (2017) puts it, “disability is transformed from ailment to human variety when children of diverse ability levels are encouraged to learn alongside each other” (p. 913). She notes that education that allows all children to participate in the classroom changes social views and takes them from outsiders to insiders that have a right to learn alongside their peers (idem, 2017).

Quality education is a fundamental right and, given the overwhelming evidence corroborating the notion that inclusive education is beneficial for all parts involved, “a strong political consensus has emerged in Europe on the importance of inclusive education, and ensuring children with special education needs are included in mainstream education” (European Commission, 2013, p. 4). Florian et al. (2016) explain the evolution of inclusive education in Europe, both in terms of students with disabilities as well as disadvantaged students such as refugees and (im)migrants:

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING: A QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE STUDY. CHAPTER 2 BILINGUAL EDUCATION

Originally concerned with students previously excluded from mainstream schools, notably students with disabilities, inclusive education has evolved to become a broad rights-based concept that encompasses anyone who might be excluded from or have limited access to the educational system within a country. Today, there is an increasing recognition that the forces of globalisation have changed the demographics of schooling. As the citizens of Europe exercise their freedom of mobility, and an increasing number of refugees seek asylum from conflicts elsewhere, schools become more diverse and multicultural in terms of ethnicity, language, and religion. Consequently, the focus of inclusive education is on ensuring that all learners have access to a good quality education. In addition, growing awareness that the underachievement of certain groups of students is an inequity of opportunity has led to a renewed focus on interventions aimed at closing the gap between the lowest and highest achievers (p. 13).

By simply considering statistics of displaced people in Europe over the past 10 years, it becomes obvious how schools are inherently more diverse than ever, when it comes to ethnicity, languages, disabilities, beliefs, religions, and SES.

For their part, Coyle et al. (2010) touch upon what inclusive education looks like in the 21st century, and the change it has undergone. In the past, it was mainly concerned with “physical and cognitive disabilities”, but today it has broadened its scope immensely, the authors note: “inclusive practice could more overtly capture linguistic and cultural inclusion, and be extended to a more holistic approach to learning through different languages and cultures” (p. 161). Mitchell (2018) draws our attention to the fact that some “distinctive worldviews” can also be due to learning disabilities: “it has long been argued that deaf people share a worldview experienced primarily through visual rather than auditory experiences” and it is considered that autism behaviour might be “part of a range of strategies to cope with a world that feels chaotic and overwhelming” (p. 61).

From its creation and during its existence, special education has been controversial. It has been intended to marginalize a sector of students for reasons related to disabilities, lower achievement, or behavioral, social, emotional, or physical issues under the premise of giving all students the right to education. Unfortunately, notwithstanding any good intentions, it has mostly served to further the gap of inequality within education by creating a special place for these students and not allowing them to incorporate into mainstream centers. Florian et al. (2016) explore this dilemma and question its finality:

So, is the primary purpose of special schools and classes to protect the educational rights of the most vulnerable children by providing suitable learning experiences in appropriate settings? Or, are they intended to protect the educational rights of the majority of children in mainstream schools, so that their learning is not disrupted by the presence of children whose identified SEN are considered to be especially demanding? The answers to these questions are not straightforward

but may well be partly determined by the particular viewpoint of any respondent, whether as a student, a parent, a teacher or whoever (p. 9).

The unfortunate reality is that SEN students have continuously been left out of classes that are seen unfit for them, most commonly language classrooms, since it was deemed unnecessary to burden these types of kids with this superfluous subject. However, research shows us that challenged students “can, indeed, develop more than one language in a manner similar to monolingual peers with the same disability and without detrimental effects on their language or cognitive development” (De Valenzuela et al. 2016 p. 33). Poór et al. (2004) reverberate on this fact: “language acquisition theories and practices have proved that the human capacity for learning languages is not limited. Thus, it is possible for a second or a third language to be acquired even by people suffering from serious learning disabilities” (p. 111).

On these grounds, it can be understood why this way of thinking is now seen as outdated. Accordingly, the European Agency for Special Needs and Inclusive Education (henceforth, EASNIE, 2016) recognizes that today “the argument in favour of inclusion, as opposed to other segregated forms of education, is a position which has been repeatedly justified” (p. 56). Exclusion is not an option anymore, and countries around Europe are making the move to a more inclusive education system, bolstering their efforts in the form of legislation in order to guarantee that certain learners are no longer at risk of being socially marginalized, by giving disadvantaged or disenfranchised students equal access to quality education that will in turn give them the opportunity to become competent citizens (idem, 2016).

The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization’s *Guide for Ensuring Inclusion and Equity in Education* (2017) emphasizes that diversity can be used as an advantage pedagogically: “differences can act as a catalyst for innovation that can benefit all learners, whatever their personal characteristics and home circumstances” (p. 13). Integrating equity and inclusion into teaching practices includes accepting, appreciating, and gaining knowledge from learner variance. Overall, “inclusion and equity are overarching principles that should guide all educational policies, plans and practices, rather than being the focus of a separate policy” (idem, 2017, p. 18).

According to Marsh (2013), everyone, in one way or another, could be considered to have special needs, when considering the human species, which is why every child benefits from personalized attention at some point in their education, especially considering FL education. Modifications, argues the author, are necessary for all students at one time or another, and there is no one single technique that can successfully cater to every student, nor probably, even the majority:

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING: A QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE STUDY. CHAPTER 2 BILINGUAL EDUCATION

There is a saying that a chain is only as strong as its weakest link. There are many weak links in the language learning chain, including the types of individuals who sometimes struggle at all ages to learn an additional language. This includes students who are considered particularly gifted in certain ways, those who are simply not motivated to learn the language, and those who have a wide range of specific conditions, physical, psychological, biological, which may be short or long term (p. 71).

For their part, Forghani-Arani et al. (2019) define diversity as “characteristics that can affect the specific ways in which developmental potential and learning are realized, including cultural, linguistic, ethnic, religious, and socio-economic differences” (p. 7, referencing OECD, 2010). Furthermore, as previously mentioned, the terms diversity and inclusion are not exclusively concerned with special needs provision, but address the “inherently” diverse qualities that all humans possess (Madrid & Pérez Cañado, 2018, p. 244). It is understood as being all the ways an individual may differ from of his or her peers and the discrepancy found amongst students of a same age. This may be related to several factors (p. 244, referencing Arnaiz, 2009; Gardner, 1983; Julius & Madrid, 2017):

- Diversity in prior ideas, experiences, knowledge, and attitudes;
- different learning styles and multiple intelligences;
- different learning methods;
- varying achievement levels, learning paces, and intellectual capacity;
- diverging interests, motivations, and expectations; and,
- different socioeconomic and cultural backgrounds that affect the lives of students.

As for Forghani-Arani et al. (2019), the authors provide a list of differences that can be pertinent for diversity measures as related to students’ interests and experiences; attitudes and intelligence; gender and sexual orientation; SES; and ethnic background.

When it comes to inclusion and diversity, mental and physical challenges are not the only disabilities in need of being addressed. Considering the number of foreigners and migrants who cannot speak the language where they are living combined with SEN students in a single classroom, the number of students in need of special attention and personalization is quite high, justifies Marsh (2013), and, given that migration is a reality in Europe, this is in dire need of attention. As Forghani-Arani et al. (2019) underscore, classrooms are more diverse today than ever due to migration; highlighting France as an example, where immigration and migration patterns have seen an increase by 40%, or in countries such as Germany and Switzerland, where immigrant numbers have doubled in the past decade. Diversity in European schools can thus be linked to migration, along with other factors such as the inclusion of SEN students into mainstream classes, as well as the use of technologies (EASNIE, 2016; Florian et al., 2016; Marsh, 2013)

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING: A QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE STUDY. CHAPTER 2 BILINGUAL EDUCATION

In a broad and basic sense, catering to diversity is understanding and accepting that no two students can think, study, or learn in the exact same way. At a deeper level, “attending to diversity encompasses all activity that responds to students’ educational needs, especially those that need tailored responses [...] due to various reasons, be them social, health-related, or educational (Madrid & Pérez Cañado, 2018, p. 244). These same authors indicate that there are two overarching *principles* to look at in our modern classrooms: attending to diversity and integration. Including SEN students in language education, that may have been previously excluded, is not the only goal; the students must also feel welcome, safe, and fully integrated into the school environment and society as a whole: “supporting diversity might mean actively acknowledging that there are individuals who have physical and intellectual additional needs, but equally it might mean considering additional needs related to linguistic and cultural differences” (Coyle et al., 2010, p. 160).

There are a great number of SEN students in mainstream schools that are culturally diverse and speak different languages, yet despite the high percentage of children who need extra attention, “educators systematically fail to address concurrently students’ language- and disability-related needs” due to the fact that many educators have not been trained to deal with these types of needs in the classroom (Liasidou, 2013, p. 12) and “despite the super-diversity that characterizes our societies, not much is known about how teachers teach in diverse classrooms and how they can be prepared to do so” (Forghani-Arani et al., 2019, p. 7). Thus, it is clear that while diversity and inclusion are gaining support, they are still problematic areas and education requires “specific measurement criteria and evaluation markers to help identify those who are in need of extra attention” (Marsh, 2013, p. 71). As previously hashed out, LL is fundamental for citizens of Europe for a plethora of reasons and, therefore, no student or human being should be denied access to LL in an inclusive classroom due to a disability, seen or unseen.

Central to CLIL and diversity, and above all what will make this approach functional for this century and for the students today, is mindset: valuing differences, routine collaboration, and a commitment: “to offering educational opportunities to all students” (Dyson et al., 2004, p. 24). As McColl et al. (2002) state, teachers themselves must be on high alert and “need to be aware of the danger of interposing our own barriers between learners and their potential learning” (p. 15). Believing in students and conveying this to them is crucial if they are to be successful. On the contrary, they will be more prone to fail in their endeavor due to inhibitions related to diagnosed or perceived problems, or the so-called growth mindset (Fields, 2017; Gurría, 2019; McColl et al., 2002; OECDa, 2019; Tomlinson, 2017).

Another consideration within education, tied to inclusion, lies the discussion of the word equity, as opposed to equality. As the OECDa (2019) explains, “equity does not mean that all

students achieve the same results, but that every student has acquired the skills he or she needs to participate fully in society, and has been given an equal opportunity to realise his or her potential" (p. 42). Individual circumstances can affect students in many ways, including how they are motivated, what interests them, what they aspire for in the future and how they behave (idem, 2019). These circumstances can be related to many factors, most traditionally associated with SES, gender and nationality or foreigner status. However, "equality of opportunity" means that every student should have the chance to succeed and obtain high rates of achievement, regardless of any "personal circumstances that stem from the randomness of birth" and instead, the merits of their achievements and performance should be based entirely on their effort, and should not be hindered by external conditions (idem, 2019). Specifically, some children are born with financial resources that "underpin future achievement", which is where equity in education steps in: "equitable school systems are those that are able to weaken the link between individual circumstances and education" (OECDa, 2019, p. 42).

Equity in education is also in line with innovative pedagogies such as CLIL, which calls for flexible, personalized teaching; in essence, removing the student from the "one-size-fits-all" classroom (OECDa, 2019, p. 42). In this way, CLIL flexibly modifies objectives that allow for the reducing of any adversities a student may face in their performance based on their background "so that all students are given the opportunity to reach or maximize their own potential" (idem, 2019, pp. 42-43). In this way, equity is synonymous with fairness, since all learners' outcomes are given equal amounts of importance and those that require more to have a level playing ground are given it where needed. Equity means factoring students' backgrounds into the school equation and ensuring that any "variations" between students' achievements are not dependent on individual circumstances that are unchangeable. The report elaborates:

Fairness relates to students' access to a quality education and, more specifically, to the degree to which background circumstances influence students' education outcomes [...] removing obstacles over which individual students have no control, such as unequal access to educational resources and school environments (idem, 2019, pp. 41-42).

Due to the surge in research on this topic, policy-makers and educators alike have divulged into a new era in teaching, where individual cognitive processes and differences in individuals are appreciated and given top priority. Diversity, states UNESCO (2017), "[...] is now seen as an opportunity, when approached through collaborative work. The exchange of ideas and research work in teams makes diversity evolve from a problem into a challenge" (p. 37). Consequently, many involved in decision-making are considering the revelation that no two students are alike and how many more students than previously believed require or benefit from curricular adaptations or personalized objectives. Whereas these types of students may have been

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING: A QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE STUDY. CHAPTER 2 BILINGUAL EDUCATION

excluded from legislation policies before, the reality is that nowadays education is becoming more inclusive rather than exclusive (Pérez-Vidal, 2009).

For its part, the *United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization* (2017) links inclusion with quality, acknowledging that in addition to superior practices, access to education is a cornerstone in inclusive educational practices. Inclusive education today is now for anyone who

Might have been excluded from, or have limited access to, the general education system within a country [...] this includes a much broader group of vulnerable children such as those living in poverty, newly arrived migrant children or others who may not speak English or who have a different ethnic, cultural, or religious heritage (p. 17).

Most importantly, inclusion means not thinking of education as being *special* or *different*, but, rather, effective, and functional for all types of learners. This is not as simple as it sounds, as Florian et al. (2016) resound:

It is not a straightforward task but is one that involves attending to the complex business of whole class teaching, taking account that each learner brings a unique experience of their learning to the community of the classroom, in which learning is a shared activity that depends in part on the relationships and interactions between its members, including other students and adults (pp. 14-15).

Given the importance of inclusive education, it is also fundamental for education systems to implement and bolster diagnostic testing and remedial actions. However, as the European Commission (2013) points out, it is defining and diagnosing these that is the issue, since:

Despite the universally accepted importance of supporting children with SEN, there is no common agreement in Europe of what constitutes special needs in education. The construction of any such definition is hindered by the absence of a harmonised system of classification for individual learning difficulties. There are significant differences across Europe in the labels used to categorise children with SEN, and the social understandings which underpin particular labels (p. 7).

More than anything, the complications concerning diversity and inclusion are tied to the detection process coupled with the "scarcity of reliable data" (European Commission, 2013, p. 7). Specifically, many European Union member states do not have "established protocol" when it comes to the detection of Autism Spectrum Disorder (ASD), a relatively common learning disorder (European Commission, 2013). Similarly, research from the *Embedding Dyslexia-Responsive Practices in Lifelong Learning* Project (European Commission, 2013) found many European states are lacking when it comes to the detection and diagnosis of dyslexia. The results highlight "the

need for an official assessment protocol to be introduced as an aid in diagnosing dyslexia” or even the introduction of “computerized mass screenings” (idem, 2013, p. 9). These protocols are indispensable, especially when considering how much of a difference early detection of learning disorders can have on the learning process for kids and the impact it can radically have on their future. The reality is that there are major limitations and flaws with many of the instruments used for the screening process of SEN and learning disabilities, especially related to the most prevalent and treatable disabilities in mainstream education practices (i.e. CLIL), which unfortunately, are going undetected and therefore, untreated. The European Commission (2013) highlights the severity of this situation and how skewed data is hampering efforts in trying to remedy these disorders:

The difficulties of identifying children with SEN are reflected in the scarcity of reliable data on the prevalence of certain disorders, which in turn hinders the development of effective support policies. In the case of ASDs, limitations in diagnosis methods mean the reported high prevalence rates in the EU cannot be used to derive absolute conclusions (p. 7).

The lack of functional screening and diagnosing protocols and instruments may be putting more weight on teachers’ shoulders, since without proper detection methods, it now falls upon teachers to identify potential problems or isolate the variables causing low or poor achievement in their students. Inopportunely, this is not something that conventional teachers are prepared for and could explain why many teachers associate poor academic performance with low capability or unintelligence instead of looking for potential remedies or identifying the true cause. Teachers, due to lack of familiarity about the topic, might assume children are not working simply because they do not want to, not because they are not able to or frustrated by the attempt. This thinking is most likely not due to a malicious intention on their behalf, but simply because they are unequipped to handle or diagnose these particular situations or students. To counter this, a review carried out by the British government proposes that “all teachers should have a working knowledge of warning signs” of potential learning disabilities, arguing that knowledge of such should formally become part of teacher education, since “where universal screening is not implemented and developmental disorders are not identified at the pre-school stage, it may be incumbent on teachers to identify difficulties [...]” (European Commission, 2013, p. 9). This is in line with research findings (European Commission, 2013) that allude to the fact that students’ performance is heavily influenced by teachers’ ability to detect and implement remedial teaching for common disorders such as Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD). Diversity is complicated and makes teaching more multifarious, but it is a reality on a national and international level, and before all students are able to access the knowledge that will lead them to a successful future, teachers must be able to diagnose them properly and efficiently, which is why teacher training is absolutely incumbent to inclusion (Marsh, 2013).

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING: A QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE STUDY. CHAPTER 2 BILINGUAL EDUCATION

Through the scrutiny of statistics, the reality of inclusive education in Europe comes to light. A report published by the European Commission (2013) reveals the percentage of total pupils who are identified as SEN in different European countries. The highest percentage of SEN population is found in Iceland, with 24% of the total school population identified as having SEN, followed by Lithuania with 11%. On the lower side of the spectrum, Spain identifies only 2-3% of total school population as SEN, the third to lowest estimate. Sweden has the lowest estimation, with just 1.5% percent of total school population being categorized as SEN. This marked disparity between European countries only highlights the chaotic reality going on behind the scenes as institutions and governments attempt to label and address diversity. The European Commission (2013) explains why many of these efforts are being frustrated. The range of SEN students from one country to the next is a:

testament to the distorting effect of different counting practices. Accordingly, any efforts at the European level to assist children with SEN must first be clear about the types of needs being referred to, and propose a system of classification that addresses the widely divergent identification practices currently in place across Europe (p. 10).

When it comes to special education provision in Europe, such as diagnostic efforts and categorization, it is anything but homogeneous. Special schools are yet another issue concerning diversity and how it is attended to, given the wide spectrum of schools that are focused specifically on SEN education provision around Europe, coupled with the incongruities of admission criteria, action plans and remedial programs. Some European countries (e.g. the Netherlands, Germany, and Belgium) have "selective school systems" where students are placed based on ability, and many children are identified as SEN early on. On the other hand, some countries (for example, Spain and the UK), have "comprehensive school systems" and offer few special provision schools (European Commission, 2017, p. 13). Finally, in the extreme cases of Italy and Greece, which are unique in the regard that both countries lack any history in special education centers, almost all SEN children have been and continue to be integrated in mainstream schools. These incongruities highlight the tendency in the 21st century that has seen an escalation in the eradication of special schools (idem, 2017).

Given the relative unstableness of inclusion, including definitions, schooling, remedial actions, diagnostic efforts, and special schooling statistics, there has been increased urgency around the initiatives and support for inclusion on the continent. As OECDa (2019) puts it, these plans have taken shape under the premise that "every person has a fair chance to improve his or her life, whatever his or her personal circumstances, lies at the heart of democratic political and economic institutions" (p. 42). Following, a brief overview of legislation and policies on inclusion are discussed.

2.4.2. Initiatives and support

It could be argued that the (relatively) modern history of inclusive education stems from the 1948 *United Nations Declaration of Universal Human Rights*, when education was pinpointed as a right for all people, although at the time, there were various interpretations of what education meant, as well as who were considered to be all, something that still rings true today (Florian et al., 2016; Liasidou, 2013; United Nations, 2008). Marsh (2013) argues that inclusion really came into focus in Europe with the 1957 Treaty of Rome and subsequent creation of the European Union. Apart from its past, today, there are several foundations and initiatives that support and back inclusive education in Europe, including: the *2030 United Nations Agenda for Sustainable Development* (United Nations, 2015); the *European Agency for Development of Special Needs Education* (EADSNE), founded in 1996, “whose remit is to improve the quality of special needs provision across Europe by encouraging cross-country collaboration and knowledge exchange” (European Commission, 2013, p. 7); and, finally, a popular initiative produced in the UK, called *Index for Inclusion* which has been translated into over 30 languages and “provides a list of indicators and questions to assist schools in engaging in a process of self-review, with a view to developing inclusion ethos and practices” (idem, 2013, p. 14). This is by no means an exhaustive list, as each country has their own legislation and guidelines.

In Spain, education reform has taken form under the previously mentioned LOMLOE (2021), which sets out various measures for attending to diversity and creating inclusive classrooms, due to take place over the span of a decade¹⁶. Inside the country, in one particular autonomous community where this study takes place, *The Strategic Plan for the Development of Languages in Andalusia* (SPDLA) gives emphasis to bolstering attention to diversity in the bilingual programs by creating initiatives for how to cater to diversity within six objectives¹⁷. There are several measures that will be taken to foment inclusion of marginalized students, specifically immigrant or foreign-born students: creation of online intercultural resources; bolstering of the Spanish as a FL program; creation of a new curriculum for foreign students based on the Cervantes Institute Curricular Plan; creation of programs for foreign families and students to foment integration and social cohesion; training of teachers on intercultural awareness and migration; creation of credentials for foreigners and immigrants to allow them to join the workforce; use of CLIL; and modifying of laws that will also favor the integration of second-

¹⁶ Cf. section 2.5.2. for a more in-depth look at Spanish litigation on inclusion.

¹⁷ Cf. section 3.6.4.2.4. for a more detailed analysis of this document.

generation immigrants, as well as allow for more curricular adaptation and flexibility for immigrant students during their first year at school (Lorenzo et al., 2021).

Legislation regarding inclusion has been based on the premise that all children should, despite any individual circumstances or external factors, have access to not only basic, but quality, education. That also means language education, since intercultural competence and LL are, as previously mentioned, not a superfluous attribute anymore, but a staple to any curriculum worldwide. Thus, as the OECDa (2019) points out, allowing all children to have fair access to quality schooling "is the main requirement for achieving equity in education" (p. 54). Having equitable education systems are not only required for social justice, but also serve as "a way to use resources more effectively, increase the supply of skills that fuel economic growth, and promote social cohesion" (Gurría, 2019, p. 4). Litigation around inclusion must be "a radical re-thinking of all aspects of education" (Mitchell, 2018, p. 5). The author argues that research collected shows that reorganizing some features of an education system is not sufficient, but to effectively combat low-achievement due to exclusionist policies, a whole-system approach must be taken.

To touch upon the previously mentioned European initiatives, the UN's *Global Education 2030 Agenda for the Promotion of Sustainable Development* (UNESCO, 2017; United Nations, 2015) regards inclusive education as playing a fundamental role for the future of our planet, demarking that "disability cannot be a reason or criteria for lack of access to development programming and the realization of human rights" (p. 2). The guide was published with a view for countries to apply specific techniques pertinent to their citizens' needs so as to ensure that all individuals in society have "an equal opportunity for educational progress" (p. 10). Within the agenda, education is viewed as fundamental for the achievement of all 17 goals, and is more specifically focused on in Goal Four. The *Framework for Action* serves as a guide to help maneuver this challenge.

For its part, The European Commission (2013) advocates for several inclusive education practices, such as decentralization, plans for inclusive education, efficient funding, and training in the form of specialist support for teachers. Decentralization here translates to a "shift of resources and decision-making to those nearest the child, reflecting evidence that this brings the greatest benefits to the largest numbers of pupils needing such support" (European Commission, 2013, p. 16) and referencing a movement happening in the UK, which constitutes giving teachers who come in direct, daily contact with the student the most responsibility and subjectivity, and ultimately, the final word, on deciding how to treat and manage the SEN student at hand. This has been shown to be more effective than centralized policies that ultimately fall short since all learning disabilities are distinct and no two SEN students are the same.

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING: A QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE STUDY. CHAPTER 2 BILINGUAL EDUCATION

UNESCO (2020) has a tri-fold action plan for inclusive education policies, including: firstly, defining and establishing clearly what is meant by inclusive, equitable education; secondly, isolating and removing any barriers that any marginalized learners might face; and thirdly, wholly supporting teachers in their endeavors to foment inclusion in their teaching. Inclusive legislation must be coupled with “a culture of inclusion that permeates the education system” (UNESCO, 2020, p. 25). Regarding the second point, the guide suggests contemplating the difficulties that students experience in a certain country, to isolate what is limiting their potential as a way to counter any barriers, a proactive measure which can serve as “an agenda for change” (p. 28) that policy makers and teachers alike can use in their quest for inclusiveness. Touching upon the third point, teacher support and appreciation has been noted to be a feature of equitable education: “evidence from the OECD suggests that countries where teachers believe their profession is valued show higher levels of equity in learning outcomes” (idem, 2020, p. 28). Along these same lines, teachers must feel like they are supported in their journey to inclusive educators, to encourage a positive response on their behalf when it comes to learner variance and diversity, by seeing these as an asset to the classroom instead of obstacles to overcome.

As UNESCO (2020) points out, over the past decades much progress has been made in getting more students enrolled in schooling, but, unfortunately, progress is not being made as steadily as before. The governing body alerts that there are still over 600 million children and adolescents today who are far below “minimum proficiency levels in reading and Mathematics” (p. 16). Another shocking fact comes to light about Pre-Primary education, which might be seen as superfluous but is quite vital for students’ futures at schools and a determining factor for achievement: “only half of the world’s children” are enrolled in Pre-Primary education (idem, 2020).

This is cause for alarm and why inclusion is so needed on government agendas, since the most disadvantaged and disenfranchised are the ones that are not receiving early childhood education, despite the fact that they are the ones that need it the most and would profit immensely from it. Marginalized and excluded groups of students also see higher rates of abandonment at school and have much lower levels of tertiary education enrollment (idem, 2020).

Several countries serve as role models when it comes to inclusive policies, as reported by UNESCO (2020). In Canada, legislation, authoritarian policies, and guidelines for professionals involved in education have pioneered how inclusion is viewed in education. In Europe, as previously mentioned, Italy serves as a country that has pioneered the mainstreaming of all students, following a law passed in 1977 that closed all special schools and non-inclusive institutions. Throughout the country, a widely accepted notion of inclusion is featured. In Portugal, there have been harsher laws enacted that make disability discrimination illegal and this

country has seen a more specific, robust agenda regarding inclusion in education. In Finland, a country notorious for higher achieving students, "education is viewed as a right not as a privilege" (UNESCO, 2020, p. 19). Policies seen in this country, and results related to learning outcomes from the general student population, point to the fact that support tactics for disadvantaged students are preferable to separationist policies. There is heightened awareness on learning difficulties and primary schools have ample resources, such as specialists, to help assist students who present problems early on. However, the guide (idem, 2020) is clear that these countries are not perfect in their strife for inclusive education, but that there are lessons to be learned. Overall, variation is expected when it comes to inclusive policies, as "there is not one single model of an inclusive school. However, what is common to highly inclusive schools is that they are welcoming and supportive places for all of their students (not least for those with disabilities and others who experience difficulties)" (idem, 2020, p. 28).

Indisputably, learner diversity must be addressed if any country can truly hope to be successful in their endeavor for inclusive bilingual education. The bottom line is that education systems must be equitable if they are to be sustainable in the future. Data shows "the highest performing education systems across OECD countries are those that combine high quality and equity" and it is in these countries where students' achievements and outcomes "depend on their ability and drive, more than on their socio-economic background" (UNESCO, 2020, p. 20). It comes with a change in mindset, and how education is considered: from the stakeholders who deal with inclusion on a grassroots level to those in charge of national policy, all involved need to rethink education.

Overall, any reform aimed at promotion of inclusive education must include a collaboration between all involved in the process. Policies and frameworks focused on diversity should use heightened awareness happening now as "an opportunity to revive the broadened notion of inclusion as a general guiding principle to strengthen equal access to quality learning opportunities for all learners" (UNESCO, 2020, p. 18). It must be accepted as fact that certain sections of the population, in any given country, are susceptible to marginalization, including, but not limited to disabled learners, certain ethnic or minorities, and low-income students. Therefore, legislation and policies must isolate these learners in each country and create action plans specifically for them and their needs, removing any obstacles they may face in their path to equitable education.

Liasidou (2013) highlights what is needed to make this a reality:

An inclusive education reform agenda necessitates that the predominance of 'professional monologue' in education is transformed into a fertile and continuous dialogue among the various

professionals implicated in bilingual special education programs, through the constitution of interdisciplinary professional teams intended to enable learner diversity to fulfil their potential (p. 14).

2.4.3. Achievement and inclusion

This section will discuss achievement, which paired with inclusion, has become a topic on many governments' agendas, notably concerned with closing the gap between learners. Achievement outcomes have been correlated for many years with SES, leading Florian et al. (2016) to declare that still today there continue to exist unequal and unfair amounts of quality of education. Achievement is also a controversial topic, as many countries struggle to pursue enhanced outcomes by students on a national level. One notion being challenged is what is considered as academic achievement. Thoughts surrounding what SEN or disabled or disadvantaged children can or cannot do, as well as what was previously thought of succeeding or failing, have changed in the past years. UNESCO (2016) dispels the misconceptions that achievement is based solely on "test or examination results", pointing out that this is actually "the outcomes of learning across the curriculum" (p. 46). In this same vein, Florian et al. (2016) point out that while "literacy and numeracy" are undoubtedly important, there are also a wide array of skills and other achievements which are "more intangible" but of equal value, including, but not limited to "self-esteem, self-efficacy, resilience, social skills, creativity, tolerance and empathy and well-being" (p. 18).

Research amassed throughout the years has given us insight into how to include all students into mainstream education; results show that heterogeneous classes with cooperative learning can actually serve to improve academic achievement. Contrarily, by separating or excluding students from mainstream classes actually has dual disadvantages: it acts to further increase the gap between the learners and, moreover, this practice foments inequality (Swann et al., 2012). Increasing achievement for all is not only ethically imperative, but also financially sustainable. Furthermore, for governments to be successful in initiatives regarding achievement, inclusion must be made a priority, which is why achievement and inclusion must go hand in hand.

Educational achievement is beginning to distinguish countries, maybe even more so than GDP (Gurría, 2019): before, the justification for poorly-educated countries was usually attributed to the financial state of a country; however, nowadays "the level of economic development explains just 28% of the variation in learning outcomes across countries [...]" (p. 4). This means that even countries that are not endowed with a plethora of financial resources have the ability to increase achievement and outcomes in students within their country by promoting an equitable, inclusive education system. Disadvantaged, disabled, or disenfranchised students "generally have

one single chance in life" which is, undeniably, "a great teacher and a good school" (OECDa, 2019, p. 4). Unfortunately, in many countries, where a student lives or what neighborhood the student comes from still tends to be "the strongest predictor" of their educational success or failure (Gurría, 2019, p. 4). Undeniably, "all countries have excellent students", but only a minority of them enable all students from different walks of life to "excel and fulfill their potential" (idem, 2019, p. 4).

Recently, in 2010, the member countries associated with the EASNIE (2016) "identified raising achievement for all learners as a key issue for investigation" (p. 7), and focused on the research of inclusive practices and strategies that would help increase achievement, identifying the specific roles that school culture, focus on learning, the involvement of families, and effective monitoring play in contributing to enhanced achievement, particularly concerning the disadvantaged and low-achieving learners. Many governments are also taking such measures tightly linked to financial reasons, since "the high cost of school failure and inequity for individuals – and for society more widely – is increasingly being recognised across Europe" (EASNIE, 2016, p. 9).

Inclusion and achievement are widely debated: while it has been accepted as unfair and unethical to keep struggling learners from mainstream education, it still remains unclear how including these learners in schools will affect achievement. Over the years, SEN students have been used to explain low achievement. One of the main problems with schooling and equal opportunities in education is the paradox of assuming that school is only for those who succeed with ease, and not questioning why certain students are performing poorly. Florian et al. (2016) argue that while education is flaunted as being for all nowadays, this is still very much "an aspiration", given that putting it into practice is riddled with "complications" and nations are more hesitant to actually carry through with its implications (p. 4). Unfortunately, once schools begin to show signs of success, they tend to become more selective and are more inclined to pick and choose students who will better their school, rather than select students who their school can help (Thrupp & Tomlinson, 2005). For their part, Florian et al. (2016) argue inclusive education and increased achievement "can be entirely compatible", defending the fact that inclusion is "essential" for there to be equity in education, and subsequently, society (p. 2). As put forth by EASNIE (2016), "an inclusive curriculum does not aim to reduce the knowledge that a learner has to acquire; instead it involves adapting teaching methods and activities to facilitate learning and to move the learner towards higher levels of achievement" (p. 28).

For her part, Lähteenmäki (2013), in Finland, focused on helping students with cerebral palsy. The team found that these types of students benefit most from learning skills that they can use outside of the classroom as young adults, such as body management skills, writing skills,

independent movements and understanding their rights and boundless potential. The study not only gave insight into this type of disability and its effect on learning, but also showed how important curricular flexibility is when it comes to diversity and inclusion, allowing it to be tailored to fit specific needs and permitting all learners to attain high achievement. And similarly, while investigating students with Down Syndrome and ASD (Autism Spectrum Disorder), Hambly and Fonnebonne (2012) and Marinova-Todd and Mirenda (2015) found that these students were no more disadvantaged than their monolingual peers, thus again confirming the argument that these students must be given all opportunities possible to enroll in bilingual programs.

Along these same lines, outcomes are also widely debated when it comes to inclusion and, indeed, bolstering these is on many political agendas: most schools are constantly striving to better outcomes over time while simultaneously being expected to provide all learners with equal opportunities to access a high-quality education. The positive light is that preliminary studies confirm that outcomes increase when inclusion augments. PISA (2009) results found that "successful school systems –those that perform above average and show below-average socio-economic inequalities– provide all students, regardless of their socio-economic backgrounds, with similar opportunities to learn" (OECD, 2010a, p. 13).

Inclusive education and achievement are often questioned and contested, since it seems impossible for a school to become more inclusive while simultaneously increasing results and decreasing school failures. However, "various studies have considered the impact of inclusion on academic achievement across a whole range of curriculum areas in different education levels. They have shown the positive impact of inclusive placements for learners with disabilities" (EASNIE, 2016, p. 55). In this same vein, a study by Dyssegaard and Larsen (2013) highlights that mainstream learners' achievement, both academic and social, is in no way negatively affected when SEN learners join them in the classroom.

Another misconception regarding achievement is how it is related to anxiety and stress, since it can be believed that better performing students are also the ones that present, more frequently, mental health issues related to anxiety, stress, and depression. However, as Gurriá (2019) points out, this is in no means the case across the board, and many countries have proven this idea to be false, insisting achievement does not necessarily come with increased mental health struggles:

It may be tempting to conclude that performing better in school will necessarily increase anxiety about schoolwork and undermine students' well-being. But countries such as Belgium, Estonia, Finland, and Germany show that high performance and a strong sense of well-being can be achieved simultaneously; they set important examples for others (p. 4).

The OECDa (2012) report highlights over a dozen European countries which “significantly improved their Mathematics performance between 2003 and 2012” while simultaneously promoting and undertaking quality and equity, thus proving “countries do not have to sacrifice high performance to achieve equity in education” (p. 3). Similarly, a study conducted by INCLUDE-ED (2012) finds that inclusive education is not only beneficial for the previously excluded learners, but for all learners, since “inclusion overcomes mixture and streaming, leading schools to improve their results both with regards to academic learning and living together” (p. 4). As Gurría (2019) highlights, results related to achievement continue to be encouraging for socioeconomically challenged or disadvantaged students, and countries such as Estonia, Finland, Norway, and the UK show us “that equity and excellence can also be jointly achieved” (p. 4). Persson (2012) is congruent on this point, emphasizing how inclusive practices raise achievement levels with all types of students in all schools given increased attention, higher standards, and better practices in the classroom. More recently, the 2018 PISA study revealed that four Chinese provinces in Beijing, Shanghai, Jiangshu, and Zhejiang “outperformed by a large margin their peers from all of the other 78 participating education systems, in Mathematics and Science” and even “the 10% most disadvantaged students” had better reading skills, underlining the idea that inclusive education can be pursued without having to sacrifice achievement levels: “What makes their achievement even more remarkable is that the level of income of these four Chinese regions is well below the OECD average. The quality of their schools today will feed into the strength of their economies tomorrow” (Gurría, 2019, p. 3). This is in direct contrast with the majority of the other OECD countries who “saw virtually no improvement in the performance of their students since PISA was first conducted in 2000”, despite the increase in funding for Primary and Secondary education by over 15% (idem, 2019, p. 3).

In conclusion, it seems to be confirmed that not only does inclusion not negatively affect achievement on behalf of anyone in the classroom, but the complete opposite is true. Thus, the key for increasing achievement across the board in all countries would seem to be by fomenting inclusive teaching practices in all education systems around the world.

2.4.4. Inclusion and CLIL

What links this inclusive age in education today and CLIL is the need for personalized teaching approaches. Given how heterogeneous schools are, “diverse teaching strategies that meet the needs of different learners” are of the utmost necessity in today’s classrooms, and if schools wish to increase achievement levels, teachers must “use a range of techniques and approaches and flexibility in teaching, curriculum and assessment to provide options for different learners” (EASNIE, 2016, p. 19), which is exactly what the CLIL methodology revolves around,

with a range of techniques and flexibility adequate for use with diverse learners¹⁸. CLIL can help to break barriers and help give all types of students access to better quality and innovative teaching, especially for disadvantaged students. Research is showing (Rascón Moreno & Bretones Callejas, 2018) that this pedagogy is allowing for truly inclusive education to take place, since it allows students from all backgrounds to enroll in these classes. In this way, CLIL can help diminish the social inequalities and allow all people to profit from education and live up to their full potential (Council of the European Union, 2011).

For his part, Marsh (2013) finds similarities between CLIL and special needs education:

The similarities between CLIL methodologies and practice, and those pioneered by leaders in special needs education and languages are considerable. In this respect, CLIL practice has been found to be not only particularly suitable for students with differing types of special education needs, but also for mainstream students (p. 72).

Pedagogical practices that focus on student-led, rather than teacher-led work, are essential to education today. In this same vein, a change must be made from separationist policies to personalization policies, the latter of which enable “deep learning” and “set high expectations for progress, participation, and success for all learners equally” (EASNIE, 2016, pp. 33-34). Moreover, personalized teaching allows for learners to practice a higher degree of autonomy. For their part, Lippman et al. (2015) argue that there are specific skills that are most likely to increase success levels in children, which are “[...] social skills; communication; and higher order thinking skills (including problem solving, critical thinking, and decision-making); supported by the intrapersonal skills of self-control and positive self-concept” (p. 5). All of these are ultimately fomented by the CLIL methodology, which revolves around a student-centered classroom and provides students with invaluable skills they need for life. In this way, CLIL is able to work, when implemented under the correct conditions, with the most disadvantaged children, for whatever reason that may be: financial, economic, or social (Pérez Cañado, 2023).

CLIL is the perfect instigator to move along the previously mentioned *2030 United Nations Agenda for Sustainable Development* (United Nations, 2015) and Nieto Moreno de Diezmas (2016) maintains that attention to diversity is a “cornerstone” in CLIL methodology (p. 40). Socially, it is inclusive, and can have a “positive impact on at-risk learner types” (Pérez Cañado, 2013, p. 18). Likewise, it is profitable and highlights the “importance of encouraging active student learning rather than a passive reception of knowledge” (Cummins, 2005, p. 108). For her

¹⁸ Cf. section 2.5. for more detail on CLIL characteristics.

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING: A QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE STUDY. CHAPTER 2 BILINGUAL EDUCATION

part, Pérez Cañado (2023) notes that research pinpoints the fact that: "CLIL programs seem to be cancelling out differences in setting, socioeconomic status, and type of school, as they are far less substantial than in non-bilingual classes" (p. 1). In this same vein, many researchers (Madrid & Barrios, 2018; Pavón Vázquez, 2018; Pérez Cañado, 2023; Rascón Moreno & Bretones Callejas, 2018; Shepherd & Ainsworth, 2017) agree: CLIL is closing the gap between advantaged and disadvantaged students.

For their part, Coyle et al. (2010) dabble upon the diverse conditions that can be found in the CLIL classroom, specifically regarding languages:

In many urban classrooms, several linguistic scenarios regularly occur or overlap: some 'newly arrived' learners may be extracted for additional language support in the main language used in the community, other groups of students who share and use a different language at home may be using that shared language for informal talk, all students may be learning a new language and some may be attending a class where they learn Science through a language such as English or Mandarin. Scenarios such as these can be an asset for both learners and teachers, provided that the linguistic and intercultural potential and demands are addressed (p. 158).

In this inclusive methodology, teachers can give more support where needed, since many of the weaker students require more assistance and adaptation strategies, both of which, as stated by Halbach (2009), "are precisely the advantages of subjects taught through English" (p. 23), making CLIL suitable for all types of learners. Even if CLIL does, the author clarifies, "hinder the progress of students with learning disabilities" (p. 23), there are remedial actions within the methodology that can be taken to solve many problems quickly, including scaffolding, peer-mentoring, alternate modes of instruction, and translanguaging, to highlight a few of the feasible and functional strategies inherent to CLIL.

Overall, the consensus is clear that CLIL will play a major part in inclusive education. This is due to several factors, one being the history of CLIL itself, says Marsh (2013): "the CLIL development trajectory has benefitted from a greater understanding of how learners with special or specific needs learn languages" (p. 71), and is thus what has conditioned CLIL to be so malleable for LL today. As Barrios Espinosa (2019) delineates, CLIL has a crucial role to play in integration and social cohesion: "it is aimed to facilitate the whole population access to quality education in foreign languages that was formerly the prerogative of the elite" (p. 5).

However, it remains critical, emphasizes Marsh (2013), that how learners with different capabilities, aptitudes and abilities learn successfully is thoroughly researched if CLIL is to continue to fit the bill for bilingual education in Europe. It was first pondered if CLIL truly could cater to the diverse learners and, simultaneously, when it was recognized that all types of

students can have problems with LL, even so-called overachievers. This, in turn, opened dialogue related to diversity, ability, and achievement. Undoubtedly, CLIL has come a long way in the past two decades and is well on its journey to ensuring quality education for all, but only under the condition of a continued emphasis on inclusion can it be assured sustainability. As Cross (2022) acknowledges, CLIL is the best option we have to “achieve a more level playing field for learners” (p. 194).

2.4.5. Quality practices in inclusive education

When it comes to good practices, they are absolutely fundamental if inclusive education is to be both functional and sustainable, more so than any other remedial action. Florian et al. (2016) argue that it may rely only on the *quality* and no other factor: “from the point of view of the educational achievement of children and young people identified with special or additional needs, it has been argued that it is the quality of provision, rather than whether it takes place in a mainstream or a special school, that really matters” (p. 11). The authors (2016) argue that an effective school will not only focus on helping the majority succeed, but will “actively seek to protect the educational needs of those children and young people who are most vulnerable and marginalized” (p. 14).

There are several factors which can influence, positively or negatively, inclusive education practices, three of them being teacher attitudes, pedagogical strategies, and the curriculum (British Council, 2012; Fields, 2017; UNESCO, 2017). For its part, the British Council (2012) insists that, at a minimum, teachers should try to avoid “poor materials, misunderstandings, lack of communication, inappropriate teaching methods, poor or insufficient planning, and an unsuitable classroom environment” (p. 46). Inside the classroom, the layout itself is crucial: some students may benefit from sitting closer to the teacher and the classroom space should facilitate pair and group work to the greatest degree possible, conducive of an overall atmosphere of harmonious, collaborative learning. Ensuring the seats are placed “accordingly to accommodate diversity and provide equal opportunities for all learners” is important so no learners are ostracized or isolated, inviting all to feel welcome and like an integral part of the class (British Council, 2012, p. 46). Similarly, Roiha (2014) advocates for the use of flexible grouping, since it works both to improve the academic performance of the students and helps teachers manage their class more effectively. UNESCO (2016) points out that interest in cooperative work in the Western world has led to many great methodologies (such as project- and task-based learning), but this governing body warns that effective work can come in a variety of forms but in order to be truly inclusive and fomenting of good practices, a key feature of group work must be “the completion of the task necessitates the active participation of all individuals within a working group and that one member of the group cannot succeed without the success of others” (p. 140).

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING: A QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE STUDY. CHAPTER 2 BILINGUAL EDUCATION

As it is inherent to any inclusive methodology, collaborative work must be very carefully planned and monitored (UNESCO, 2016), and *positive interdependence* must be regarded as the most important element to consider when it comes to task and project design, ensuring that the project requires all members of a group to be connected to the product and share responsibility for the outcome: "all members of a group feel connected to each other in the accomplishment of a common goal, such that all individuals have to succeed for the group to succeed" (idem, 2016, p. 140). This is connected with "individual accountability" or holding all members of a group responsible for the outcome and learning objectives, to ensure that learning is taking place in a homogeneous matter, and not being monopolized by the higher-achieving students. The governing body UNESCO (2016) shares ways to ensure that accountability is taking place by individual members of the class and to avoid group work in which students contribute unfairly or unequally. This can happen by distributing materials to separate members of a group so that the work cannot be completed without everyone's input. Individual members can be given roles for a specific project or task, such as "chairperson, recorder, summarizer, reporter" (p. 141). Teachers should also keep in mind that, in addition to academic and content objectives, collaborative skills should be taught and assessed, and, as such, collaborative work should be given explicit focus in class and worked on in a "gradual fashion" (p. 141).

In this same vein, the importance of "suitable physical environments" inside and out is highlighted by Mitchell (2018), who argues that "children learn better within an emotionally safe and predictable environment that is motivating and promotes positive goal-setting" (p. 81). Not only are these classrooms more productive, but the author also argues that welcoming classrooms "help considerably to narrow the achievement gap" (idem, 2018, p. 81). According to him, there are three features of a *positive* classroom: "positive relationships; personal development; and system maintenance" (p. 81). The British Council (2012) warn that the classroom can either be facilitative of learning or can hinder it completely, which is why teachers must ensure their teaching is congruent with supportive classrooms to give students a sense of security. The environment where students learn must be a safe area where they feel they can trust the teacher. Similarly, there must be an environment of awareness and tolerance so that all children feel cared for and loved (Marsh, 2013). Teachers must be absolutely certain they are fostering a sense of community and integration amongst the students (UNESCO, 2016) and should constantly take stock of their attitudes as well as the classroom setting to ponder if these are encouraging learning to the fullest degree.

Schools can either be a positive or negative influence on students' well-being and sense of belonging. The reality, as Scanlan (2011) puts forth, is that they "can be welcoming and liberating", but "they can also be alienating and confining" (p. 5), especially in the case of the

minority and foreign students. There are several factors that may make the difference between the former and the latter, including vision, classroom climate, organizational structures, and roles of leader (Scanlan, 2011). In this same vein, cooperation between students should be fomented consistently throughout the year, taking students from a "me" to "we" attitude: "research shows the potential of approaches that encourage cooperation between students for creating classroom conditions that can both maximize participation, whilst at the same time achieving high standards of learning for all members of a class" (UNESCO, 2020, p. 28).

Along with the seating and classroom environment, the displays and posters must also be given ample consideration, since these can either motivate the students when new and inspiring displays are put up frequently, or the opposite, if the décor becomes repetitive and is the same month after month. To avoid the latter, students should be encouraged to design and create products that can be displayed, since ultimately, students "often remember things they have touched and constructed [...]" (UNESCO, 2017, p. 46).

Multimodal instruction is a pillar for any inclusive methodology, and has the power to ensure that the content is being assimilated by the highest percentage of students in the class as possible (e.g. Fields, 2017; Marsh, 2013; Tomlinson, 2017; Willingham, 2010). This includes using various modes to learning, especially important for catering to learner variance, as Marsh (2013) puts forth: "one basic premise is that teaching and learning should be multi-mode and multi-variant so that auditory, visual, kinesthetic, social and emotional, and mega-cognitive interests and needs are met" (p. 80). In addition to multimodal instruction, focusing on a wider range of skills, and nurturing inquisitive, participative, and motivated students is essential to the inclusion process (EASNIE, 2016, pp. 60-1). For her part, Tomlinson (2017) advocates using a variety of "avenues" to learning, since students, like all humans, learn in different ways. Teachers should look to give students the possibility to manipulate and use the content for themselves in as many diverse ways as possible, providing the students with various options so no student will feel confined or limited by their ability, or lack thereof. The same author argues that teachers must be willing to change course and eliminate traditional methodologies from the classroom, which can be done by "challenging conventional wisdom about how we do school" (p. 26). Teachers who use alternative modes of instruction that model challenges are also more likely to help students overcome barriers and progress in their learning (OECDc, 2019).

Another factor that can be either damaging or beneficial to diversity practices are the textbooks and materials used: they can positively add to the class, depending on their use and content, but may be unstimulating and ineffective if outdated and not updated frequently. The British Council (2012), along with other researchers (e.g. Coyle et al., 2010; Klapper, 1996; Marsh, 2006; Pérez-Vidal, 2009), insist in the use of visual materials, especially when it comes to catering

to diversity. This is because visual resources are a pillar in the CLIL methodology and fundamental for any sound inclusive education by providing “[...] visual clues to the accompanying text. This is helpful to all learners, especially those who have a strong visual memory; illustrations also break up text into more manageable chunks” (British Council, 2012, p. 47).

Following research concerning learners with visual disabilities, the British Council (2012) recommends certain fonts which should be given preference for material creation: Arial, Comic Sans, Sassoon, and New Century Schoolbook. They recommend size 12 or 14 font and, while sparing but informative use of bold is acceptable, italics is not advocated for due to the difficulty it may pose for some students visually. Adequate spacing between text, as well as headings and subheadings, are also emphasized to be used so as to give “signposts” to the learners” (idem, 2012, p. 47). This should be accompanied by copious amounts of visuals and good use of margins and breaks in text, or denominated *white space* (British Council, 2012; Tomlinson, 2017). Similarly, UNESCO (2016) warns that written materials must be given careful attention since not all learners in a class will be at the same reading level, especially in the L2, and thus, selection of materials should be done meticulously, as well as paying close attention to any students that might be experiencing difficulties with the material and providing the students with examples of how to seek help if they need it.

There are a number of remedial activities in the classroom that have been promoted by researchers and educators alike, touted as playing a fundamental role in the furthering of comprehension in disabled, disadvantaged, or disenfranchised students. Some activities, as proposed by varying authors (Fields, 2017; Hughes & Madrid, 2019; Julius & Madrid, 2017; Madrid & Pérez Cañado, 2018; Mitchell, 2018; Ortega Martín, 2017; Tomlinson, 2017), should be regularly used in the classroom to better attend to learner variance:

- Use of motivation and encouragement;
- downplaying of mistakes;
- use of audiovisual material, manipulatives and realia;
- integrated use of ICTs;
- constant, constructive feedback;
- visual representations of the content with photos, videos, summaries, images, diagrams;
- student choice in activity completion and product creation; and
- use of play and fun.

The importance of letting students think outside of the box and establish their own learning trajectories and finalities should not be underemphasized (Tomlinson, 2017). Some students may not know what their future holds, nor are they optimistic about higher education

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING: A QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE STUDY. CHAPTER 2 BILINGUAL EDUCATION

or job opportunities, which is why every student must be encouraged to set personal goals for themselves. There should not be a singular focus on going on to university, as some students do not have this option and should not think of other options as failure; instead, they should work together with the teacher to figure out what they wish to do in life and how they can get there together (idem, 2017).

Quality assessment practices is another foundational piece to inclusive teaching practices, as emphasized by Madrid and Pérez Cañado (2018):

All learners, including those with SEN, achieve more when systematic monitoring, assessment, planning and evaluation is applied to their work. There must be continual and consistent evaluation to see if and how the content has been understood or if anything has been misunderstood (p. 8).

This is in line with what Tomlinson (2017) denotes as *readiness*, or probing students' understanding before and during a unit or content point, with a view to personally assess each student and their individual progress or stagnation. In this way, assessment can be used to constantly revise each student individually with an aim to ensure they are engaging correctly with the content, and not waiting until a final exam to find out if a student was not comprehending. This aligns with what EASNIE (2016) advocates for: the use of clear goals, mentoring, use of summaries, as well as regularly checking in with students. There should be strategies recommended to students in terms of independent or group studying, self-evaluations, creation of goals, and formative feedback.

Assessment, states UNESCO (2016), must be utilized as a way to encourage learning by providing "constructive" feedback on the work they are completing (p. 162). Assessment should be viewed as an integral part of the class, that is done consistently throughout classes and not "a one-off event" (p. 162) that happens every once and a while:

This means that assessment becomes a continuous process, which involves reflecting upon and interpreting events and activities in the classroom as they happen. More than anything else, therefore, assessment requires an attitude of mind that seeks out relevant information and responds to events as they occur (idem, 2016, p. 162).

Rather than see this as overwhelming and unmanageable, it simply means rethinking what is required of teachers as evaluators. Thus, the key component of any quality, inclusive assessment process is "an attitude of mind" (UNESCO, 2016, p. 162). This can be done by the daily interactions had with students, finding out what they already know (via *readiness*) and what they are learning. In this same vein, classroom observations are fundamental to monitor and assess student progress in a systematic but relaxed way. Questions that teachers can ask

themselves include pondering how progress can be noted as having been made; how student progress can be judged as decreasing, maintaining, or increasing; and how students will know what they are working towards (idem, 2016).

Likewise, grade recording practices are recommended as a way to keep the class inclusive (Tomlinson, 2017; UNESCO, 2016). Students should be in sync with the status of their grades at all times and there should be open, honest, direct communication with teacher and students about expected outcomes related to class-work, activities, and projects. Tomlinson (2017) says teachers should ensure everything a student does counts towards their grade, but grade-keeping should also be done by students, who should be charged with the task of tracking their progress in an autonomous way. Overall, grades should be something that students feel they have control over and not just serve as arbitrary numbers, especially considering that constructive feedback is more important than numerical figures and students should feel like they have a responsibility when it comes to grade documentation.

Students must be autonomous, says Mitchell (2018), and teachers should show students that education is not something that teachers enact upon to children, but students must realize that they are responsible for managing their own learning developments. The same author (2018) explains how technology has played a part in this paradigm shift: "they learn from their experiences, select what they attend to and work 'rules of the game' [...] with the ubiquitous Internet, children are independently choosing what, how and from whom to learn" (p. 90). In this same vein, autonomous learning, says Marsh (2013) is "fundamental to good practice in both special needs provision and CLIL" (p. 81). Assessment, chime in Ganschow et al. (1998), is another way to cater to students with problems in the FL: "in some cases, FL teachers could evaluate the student on his or her skill in listening to and speaking, but not reading and writing (or vice versa), the FL, or make allowances for spelling" (p. 253). Instead of focusing solely on learners' academic results, EASNIE (2016) proposes that teachers' concentrate on the students' "quality" of experience in the classroom, including their "presence and participation" as opposed to solely concentrating on the final outcome (p. 11).

Marsh (2013) makes the argument for the incorporation of several *vintage* approaches from the 90s in modern-day teaching to tailor classroom practice to the diverse students in the classroom, such as *multiple intelligences* (Gardner, 1999), *cognitive processes taxonomies* (Anderson & Krathwohl, 2001; Bloom, 1956), and *learning skills* (Van Lier, 1996). Intrigue and motivation also play momentous roles in students' achievements, which is why Tomlinson (2017) advocates for the use of lessons that have been designed to be engaging and interesting for all students by creating more *natural* learning experiences containing "problems, issues, dilemmas, and unknowns that require them to use more of what they have learned and are trying to learn"

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING: A QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE STUDY. CHAPTER 2 BILINGUAL EDUCATION

(p. 42). For their part, authors Ganschow et al. (1998) recommend a “continuum of interventions” to support students that have trouble learning a FL: “offering untimed tests, slowing the slowing the pace of verbal instruction, and pairing oral language in the FL with visual example; use of tutorial support; and separate course placement with intensive focus on the structure of the native language” (p. 253).

There are eight inclusion markers that can help guide an educator and school towards a more inclusive education, as put forth by UNESCO (2016). They include (p. 67):

- making everyone feel welcome;
- valuing students’ participation equally;
- keeping high expectations for all;
- an environment of respect between teachers and students;
- an atmosphere of collaboration between teachers and families;
- accessibility to facilities;
- teachers feel supported in their endeavor; and,
- monitoring of all students’ attendance, contribution and outcomes at school.

The British Council (2012) have published a guide to share experiences from around the globe concerned with special needs and the attitudes surrounding them. These *Guidelines for Inclusion and Diversity in Schools* are promoted as a way to compile real teaching strategies used in grassroots classrooms as a way to share characteristics of successful inclusive classrooms. Many teachers commented on their experiences after working with all types of disadvantaged children with a wide range of disabilities from dyslexia to Down Syndrome. The comments included the importance of:

- Routine and open dialogue with parents.
- Using team strategies.
- Taking into account the needs and reactions of other students.
- Having patience.
- Fostering an “I can” attitude in the students.
- Using peer support and personal connections in the classroom.
- Using differentiation techniques.
- Explaining the activities, their purpose and finality beforehand.
- Ensuring all students can see and hear everyone in the class.
- Presenting information in an assortment of ways.
- Employing quality communication strategies to evade confusion.

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING: A QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE STUDY. CHAPTER 2 BILINGUAL EDUCATION

Per the guide (2012), communication is a healthy element of inclusive education, and teachers must exercise caution in the kind of language they use with their students, emphasizing the importance of direct, honest communication between teachers and parents, as well as open communication between the teacher and the other students in the class. The relationship SEN students have with their peers is touted as crucial for their success in the classroom. Furthermore, priority should be given to creating an atmosphere of collaboration and teamwork with unity and integration: going from a “me” perspective to a “we” perspective by having the students take interest in their classmates’ success in addition to their own (idem, 2012; Fields, 2017).

Teachers can begin adapting their classes directly with their language, by becoming more critical and conscious of their spoken language, speaking slower and clearer, as well as working to ensure that they are utilizing an adequate volume and exaggerated pronunciation (Hughes & Madrid, 2019; Madrid, 2004; Madrid & Pérez Cañado, 2018; Ortega Martín). Educators are the model in the classroom and, as the British Council (2012) reminds us, “good communication is important to avoid misunderstandings that could lead to bad behaviour” (p. 48). It is the *pedagogical tact* (Forghani et al., 2019, referencing Herbart, 1802) that truly separates a teacher who foments inclusive practices contrasted to one who may be aggravating dissension. According to the previously mentioned guide (2012), positive communication is:

- using simple words;
- calling students by their first names;
- speaking slowly;
- using a varied tone;
- praising good behavior;
- using humor;
- giving clear instructions;
- reflecting on and clarifying statements when necessary;
- avoiding judgment;
- using the first person;
- summarizing;
- maintaining eye contact;
- leaning towards speakers;
- smiling;
- nodding the head;
- using touch and praise; and,
- using facial expressions.

Pedagogical strategies must be fine-tuned since challenged students will be more likely to succeed if the teacher is employing adequate teaching strategies that cater to different learning styles. For her part, Tomlinson (2014) explains that when it comes to differentiation, all students should see the same content, but in different degrees of complexity depending on how able they are. For any productions asked of the students, some should be expected to produce more complex products than others. Likewise, more scaffolding can be provided to those that need it and more complex activities to others. Personalized learning is "designed around an individual learner's readiness, strength, needs and interest [...]" (Mitchell, 2018, p. 92). In this same vein, Mitchell (2018) recommends the use of "memory strategies instruction", taken from Bloom (1987). This is due to the fact that "learners will retain 10% of what they read, 20% of what they hear, 30% of what they see, 50% of what they see and hear, 70% of what they say, and 90% of what they say and do" (p. 71). Furthermore, "memory is by far the most important capacity possessed by humans and must be nurtured in all learners" (p. 71). In this way, routines are recommended as well as explanations of the why for activities and "clear achievable objectives, so learners know what is expected from them" (British Council, 2012, p. 46). Many students fail to achieve objectives simply because they are unclear, ill-defined, or ambiguous.

Teachers' expectations of students can also be a very powerful mechanism in fomenting an inclusive classroom. Setting high but realistic standards is crucial for students to know that they are expected to succeed, coupled with the knowledge that they will be helped along the way (British Council, 2012; Fields, 2017; Forghani-Arani et al., 2019; Mitchell, 2018; Tomlinson, 2017; Willingham, 2010). This is important since students, after repeated failures, may reject "the notion that they are capable of learning" and this will only be exacerbated if their teachers and parents "have similarly low expectations for their performances" (Mitchell, 2018, p. 65). A study conducted by Rosenthal and Jacobsen (1968) found that when teachers were led to believe that certain students were more gifted than others, as the increased expectations of the teachers led to increased performance on behalf of the students. Some teachers may be inclined to have low expectations for certain children simply based on cultural and social perceptions, especially when it comes to low-SES, certain ethnicities, minorities, genders, or religions. Teachers should look to focus on students' abilities and what they are capable of, contrasted with emphasizing their "shortcomings" (Forghani-Arani et al., 2019, p. 23). Therefore, teachers should:

Believe all students can learn and convey to them that they have the ability to master essential learning outcomes; constantly strive to raise the expectations of learners and their parents; help learners accept that achievement results from effort, as much as from ability; help learners develop strong beliefs in their own ability; and set clear and consistent expectations for student behaviour in class and in the larger school setting (Mitchell, 2018, p. 65).

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING: A QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE STUDY. CHAPTER 2 BILINGUAL EDUCATION

This belief goes hand in hand with fomenting a growth mindset in students. Teachers should consistently convey to their students that they are capable of achieving high outcomes, by being constant in their provision of constructive, timely, continual feedback to students, which in turn, will promote a classroom atmosphere that encourages growth versus fixed mindset, allowing and supporting students to experiment, take chances, and believe in themselves (Dweck, 2017). The OECDc (2019) draws attention to how growth mindset is fomented, not by rewarding “effortless ability”, but by emphasizing and acknowledging challenging learning (p. 33). Teachers should consistently convey to students that making mistakes is a pillar to the learning process (idem, 2019). Core qualities that should be fomented in class include “openness, questioning, inventiveness, persistence, emotional stability, generosity, empathy” (idem, p. 37). Overall, it is the way that teachers relate to their students that will help develop students that believe in a growth versus fixed mindset:

Good quality teachers not only contribute to raising students’ achievement but provide supportive environments that foster students’ social and emotional development. The index of teacher support is the index of teaching practices the most highly associated with the development of students’ growth mindset. This association suggests that when educators provide steady support to their students, it establishes a safe learning environment conducive to growth mindset development (OECDc, 2019, p. 38).

For their part, Madrid and Pérez Cañado (2018) indicate that general adaptation methods employed by schools as an attempt to attend to diversity, most of which are fairly basic methods, fall flat of making any real difference; methods such as grade repetition, adapted curriculums, and specialized programs. While good intentions may be had, many of these conventional remedial actions fail to make any substantial, long-lasting changes because they do not truly go inside the classroom and attend to the varying degrees of motivation, language competences, content knowledge, and backgrounds that each student brings with them. Therefore, if schools are to truly succeed in their endeavor to become inclusive, practices that really attend to different variables must be given priority as opposed to broad, vague guidelines.

Regarding one remedial measure in particular, grade repetition, one of the main remedial actions education systems take in the case of students who have not achieved the minimum standards, Hattie (2009) argues against it, since there is limited research that shows this affects achievement positively. She criticizes grade repetition since it seems that the “threat” of repetition does not actually motivate students to work harder, but on the contrary, leads to higher drop-out rates. As an alternative to this, Mitchell (2018) advocates for “policies that help students stay on track academically”, since these not only help to reduce drop-out rates but “also enhance the positive behavior of other students in the grade” (p. 27). On a European level, per a study by

Ikeda and Garcia (2014), Spain had the third largest percentage of students repeating grades (35.4%), close to triple the OECD average (13%).

Noticeably absent from this section is the suggestion for a reduction in class size. This is due to the fact that reduction in class size is not inherently linked to better inclusive learning. For his part, Mitchell (2018) does not consider a diminution in class size to be an automatic change for the better since, despite what parents and teachers might assume, arguing that a smaller number of students does not always allow nor inspire all teachers to focus more on their individual students. The reality, the author warns, is that there is no automatic response on the teacher's behalf when the number of students is reduced, but teachers tend to utilize the same teaching methods regardless of class size and do not necessarily take advantage of the number of students present, hence why changes to teaching methods is preferred. Similarly, UNESCO (2016) reverberates on this sentiment, also highlighting that an increased class size offers the opportunity for "more potential resources" (p. 140).

The Center for Applied Special Techniques¹⁹ (CAST) has created the *Universal Design for Learning* (UDL) framework that centers around improving and optimizing teaching and learning based on scientific research into how the human brain works. This framework is supported by many as being an effective and sound practice for inclusion, including the previously mentioned Spanish legislation (LOMLOE, 2021). The research, technology, and science found by those at CAST prove there is vast variety when it comes to the brain, and no two are the same. By recognizing, acknowledging, and accepting that all learners are different in many ways and taking into consideration learner background and experience, educators are taking a step forward: accepting individualities in the classroom, preparing lessons attuned to variance, and celebrating diversity as the enricher of education. These teachers, who foster and applaud learner variance, are able to appreciate each student for their uniqueness. Currently, UDL is undergoing extensive changes and the guidelines regarding it are being updated to help break down the barriers that lead to discriminatory teaching and learning opportunities. Universal design has also been heralded as being of particular importance, when creating schools that are welcoming and accepting of all learners, recognized by Scanlan (2011) as a process that is able to:

Anticipate the need to differentiate curriculum and instruction to meet students' special needs. This approach to service delivery maximizes access to the core curriculum by ensuring that students spend as much time as possible integrated with their grade-level peers. It also builds the capacity

¹⁹ <http://www.cast.org>

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING: A QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE STUDY. CHAPTER 2 BILINGUAL EDUCATION

of classroom teachers to meet the diverse needs of all learners within their classrooms (p. 7, referencing Sailor & Roger, 2005).

UNESCO (2016) has a three-prong documentation focused on training tools for curricular development and inclusion, the second and the third being more focused on grassroots implementation, and the first being more theoretical. By using evidence and research, the guide hopes to support inclusive education endeavors around the world. The guide comes with eight workshops:

1. Teaching planned with all students in mind.
2. Lessons that encourage the participation of all students.
3. Students are actively involved in their own learning.
4. Students are encouraged to support one another's learning.
5. Support is provided when students experience difficulties.
6. Classroom discipline is based on mutual respect and healthy living.
7. Students feel that they have somebody to speak to when they are worried or upset.
8. Assessment contributes to the achievement of all students.

The guide suggests that colleagues and schools go through the workshops together and come with an open mind, remaining open to ideas that may seem "strange or unrealistic" (UNESCO, 2016, p. 118). This is because discussion about unusual ideas helps teachers broaden their minds and allow for more creative, innovative teaching. The guide is centered around educators asking themselves how they should teach, simultaneously, the whole class, while making each student feel valued as an individual. This can be done, the guide puts forth, through several strategies: "setting individual tasks, giving students choices, encouraging joint effort, varied materials, getting to know parents, small group work, listening to individuals, recording progress" (idem, 2016, p. 120). The document emphasizes the need to eliminate the belief that there is a way to "systematically replicate" methods in all contexts, especially considering marginalized or excluded populations and instead of focusing on "quick-fix" methods, contemplating, as an educator, the reason why some students fail to learn successfully can be more helpful to guide lesson preparation (idem, p. 121).

Similarly, Yale University's Poorvu Center for Teaching and Learning²⁰ (Yale University, 2017) has a website dedicated entirely to diversity and inclusion. The authors mention that a methodology that caters to diversity should look for open communication between teacher and students, and likewise, teachers should take into account the different factors that differentiate students from one another, such as SES and race. The University gives seven principles for leading a classroom that attends to diversity and inclusion:

1. Awareness of socioeconomic diversity;
2. awareness of implicit biases;
3. use of diversity statements;
4. fomenting of inclusive classroom climate;
5. fomenting of inclusive teaching strategies;
6. awareness of race; and
7. learning of students' names.

For the first principle, the University acknowledges that SES can have a lasting effect on a students' academic well-being or lack thereof. It is adverted that while race and gender are obvious to the eye, socioeconomic status may not be something that is immediately clear, and teachers may be prone to judge a student by a perceived SES. This is why teachers should always include implement teaching methodologies so as to engage all students and give them the opportunity to succeed, their background notwithstanding.

For second point, *awareness of implicit bias*, being conscious of the attitudes and thoughts that one may have unconsciously towards a group of people, such as reactions, stereotypes, and understandings, must be contemplated by teachers. This is seen in attitudes towards students regarding beliefs about studying a certain way, practicing a certain religion, or speaking specifically because a student comes from a particular country or background, among other reasons. This implicit bias can lead teachers to believe some of their students are able to succeed and others are not, which can be very harmful for students. A teacher might assume that because a student fits a certain profile or belongs to a certain SES level, he or she might inherently have different capabilities or abilities. Teachers can even be prejudiced to think that

²⁰ <https://poorvucenter.yale.edu>

because a student looks a certain way, he or she might accept low achievement as fact and not be motivated to try to improve. The University warns that teachers can be prone to assume that students with specific accents have poor written competence, as well as notifying the danger of assuming that students with poor written abilities also have lower intellectual capacity. Demographic representations of cultures are also forewarned, as textbooks, books and historical accounts can represent certain ethnicities, religions, and the like stereotypically. To counter these implicit biases, the University recommends the use of reflective teaching with a view for teachers to scrutinize their teaching methods and their implicit biases. Project Implicit is recommended for use for teachers based on an IAT (Implicit Association Test)²¹. This project can help teachers gain insight into their implicit biases on a range of topics including: Arab-Muslims, disabilities, skin-tones, gender, Asians, religions, ages, sexualities, races, gender-sciences, transgender, weapons, and weight. Fillmore and Snow (2000) resound on this, declaring: "teachers' judgments can have enormous consequences for children's lives -from the daily judgements and responses that affect students' sense of themselves as learners to the weightier decisions about reading group placement, promotion, or referral for evaluation" (p. 8). Ultimately, how teachers treat and view students, and how they convey their beliefs to them, has a major influence on learners' success, or failure, in their academic endeavor, which is why teachers must be completely transparent in their treatment of students.

For the third point, the University recommends the use of a diversity statement, which that declares the tolerance and acceptance of humans as they are by the school or a teacher. This statement should be preferably displayed in the classroom and, in this way, would allow students to appreciate for themselves that all students are welcomed.

The University also makes mention of *stereotype threat*, referencing Spencer and Castano (2007), as something teachers should be conscious of. Teachers should avoid generalizations and assumptions, or the stereotyping of students based on SES, race, gender, and the like: "stereotype threat effects occur when members of a stigmatized group perform poorly on a task because they fear confirming a negative stereotype that is associated with their in-group" (idem, 2007, p. 418). Stereotype threat is a challenging topic, and can even affect girls' and boys' achievement, based on preconceived notions about subject mastery²². In this way, teachers have a very powerful role to play when it comes to positive mindset. Many disadvantaged or challenged

²¹ <https://implicit.harvard.edu/implicit/takeatest.html>

²² Cf. section 3.6. for research on stereotype threat.

students have spent years believing they are incompetent and could even be performing in a subpar manner due to the belief that they are predestined for failure.

Inclusive teaching strategies, as recommended by the University, include reflective thinking on the teacher's behalf, asking questions of themselves such as:

- Why do some students participate more (and why do some participate more often than others)?
- Why do some students learn more easily than their peers?
- How or why might a student's background or identity affect how much they participate?
- How can classes be designed that might inspire participation from all students?

Finally, the last point, learning students' names, is something that may seem insignificant but can actually be very impactful, per the University and reverberated by other authors (British Council, 2012; Fields, 2017; Tomlinson, 2017; UNESCO, 2016). Before concerning themselves about teaching content, teachers should ensure that they know the students' names, since this seemingly trivial detail is known to foster a greater sense of implication on the students' part, while also allowing them to feel they are being seen and heard. If teachers do not learn students' names or, along those same lines, do not pronounce them properly, they are prone to creating a sense of isolation in the students. Thus, educators should make it a priority at the beginning of every academic year to learn students' names, nicknames, and the correct pronunciation so students feel included.

Undoubtedly, essential to good teaching practices are the teacher training schemes, since teachers are the grassroots implementers of these practices and, ultimately, teachers are the ones who will or will not make a difference in the classrooms. After all, teachers are responsible for the environment they create, but the unfortunate reality is that "[...] there are teachers who do not introduce any type of adaptation into their classrooms", as highlighted by Madrid and Pérez Cañado (2018, p. 243). Unfortunately, the overall conclusion is that educators are vastly undertrained in the area of diversity and not equipped to deal with special needs in their classrooms. Marsh (2013) notes that there is *tension* arising in this inclusion movement, as many are unfamiliar with it and, as such, have doubts, suspicions, fears, or worse, most of which the author attributes to a lack of information: "this tension is noted in relation to shifting focus from special to mainstream schools, and moving more educational responsibilities from special to mainstream teachers" (p. 79). However, despite this "added difficulty", inclusion, diversity and achievement are challenges that "must be met head on", noting that these perceived hardships should be seen "not so much a problem as an opportunity" (idem, 2013, p. 74).

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING: A QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE STUDY. CHAPTER 2 BILINGUAL EDUCATION

Emphasizing what we can take away from other contexts, Marsh (2013) underlines what sound, inclusive education looks like in certain countries that have managed renovate their education systems in the past decade. These countries know that “quality of teaching leading to enriched learning environments, equity of access, and relevance of both methodologies and content, are key drivers for achieving high quality results across a wide spectrum of school populations” (p. 133). The same author puts forth Singapore, South Korea, Canada, Germany, England, Latvia, and Lithuania as examples of countries which have managed to do this, all of which have included certain features in their education systems, such as “peer-led learning for teachers and principals involving collaborative practice, decentralizing of pedagogical rights to schools and teachers, the creation of additional support mechanisms for educators, supporting system-sponsored experimentation, and innovation across schools” (p. 133).

Ultimately, “every learner matters and matters equally” (UNESCO, 2017, p. 12) and good teaching practices are the key to making inclusive, sustainable education become a reality in years to come. Teachers must be lifelong learners themselves and willing to challenge any preconceived notions they may have about learning and what is (dis)ability. For their part, Forghani-Arani et al. (2019) contest that possibly the most decisive factor for quality education is the teacher. Charged with this singularly important role, educators must truly be wholly committed to career-long training. This new era of inclusive education comes with a rethinking of what role teachers are to play and expectations for learning. Furthermore, teachers must hold themselves to the highest standards and continually adapt and renovate their practices and mindset to be as inclusive as possible. As UNESCO (2016) delineates,

Inclusion has to be seen as a never-ending search to find better ways of responding to student diversity. It is about learning how to live with differences and learning how to learn from difference. In this way, differences come to be seen more positively as a stimulus for fostering learning among children and adults (p. 46).

Fortunately, this era also has a solution for LL in the form of CLIL, and the personalization that it allows for, to make LL inclusive for diverse learners, cannot be undermined. Hüttner and Smit (2014) argue “that we are in fact, in a post-method era, where we can no longer assume that one size – or teaching method – fits all” (p. 163), which is why CLIL has stepped in to take on this challenge of inclusive LL. Marsh (2013) echoes this sentiment: “it is fundamentally misleading to think about a single mind, a single intelligence, a single problem-solving capacity” (p. 82, referencing Gardner, 1999), a statement, which, fortunately, is now accepted as mainstream and is what has led to the CLIL momentum.

Following this important delineation of inclusion, disability and where we stand on making education more inclusive for the 21st century, a complete analysis of CLIL will be detailed, including definitions, specific characteristics, fundamental features, methodology, and objectives.

2.5. CLIL

2.5.1. Definitions and characteristics

Since the 1990s, CLIL has come on the scene as a way “to upgrade foreign language proficiency in Europe and to achieve sustainable learning outcomes, in line with the European Commission’s 1995 mandate for EU citizens to be proficient in three European languages (*the mother tongue + two objective*)” (Pérez Cañado, 2021b, p. 32). CLIL is gaining traction and recognition because of the demanding expectations put forth by the European Union and its “desire to become the most competitive knowledge-based economy in the world” (idem, 2021b p. 33). Pedagogies like CLIL help students become more prepared internationally, better suited for EU integration, for academic or working purposes, and foment, overall, the creation of lifelong learners. When students have been prepared in a content and language integrated setting, it “results in increased employability” and primes “individuals for the linguistic and cultural demands of an increasingly integrated and mobile Europe” (idem, 2021b, p. 33). As Marsh et al. (2020) put forth succinctly, “successful language learning can be achieved through a blend of opportunities for language acquisition and language learning”, which is exactly what CLIL aims to do (p. 5).

While commenting on the characteristics of CLIL, the very *umbrella* nature of the term should be kept in mind; many authors highlight the fact that CLIL implementation is extremely varied (Cenoz, 2009; Coyle, 2010; Coyle et al., 2010; Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2009; Pérez Cañado, 2012; Somers, 2017; Wolff, 2006). There has been extensive discussion on what makes CLIL different from other methods of bilingual education and Marsh (2006) argues that more than 20 different educational approaches can be categorized as CLIL. Cenoz et al. (2014) elaborate on the *umbrella* term, denominated this way since it “encompasses a wide variety of approaches and strains” (p. 4). Likewise, Pérez Cañado (2016b) states “a veritable plethora of methods can be identified within CLIL” (p. 2). For his part, Somers (2017) defines CLIL with the same Eurydice (2006) definition: “a generic term to describe all types of provision in which a second language (a foreign, regional or minority language and/or another official state language) is used to teach certain subjects in the curriculum other than language lessons themselves” (p. 8). Morton (2023) classifies CLIL as a “contextual phenomenon” and explains that CLIL has evolved “from being an educational approach to language education to being a pedagogical proposal for enhancing learning across the curriculum” (p. 531).

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING: A QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE STUDY. CHAPTER 2 BILINGUAL EDUCATION

Currently, there are many different interpretations of what CLIL is and what it encapsulates in terms of bilingual education. Ambiguity around CLIL is a cause for criticism since its "lack of exact limits or terminological clarity" lead it to be associated with CBI or immersion (Rascón Moreno & Casas Pedrosa, 2021, p. 11). Categorizing CLIL as CBI is also Graham et al. (2018) who attest that while some differences are impossible to deny, the similarities are much more important. CLIL, argues Aquino Sterling (2021), is most similar to "U.S. Sheltered Content Area Instruction – and Structured English Immersion". However, the author notes that CLIL in Europe is very distinct and "U.S. bilingual program labels and categorisations are insufficient for grasping or characterising the complex nature of the CLIL European-Spanish bilingual tradition" (pp. 187-188). He expands on this: "even though CLIL and CBI teacher knowledge and competencies have much in common, the performance and implementation of these language and content pedagogies could and at times do serve different educational purposes" (p. 188). CLIL, says the same author, "goes beyond the teaching and learning of English through the disciplines. CLIL's sphere expands to greater personal, academic, and social purposes for the thousands of students who are learning through this medium" (p. 188) and he points out that in the U.S.A., FL teachers are not required to use scaffolding in their methodology like they are in Spain. Fernández Sanjurjo et al. (2019) claim that "CLIL is now a European label for bilingual education" (p. 28).

The most common definition of CLIL is a "dual-focused educational approach in which an additional language is used for the learning and teaching of both content and language" (Coyle et al. 2010, p. 1). This explanation, albeit the most common, has also been criticized for leading to uncertainty, since it is anything but specific (Alejo & Piquer, 2010; Cenoz et al., 2014; Coyle, 2008; Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2009). For their part, Coyle et al. (2010) define CLIL as "any learning activity where language is used as a tool to develop new learning from a subject area or theme" (p. 6). Marsh et al. (2010) eloquently detail that CLIL constitutes as any class that "seeks to two teach two subjects in one - a content subject and a language" (p. 5).

Broadly speaking, CLIL is "commonly perceived as a flexible operational framework for language instruction, with a heterogeneity of prototypical models and application options available for different contexts and pedagogical needs" (Dueñas, 2004, p. 75). Dalton-Puffer (2011) insists that CLIL shares many characteristics with other types of bilingual education: CBI and immersion education as prime examples. She suggests that deciding to call a program either immersion or CLIL "depends as much on its cultural and political frame of reference as on the actual characteristics of the program" (p. 183). For his part, Lorenzo (2007) says that "CLIL is something more than an educational need" (p. 27).

Other authors agree that it is not the focus of what it is, rather than what it is not, that is more important. Some have tried to differentiate CLIL based on the target language, but Cenoz et al. (2013) highlight that this makes for a hard argument, given the variation of definitions by assorted publications and researchers. The authors are not the first to make the call for a “clearer and more fine-tuned definition of CLIL that is pedagogically useful [since] such a flexible definition makes CLIL very broad, but arguably overly inclusive” (pp. 2-3).

Hüttner and Smit (2014) give an updated definition of CLIL, adding that this is only a way to broaden and expand the previous definitions by including a clarification of “what CLIL practices tend to entail” (p. 164). They outline it as:

An educational approach where some curricular content is additionally taught through the medium of a foreign language which is often also taught as a subject itself, typically to students participating in some form of mainstream education at the primary, secondary or tertiary level (p. 164).

The authors maintain that these distinctions made to CLIL highlight that the use of the FL does not entail “a complete change in medium; rather, the teachers and students will use the CLIL language together with the established language of education” (p. 164).

Further updated definitions of CLIL have been published: Eurydice (2012) restates the definition of CLIL almost a decade after the original definition in 1994 as “a general term to designate different types of bilingual and immersion education” (p. 137). Later, Marsh et al. (2010) expanded upon and updated it as “a dual-focused educational approach in which an additional language is used or the learning and teaching of content and language with the objective of promoting both content and language mastery to predefined levels” (p. 11). Coyle et al. (2010) emphasize that CLIL is when students use “the vehicular language to learn content other than grammatical form” (p. 33).

As Muñoz (2007) pinpoints, CLIL does not have the same aim as bilingual education, where the desired end result is native-like fluency, such as in the case in Canada or the U.S.A. CLIL, on the contrary, looks to give learners the ability to function and manipulate the target language in a work, learning or interactive environment. Marsh (2002) points out another difference which sets CLIL apart: the fact that it gives focus to meaning. CLIL prioritizes, states Pérez Cañado (2021b), focus on form and aims for a practical, rather than native-like proficiency. CLIL also “favours the conflation of BICS and CALP and challenges the division of both concepts,

strengthening the relationship between the conceptual and communicative continua” (idem, 2021b, p. 37, referencing Cummins (1999b) BICS and CALP theory²³).

Some other highlighted differences between CLIL and bilingual education are listed by Pérez Cañado (2012, p. 318, referencing Dalton-Puffer, Nikula & Smit, 2010a; Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2010), such as the teachers’ target language level, starting age, amount of exposure to the target language, and content differences (real-life situations versus academic subjects).

As for the reason there are so many definitions in circulation, Cenoz et al. (2014) pinpoint the confusion of the term on the unnecessary focus that many have on differentiating it from other programs: “the initial and ongoing emphasis on defining CLIL in ways that distinguish it from other CBI programs has resulted in a plethora of and at times contradictory set of definitions” (p. 257).

The same authors (2014) are adamant that there is an urgent need to set a definition of CLIL that encapsulates all its diverse formats and can be understood by all. They insist that this is pivotal for the future of CLIL and warn that it is critical to establish a clear definition if this methodology is to continue to improve and evolve for the better because the abstractness renders it difficult to pinpoint and delineate what CLIL implementation looks like. Dalton-Puffer (2011) argues that the definition of CLIL must be considered “programmatic rather than factual” (p. 194).

There has been sustained debate about the classification of CLIL; Cenoz et al. (2014) classify the ways that CLIL is viewed by different authors. Two distinctions can be made: those who consider CLIL to be an “educational approach” (Ball & Lindsay, 2010; Coyle, 2002; Eurydice, 2006; Hüttner & Rieder-Bünemann, 2010; Marsh, 2008;) and those who consider CLIL in “curricular terms” (Baetens Beardsmore 2002; Langé, 2007; Navés & Victori, 2010).

Researchers agree that theory and practice are not always harmonious and the way content and language come together in class is not well-documented, because the actual integration of subject and language is a complex issue that has not been well-researched or

²³ BICS and CALP is a binary system of Basic Interpersonal and Communicative Skills (BICS) and Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP) proposed by Cummins (1999b). The former are skills needed for conversational, or informal purposes, whereas the latter deals with academic language, or more formal, contexts (as described by Madrid Fernández, Bueno González, & Ráez Padilla, 2021, p. 74).

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING: A QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE STUDY. CHAPTER 2 BILINGUAL EDUCATION

explained to instructors (Brüning & Purrmann, 2014; Cenoz, 2015; Hüttner & Smit, 2014; Linares, 2015; Mehisto, 2008; Meyer et al. 2015; Paran, 2013).

As Coyle et al. (2010) explain, "CLIL is inclusive in that it binds together the essence of good practice found in different environments where its principles have been adopted" (p. 1). They emphasize that it is almost entirely based on effective classroom practice. Another peculiar characteristic of CLIL, as noted by Wolff (2007a), is that it assumes that FLs are not learned by concentrating solely on language in the classroom; rather, it gives focus to content and subject matter which is transmitted through the target language.

On that same note, Coyle (2007b) focuses on what CLIL is by highlighting what it is not: an imitation of any other language teaching mode; a shortcut to teaching languages; a trend or fad; discriminatory. The same author also emphasizes that CLIL does not:

- jeopardize subject content;
- give heightened importance to language learning;
- teach students previous learned content;
- have bilingualism as an outcome;
- demand foreign teachers.

Authors Coyle et al. (2010) bring to light some information about the lack of CLIL manuals, given its unique appearance around Europe and the lack of a *single blueprint*. They remark: "[...] the complexities of CLIL, and particularly the importance of the context in which it is situated, demand an understanding of the why and how" (p. ix). Even more restrictive, CLIL methodology is dependent upon "the social setting of where it is located" (Madrid & Barrios, 2018, p. 30). CLIL, like education itself, looks different everywhere depending on "requirements, objectives, teachers, students, families and other stakeholders" and what works well in one location does not automatically mean it will work in another; "however, from time to time we can see how some initiatives that work particularly well in some contexts can be transferable to others" (Pavón Vázquez, 2013, p. 11).

As noted above, CLIL is distinct in that it is region-specific. There is no one-size fits all guide that can be used on a European or even a national scale. Each government, country and region must adapt CLIL to fit their individual sociolinguistic and sociocultural context. It has been commented how CLIL fluctuates from country to country (Pérez Cañado, 2012). It is "flexible and dynamic" (Coyle, 2007a, p. 3) and "comes in a wide range of shapes and sizes" (Smit, 2007, p. 3, referencing Marsh & Wolff, 2007). Wolff (2007a) insists in its elasticity since it can be assimilated in all schools and within all frameworks: primary, secondary, and tertiary and for all

different types of curricula. He maintains that “the flexibility of this approach should not be underestimated” (p. 17). However, as Pérez Cañado (2012) notes, even though CLIL programs vary greatly around the continent, there are some shared qualities in most of the programs (p. 319):

- The target language has much more of a presence;
- Many subjects are taught for at least four years in another language;
- The dual-focused education has usually ceased by the time students finish upper high school; and
- English is usually the target language (followed by French and German).

Touching upon the last point, another issue of ambiguity is the target language involved in CLIL. While some argue that CLIL is the teaching of any foreign language, be it a local, regional, or minority language (Cenoz et al., 2014; Dalton-Puffer et al. 2014; Eurydice, 2006; Nikula et al., 2013) others counter that CLIL is only the learning of a FL, excluding regional and minority languages from its jurisdiction (Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2009). Dalton-Puffer (2011) refers to the first L in the acronym, *language*; however, she claims that not any language is valid here and to think that this is the case “would be an extreme case of denial”, given that “CLIL languages are recruited from a small group of prestigious languages; and outside the English-speaking countries, the prevalence of English as CLIL medium is overwhelming” (p. 183). This has been more recently debated by several authors (e.g. Banegas, 2022; Cross, 2022; Llinares & Cross, 2022) who also see CLIL as being monopolized by the English language.

The dominance of English in CLIL programs is also a widely debated topic. English is the most sought out because it is unquestionably a lingua franca and the preferred language for most stakeholders, due to its importance, relevance, and unquestionable utility for the future: “in contrast to most other foreign languages, English is no longer seen as an additional bonus, but as relevant for advanced literacy and gaining higher professional status” (Hüttner & Smit, 2014, p. 165). Graddol (2006) amplifies this statement since English is no longer a superfluous attribute but has a status in today’s society similar to that of computing skills.

Subsequently, following this detailing of the more ambiguous part of CLIL, a more precise look will be given at its particular characteristics, including key features, the 4C’s framework, the communication aspect, a comprehensive look into the methodology, the objectives, the roles of the stakeholders, assessment, and the place of L1 in CLIL.

2.5.2. Fundamental features of CLIL

Europe’s version of Canadian and American bilingual education, CLIL, is complex. This section attempts to dismantle several aspects of CLIL, including the integration of content and

language, the learning environment where it takes place, methodology, stakeholders' roles, the 4C's framework, the objectives, and the major differences between CLIL and immersion. Six core features of CLIL are listed by Mehisto et al. (2008): multiple focus, safe and rich environment, authenticity, active learning, scaffolding, and co-operation.

Concerning the *integration*, flexibility sets it apart from other methodologies, since both content and language are present, in a flexible manner, with no inclination for either (Coyle, 2007a, 2007b). Wolff (2007a) highlights the different concept of content in CLIL, since the way it is seen is a main feature of CLIL. In this way, content is seen "from a different and broader perspective when it is taught in another language" (idem, 2007a, p. 16). CLIL does not stress either language or content; emphasis varies, depending on the time, students, material, motivation, and other factors (Marsh, 2006). Pérez Cañado (2013, referencing Coyle et al., 2010) comments on this characteristic of CLIL:

The emphasis on both teaching language and content points to the very hallmark of CLIL: the fact that it straddles these two aspects of learning, involving the fusion of previously fragmented elements of the curriculum and requiring teachers to forego their respective mindsets grounded on a single subject and to pool their skills and knowledge (p. 15).

Along similar lines, Dalton-Puffer et al. (2014) clarify the simultaneous teaching of language and content, explaining that CLIL does not happen on its own in any instance nor does it look to replace FLT; rather, CLIL and FL classes take place conjointly. CLIL classes are scheduled as content lessons and are not expected to replace FLT, but work as a supplement to such (idem, 2014). Consequently, "CLIL could be interpreted as a foreign language enrichment measure packaged into content teaching" (Dalton-Puffer, 2011, p. 184). Marsh (2013) exhumes on the benefits that this integration offers, mainly the way CLIL mimics first language acquisition: "students can experience a meaningful rich learning experience, in some ways similar to that when developing the first language. Thus, it can provide an opportunity to avoid language learning in a compartmentalized way, devoid of non-language content" (p. 100).

This harmful misconception that can be had of CLIL, using it to replace FL classes as demonized by Bruton (2011a), is dispelled by Hüttner and Smit (2014), who maintain that this is not standard and usually only happens at the tertiary level: "in other words, the '2-for-1' motto that Bruton warns us for fiercely of, should not be taken as a descriptor of educational policies, but rather for what it is –a catchy political slogan" (p. 164). Coyle et al. (2010) harmonize with this sentiment, reassuring that CLIL classes are most always supplemented by FL classes, since they are needed to learn the *nuts and bolts* of a language. At the moment, both classrooms are

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING: A QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE STUDY. CHAPTER 2 BILINGUAL EDUCATION

needed, the CLIL classroom serving as a place where students can “put into practice the things which they see in theory on paper” (idem, 2010, p. 11).

Additionally, CLIL allows for the use of more diverse and unique classroom practices (Marsh, 2002), and, as Coyle (2002) points out, CLIL “safeguards” the subject matter (p. 37). However, although flexible, Coyle et al. (2010) note that the theoretical basis upon which CLIL lies must be “rigorous and transparent if CLIL is to be a viable and sound methodology” (p. 1).

One of the main advantages is the increase in exposure to the target language by allowing students to have as much substantial, enriching contact with the target language, made feasible with the CLIL curriculum. Madrid and Pérez Cañado (2018) elaborate how CLIL:

Strives to upgrade FL standards by increasing the amount of exposure to the target language through the teaching of certain content subjects in that FL, so that language can be picked up in a meaningful, authentic, and subconscious way while concomitantly learning academic content (p. 245).

The learning environment of CLIL is another cornerstone of this pedagogy. Many researchers have remarked upon the natural setting which allows learning to flourish. The setting for learning is not contrived, but is *authentic*, as Pérez Cañado (2012) puts forward:

CLIL creates the conditions for naturalistic, implicit, or incidental LL, as it is based on the acquisition rather than enforced learning. It provides a context for more meaningful language learning, as the FL is used for real communicative purposes, with more efficient learning outcomes ensuing from such authentic embedding (p. 17).

This naturalistic approach favors LL acquisition due to the way it mimics the mother tongue acquisition process, by giving importance to meaning rather than form: it is both the high level of authenticity combined with voluntary participation that makes it effective (Järvinen, 2007). Topics are predefined by the content subjects’ curricula and the FL simply serves as a means to communicate” (Dallinger et al., 2016, p. 24). CLIL creates the conditions needed for language acquisition to occur, as argued by Dalton-Puffer (2011) and Järvinen (2007), referring to Krashen’s 1985 *Theory of Language Acquisition*, emphasizing that the CLIL classroom focuses on communication, not perfection, noting: “the fact that language mistakes are supposedly neither penalized nor corrected in the CLIL classroom” makes it so functional (Dalton-Puffer, 2011, p. 194). This would imply, argues Järvinen (2007) that: “language exposure is more extensive than in formal language learning”, due to an increase in availability, coherency, and understandability. She (2007) proposes that the “meaningful context” is what makes this approach so “similar to first language learning, where focus on meaning produces implicit LL” (p. 253). Dalton-Puffer (2007a) agrees, mentioning: “the teaching of subject-specific facts and

concepts favors a focus on meaning rather than on linguistic form so that under these circumstances of 'naturalness' automatic language acquisition is assumed to take place" (p. 201). This so-called naturalistic classroom, a highlighted feature of CLIL, is powerful since "successful language learning can be achieved when people have the opportunity to receive instruction, and at the same time experience real-life situations in which they can acquire the language more naturalistically" (Coyle, 2007b, p. 11).

More researchers have been quick to confirm this. Dallinger et al. (2016) explain that the natural approach, as proposed by Krashen and Terrell (2000), is suggestive that a FL is more effectively learned: "when the acquisition process occurs under conditions that resemble mother tongue acquisition" (p. 24). Conclusions drawn by Wolff (2007a) show that "the environment where learning takes place is of the utmost importance in language education and it is indispensable that learners thus are afforded a learning environment where his or her language is tested and developed", which happens routinely in the CLIL classroom (Wolff, 2007a, p. 17). Furthering the argument, Dalton-Puffer (2007a) remark how "CLIL classrooms represent an environment where language can be acquired under naturalistic conditions rather than learned through explicit instruction. A main argument in this respect is that such classrooms offer opportunities for authentic communication" (p. 201).

The various strategies used in CLIL and their importance have been widely discussed by researchers. Students can learn language through the use of various strategies: group work, strategizing, summarizing, hypothesizing, and questioning the subject matter, which explains why CLIL classrooms also differ from traditional language classrooms, due to the increased level of interaction. This is critical to the CLIL pedagogy, since it is known that, without language and thinking being actively involved, learning cannot take place (Coyle, 2007b). Collaborative work e.g. group work or project work, is encouraged and often utilized in CLIL as a major learning strategy, as depicted by Wolff (2002):

The classroom is seen as a learning laboratory, a place in which learners and teachers jointly work in projects, a place in which the different subjects are not divided arbitrarily and taught in isolation, but are seen as a complex whole, a place of autonomous learning in which the learners deal independently with the learning content (p. 48).

Critical to the previously explained *Knowledge Age*, CLIL resonates with students who are learning to use the knowledge immediately, not for the future. Lorenzo et al. (2009) highlight that CLIL renders learning for now possible, with the integration of content and language, since "in CLIL scenarios [...] the identification process between students and the language rests upon the link between language and subject matter, rather than on some nebulous future need" (p.

429). Mehisto et al. (2008) expound on this: students “learn to use language and use language to learn” (p. 26).

It is the type of learning, implicit rather than explicit, that is another advantageous feature to this approach. CLIL focuses on communication with meaning, which in turn foments implicit rather than explicit learning (Muñoz, 2002). Moreover, “CLIL classrooms are inherently communicative, repetitive, and functional [...]” (Van de Craen et al., 2007, p. 198).

As previously discussed, inclusion is a widely researched field and many authors have commented on the inclusive nature of CLIL and how it has the opportunity to appeal to all types of learners (e.g. Coyle et al., 2010; Hufeisen, 2007; Marsh, 2002; Pérez Cañado, 2012; Wolff, 2002; 2007a), something of utmost importance when considering the makeup of schools and classrooms today. Given their diversity, teachers are working with students with heterogeneous levels of language, motivation, achievement, or socioeconomic status, notwithstanding other factors such as mother tongue, nationality, and ethnicity. Along these same lines, Hufeisen (2007) notes that it is normal for teachers to find themselves working with children from very distinct language backgrounds. The author describes the numerous possibilities of diverse students that realistically may be found in one particular class (pp. 188-189):

- Monolingual children who first experience the L2 in primary or secondary.
- Children who have multiple languages spoken at home and thus have two L1s.
- Children who live in a region close to a border and are used to speaking or hearing two or more languages daily and may simply add the new language with ease.
- Children who move a lot and are used to foreign languages.
- Children who come from families where education is valued and the parents are interested in supporting and motivating the learner.
- Children who come from families where education and language learning are not considered important.

Understandably, the author warns that schools and teachers have the “daunting task” of catering to all of these children and the linguistic demands they may have (p. 119). These burdens in a language classroom are as diverse and complex as the variety of students, hence why CLIL is so necessary for our classrooms today (idem, 2007). And, to add more to the bill, the heterogeneity not only lies in language level, but in other factors such as skill, motivation, achievement, and socioeconomic level.

Concerning admission into the programs, Pérez Cañado (2012) covers the specifications of admission that different countries require for entrance in CLIL programs. The criterion ranges from little to none (e.g. Spain and Germany, where any student is free to join), to quite high (e.g.

Austria and France, where participants of CLIL must demonstrate certain dominance of subject knowledge and target language before entering into a program). Although, it must be noted the more countries (case and point: Spain) are favouring mandatory rather than optional programs.

Some other specifications of the CLIL courses include number of FL hours and teacher training requirements. Dalton-Puffer (2011) specifies CLIL programs as having less than 50% of the curriculum taught in the target language. With regards to teacher background, Dalton-Puffer (2011) explains that the norm are non-native speakers who are educated as content experts and who usually hold a degree in the subject they are teaching, rather than being certified in the FL. Language qualifications vary even within Spain: two autonomous communities have discrepant language requirements for teachers, in Madrid a C1, in Andalusia, a B2.

Although there is copious evidence confirming CLIL is functional and reliable, it is in no means a magical solution to LL. Its implementation does not automatically lead to a dynamic state of learning; rather, certain steps must be taken in order to ensure that LL is optimal and practical (Banegas, 2022; Coyle et al., 2010). As Pérez Cañado (2013) highlights, CLIL is a name for updated teacher practices: "all in all, it brings about a modernization of classroom didactics and a diversification of methodologies and forms of pedagogical practice" (p. 17). However, the programs also must be thoroughly planned and, as Lorenzo (2007) insists, the uniting of content and language should not be "taken lightly" (p. 261). This is a fact upon which most researchers would agree, since CLIL can also be perilous for learners if it does not take their needs and individual circumstances into account, nor if the uniting of content and language is done sporadically, spontaneously, or without methodological guiding.

The following section will highlight the most important features of any successful and functional CLIL program.

2.5.2.1. Learner autonomy

One of the major goals in education today, autonomy, can be defined briefly by Holec (1981) as "being in charge of one's own learning" (p. 13), or more extensively by Little (1991) as "a capacity for detachment, critical reflect, decision-making and independent action. It presupposes, but also entails, that the learner will develop a particular kind of psychological relation to the process and content of this learning" (p. 23).

Today's educational practices give focus to the student, helping them obtain life skills they will need to be successful. Educators must attempt to provoke self-awareness in learners and help them assume responsibility for their learning, since when percipience is fomented as a

“preliminary step towards the development of autonomy”, learners begin to take control of their own learning (Pérez-Vidal, 2009, p. 7).

On the whole, autonomy can be defined as a learned set of skills, that allow individuals to take on new challenges. For her part, Pérez-Vidal (2009) sees autonomy as “a set of procedural ability, learning strategies, a specific linguistic and attitudinal approach to languages, and a capacity to be self-responsible for one’s own learning” (p. 7). Seminal contributions to this show us that learners must be able to work on their own, and be given strategies that will help them succeed, since learners do not have isolated learning styles but use many parts of their brain depending on different contexts, in keeping with UDL²⁴ (Meyer et al., 2014). Each student is different, which is why such a wide range of strategies must be promoted and utilized, fundamental and true of CLIL practices.

The classroom experience in CLIL is unique and lends itself to the fomenting of learner self-sufficiency, given the use of authentic interpretations using real content focusing on learning real strategies and techniques, which, in turn, leads to learner autonomy. This capacity should not be overlooked or belittled; Wolff (2002) himself argues that autonomy is “the highest goal in all education” (p. 48), and the mastery of autonomous study which the student enjoys is no doubt one of the greatest accomplishments a teacher can inflict on their students.

Regarding the topic of inclusion, autonomy is a crux to its success: “when it comes to learning and achievement, there is a growing consensus that the most effective way of increasing attainment is by helping learners become independent, reflective and involved in their own learning” (EASNIE, 2016, p. 33).

However, for autonomy to be a reality, students and educators must be aware of the importance of goals and how essential they are to the learning process. In CLIL, like all sectors of education, it must be appreciated that learning is goal-driven; and thus, learning goals must be made explicit so students know what their target is, how to reach it, and when they have achieved it. Students are constantly learning and adapting, changing their goals, and behaving accordingly, which is why precise, fixed goals are critical to the process and are what drive students’ behavior. Without goals, learners’ brains are maps without directions (CAST, 2018). In that same vein, they make the learning experience personal, by acknowledging every student has specific goals, relevant to their ability, needs, and economic possibilities.

²⁴ Cf. section 2.4.5. for more details on *Universal Design*.

2.5.2.2. The 4C's Framework

What has come to be known as the 4C's framework has been proclaimed as giving CLIL the potential to contribute significantly to the European Union's language policy (Coyle, 2002; Coyle et al., 2010). According to Coyle (2007a), there are four main pillars of CLIL: content, cognition, communication, and culture, commonly recognized nowadays as the 4Cs framework. As Banegas (2022) argues, it is this framework that gives CLIL the potential of "becoming an enabling tool that can motivate teachers, learners, and the community to destabilise injustices, dismantle colonial discourses, participate in different forms of civic engagement" (p. 293).

This framework is "built on the premise that quality CLIL is dependent on understanding and adapting approaches which will not be found solely in the traditional repertoires of either language or subject teacher" (Coyle, 2007b, p. 51). Related to the 4C elements is the CLIL Matrix, created by an international team of CLIL researchers and published online. Described by Cinganotto (2016) as a "four-dimensional core framework", it is structured around the core elements in CLIL (content, language, integration, and learning) in conjunction with the aforementioned 4C's. She (2016) elaborates on the matrix and the integration of its foundations:

These four elements are realized through the four Cs and the result is the CLIL matrix which is used for quality insurance [and] provides teachers with a tool for self-awareness and meta-cognition concerning the skills and competences needed to plan and implement good CILL activities (p. 377).

Fundamental to the 4C's is also the understanding that they must occur as a whole and the stipulation of including them in the preparation of sound CLIL lessons: "whilst they can be outlined individually, they do not exist as separate elements. Connecting the 4Cs into an integrated whole is fundamental to planning" (Coyle et al., 2010, p. 55). Piquer Vives and Lorenzo Galés (2015) stress that the 4C's are important and relevant to this day, serving as a "wake-up call and a reminder to focus not only on language, or only on content" (p. 90). This sentiment is reverberated by Banegas (2022) who argues that CLIL can work to enhance multilingual education, work with discriminated populations and "help learners and teachers engage in dialogic encounters that underscore the value of listening, respecting learning trajectories and ways of engaging with knowledge creation" (pp. 293-294). The intersection of these concepts, and "CLIL's explicit attention to the interrelationship [...] helps make visible what can be harder to appreciate in a traditional FL course" (Cross, 2022, p. 197).

Thus, the next three subsections will focus on each of the 4C's in detail and their relevance to the CLIL methodology.

2.5.2.2.1. Content and cognition

Without a doubt, language plays a paramount role in CLIL; however, as the name implies, language is not given predilection, with content being just as important as the process or way that it is acquired, so called cognition. Nevertheless, there is fostered debate about these elements: many authors attest in numerous publications that neither should be given partiality (e.g. Cenoz et al., 2014; Coyle et al., 2010; Eurydice, 2006; Ting, 2010; Wolff, 2007a), while others give importance to content (e.g. Guazzieri, 2007; Lorenzo, 2007), and others to language (e.g. Marsh, 2006).

Those who claim that content is more important, such as Guazzieri (2007), argue that content learning must be prioritized, since “if it is only language that advances, CLIL is reduced to FL learning” (p. 172). On the other hand, other researchers give priority to language, such as Marsh (2006), highlighting that this is of utmost importance to CLIL since “the change of medium of instruction acts as a catalyst for overall educational improvement” (p. 35). Giving the example of one particular author, Järvinen (2006) states that subject matter teaching must constitute for at least 20% of the class if it is to be classified as CLIL, but percentage estimates for content and language in CLIL are disparate, since each class is different, and the focus can fall on content or language depending on several factors and even from lesson to lesson.

Clarifying the integration and the mental action of acquiring the understanding of the two, Eurydice (2006) explains how content and language are integrated: “[...] achieving this twofold aim calls for the development of a special approach to teaching in that the non-language subject is not taught in a foreign language but with and through a foreign language” (p. 8). Content-wise, “integration safeguards the subject matter being taught and parallel development of academic competencies and domain-relevant communicative skills is documented” (Pérez Cañado, 2013, p. 16, referencing Tudor, 2008). Coyle et al. (2010) address the need for teachers to evaluate their particular CLIL situation individually and how content and language will be combined to work for them and their pupils, since the integration of language and content is no simple feat and depends on “strategic planning as well as reflective evaluations” (p. 42). They note that there are no “quick-fix solutions or formulae” for how this may be done, but each particular case requires its own adaptation” (p. 43).

Wolff (2007a) points out three main concepts when looking at general perceptions of content and language in CLIL (p. 16):

1. It is not just an approach to language teaching, rather it is concerned with both content and language. The content is not just taught so as to improve the FL competence, rather,

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING: A QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE STUDY. CHAPTER 2 BILINGUAL EDUCATION

the instructors are just as concerned with learners' understanding and assimilation of the content.

2. Content and language are learned together. The two subjects are "dealt with as a whole".
3. Another language is used as the medium of instruction. Language is the content and the vehicle and is taught in a completely different way than in the traditional language classroom.

In CLIL, the material is authentic and used for real-life purposes other than learning a FL, contrary to the subject content used in traditional FL classrooms, in which the content is always used for LL. Even if the texts used in FL classes are authentic and relevant to the learners' lives, the fact remains that they are being used only to further develop the target language, a notion not lost upon learners (Coyle et al., 2010). A wide array of subjects can be taught in CLIL, but as Pérez Cañado (2012) points out, a few stand out as exemplary since they are the most common in the CLIL curriculum: History, Geography, Science, and Social Science.

The type of content that learners deal with in CLIL is complex but, as Wolff (2007a) argues, learners prefer to deal and interact with this type of content because they identify and have more direct contact with it. It is just this contact that creates opportunities in the classroom which allow the students to become involved in the subject matter. For their part, Ball et al. (2015) explain the content of CLIL should fall into three categories: *concept*, *procedure*, and *language*.

CLIL uses content as a platform for FLL, states Wolff (2007a). The author argues that subject matter is processed on a deeper level when it is learned in a FL, as opposed to when it is handled in the L1, where shallower processing occurs, so the input and output in CLIL, being in a FL, lead to a more complete comprehension process. As defined by Graham et al. (2018), CLIL features content students have seen before or have prior knowledge about.

Also recognized as a vital part of CLIL, cognitive support plays an important role since it gives learners a sense of authenticity, leading to motivation, which leads to learning (Coyle et al., 2010). Another cornerstone of CLIL classroom practice is based around students actively participating in the classroom "through a process of inquiry (research) and by using complex cognitive processes and means for problem solving (innovation)" (Coyle et al., 2010, pp. 5-6). Group work, problem solving, creative thinking, cognitive challenges, and questioning are all fundamental features of this approach and it is imperative that cognitive learning be used. As a way to offset "the double challenge" that CLIL implies for learners, "CLIL is characterized by its increased attention to students' development of learning and cognitive strategies" (Nieto Moreno de Diezmas, 2016, p. 2).

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING: A QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE STUDY. CHAPTER 2 BILINGUAL EDUCATION

The content dealt with in the CLIL classroom is not, as Coyle et al. (2010) point out, limited to subject areas only. The content may come from many places, from the national education laws to a project inside the school. It can be thematic, cross-curricular, interdisciplinary, and more. There are opportunities both within and outside the curriculum which teachers may capitalize upon to promote learning since most syllabi have clearly stated objectives and what is intended by teaching, but do not state how teachers are to teach it, leaving room for flexibility (idem, 2010).

In that same vein, using content as a basis for teaching serves to determine the necessary language that should be taught in a language classroom as opposed to strictly grammatical development, such as in the FL classroom. Thus, CLIL uses language based on the need learners have in their assimilation of basic concepts and skills related to content (Coyle, 2007b). Referencing the "philosophy of indirect language teaching" that CLIL and bilingual approaches undertake, Lorenzo (2007) says that upon applying this principle, "the language is thought mostly to be absorbed unintentionally while the students' attention is focused on meaning, more precisely while the students process academic information of a non-linguistic area" (p. 266). On the whole, CLIL is seen as the solution "to increasing L2 input" by teaching content through a FL, which satisfies two needs simultaneously by incrementing FL exposure "without overloading school timetables" (Roza, 2009, p. 127), giving LL classrooms the boost they need to get students' language levels to where they need to be, while still staying in the confines of the curriculum.

Regarding grammar's place in the CLIL lesson, Lorenzo (2007) insists that there should be no *explicit* teaching of such, although it should be incorporated into the class. He explains: "selected language items should be a part of a hidden curriculum in the sense that as a rule, no explicit teaching of grammar should take place" (p. 266). The same author does not suggest that CLIL teachers should ignore grammar altogether; rather, it should be used more informally, in spontaneous and natural instances, without explicitly teaching it. Overall, the author maintains that the triumph of CLIL in the LL world ultimately "resides on the language being at the service of the content" (idem, 2007, pp. 266-267).

As far as the actual language is concerned, it might seem unimportant, be it a foreign, regional, or minority language, but Lasagabaster and Sierra (2010) contend that this "has direct effects on both language objectives and language outcomes, which is why a clear-cut distinction is needed" (p. 329). Language is quite an important feature and the type of language used in the classroom is pivotal, especially since CLIL requires "language sensitive methodology" (Marsh, 2006, p. 33). However, at present, CLIL makes no distinction between the type of language and can be used with any. This is seen in Spain where CLIL is used in some autonomous communities to teach the regional language (e.g. *Euskera*, the Basque language, in the *País Vasco*, the Basque

Country).

Growing support for this pedagogy falls on the fact that LL is easier in CLIL than in traditional FL practices because in the CLIL classroom, the contents are precisely defined and there are limited amounts of language items and structures, whereas in language classrooms the contents are usually ambiguous and less clearly organized. Language in itself is a very complex phenomenon and it can be difficult for learners to assimilate, but this becomes easier when language is learned through the medium of content. Wolff (2007a) elaborates:

Knowledge structures underlying a content subject are less complex, at least when the content subject is taught in a school context. It is easier for the learner to categorize, to structure and to acquire this knowledge than it is to structure and acquire language knowledge (...) Although content and language learning are parallel processes in a CLIL classroom, the content of the content subject can serve as a kind of scaffold for the language learning process (p. 20).

One of the greyer areas surrounding CLIL is the inclusion of language lessons in the content classrooms. Many teachers who teach content regard themselves as content teachers and prioritize content, regarding the language as secondary when it comes to teaching. Pérez-Vidal (2009) argues that no matter the degree of language being taught, "content teaching does not lose out" in CLIL programs (p. 11). However, educators must re-evaluate their stance on language in the classroom, since, as Nikula et al. (2013) highlight, "it is necessary to consider the option of 'allowing' into CLIL classrooms explicit attention to language and pedagogical activities that are explicitly framed as language work" (p. 80).

2.5.2.2.2. Communication

As previously mentioned, CLIL is a direct descendant of the communicative approach, and, thus, it is no superfluous detail that communication is a fundamental part of this approach and not only an added benefit.

CLIL focuses on communication with meaning and promotes fluency. Contrary to traditional FL classes which focus on accuracy and inhibit motivation, CLIL classes allow motivation to thrive (Muñoz, 2002). Students are encouraged to use meaningful and complex language which results in increased potential in the target language. More communication takes place between the teacher and the students which, in turn, allows for a constant and consistent assessment of comprehension and productive skills.

The authenticity of the communication in CLIL is critical, as put forth by Pérez-Vidal (2009): "using the language as a medium of instruction for content subjects resulting in authentic,

not contrived, communication for discussing content” (p. 11). This language is beneficial since, as the author observes, language for communicating content is more motivating.

Regarding input and the communication created by the professor, Pérez-Vidal (2009, referencing Klapper & Rose, 2002) highlights three conditions which must be met in order to ensure its quality. It must: “be comprehensible; be meaningful and authentic; and, cover the domains of use and the functions of language and general communication” (p. 10).

Especially considering monolingual contexts, exposure to L2 or L3 is pivotal and, as Pérez-Vidal (2009) acknowledges, “massive amounts” are needed when considering second or third language acquisition in multilingual contexts; thus, there must be exposure to input in the target language in high doses (p. 10). However, it is not just quantity, but the quality of such that matters when considering input, since “a quality factor must also be guaranteed for successful language learning. It is not only the number of hours of exposure, but the intensity of exposure” (idem, 2009, p. 10). CLIL gives students the extra exposure and quality insurance, given the content.

How the students receive input in a FL has also been relatively extensively researched. Discouraging results yielded from a study by de Graaff et al. (2007) show that almost half of 38 CLIL teachers observed “never modified or elaborated their own utterances in order to make input more comprehensible to students, and those who did, used such strategies very rarely” (Nikula et al., 2013, p. 80). Many teachers may feel apprehensive to do so, due to lack of knowledge on the topic. Unfortunately, this holds true for many educators, who, following no clear set of guidelines, are unsure how to communicate in the most effective manner. Ultimately, it is the communication in the classroom that glues the CLIL pedagogy together and two factors are the main reasons a teacher will or will not modify their speech and language to proliferate comprehension in the classroom, most notably: target language proficiency and amount of experience with CLIL classes and methodology (Nikula et al., 2013). To date, clear guidelines on target language use do not exist and researchers are clear that more help must be made available to educators. Specifically, Pérez Cañado (2021b) notes that emphasis should be placed on BICS for target language use in the classroom “which are more neutral or standardised in terms of language variety” (p. 46), and more guidelines regarding what type of language is being taught should be on the docket for future CLIL research. Järvinen (2007) comments on the variance that exists between CLIL programs around Europe: “it seems clear that CLIL implementation need a specific language pedagogy that, while taking content as a starting point, maintains a distinct and individual character and shares features with but is not identical to language teaching pedagogy” (p. 255).

In this same vein, recent research reveals dynamics in the classroom have changed; both teachers and students are forced to interpret and act out new roles in the classroom and respond to their tasks in new ways, which ultimately “opens up language learning opportunities that may be difficult to orchestrate in the conventional language classroom” (Nikula et al., 2013, p. 80, referencing SLA-inspired research, e.g. Bonnet, 2004; de Graaff et al., 2007; Ellis, 2003; Gassner & Maillat, 2006, 2010; Hampl, 2011; Lochtmann, 2007; Schuitemaker-King, 2012; Skehan, 2003).

Data from recent studies emphasize another advantage to the CLIL classroom communication strategies: the positive effect it has on in-class responses given by both students and teachers. Students generally give longer oral answers than in typical FL classrooms and teachers’ responses are habitually more elaborate and explicative, providing further explanations and reasons to their students, rather than simply affirming or negating the answers (Nikula et al., 2013). There is more harmony in the CLIL classroom referring to the *symmetry* that can be found when the students and teachers converse: “(...) when students and teachers engage in sustained dialogue in CLIL, there is a sense of more interactional symmetry - if not symmetry in terms of actual positions of power- among the participants than in EFL classrooms” (idem, 2013, p. 84).

It is the content of the dialogue which differentiates CLIL and Nikula (2007) finds the difference between traditional FL classrooms and CLIL classrooms to be the interaction between the students, owing to the fact that FL classrooms tend to focus on textbooks and falsified, printed experiences, rather than real-life scenarios pertinent to the students. On the contrary, argue Nikula et al. (2013), CLIL classrooms regularly “involve hands on, practical activities, which tend to produce personally more involved talk, as students centre on the here-and-now of the task at hand as well as more shared meaning negotiations and collaborative forms of talk” (p. 84).

Although some might regard communication to be the most complicated aspect of this methodology, especially considering inclusion, the fact remains that the communicative aspect is actually one of the ways it can truly foster diversity, since it can be tailored to work with various competence levels and students who need extra help. Madrid and Pérez Cañado (2018) underline how

Comprehension can be adapted to students with special needs and motivation can be favored by integrating subject content and linguistic aspects from the language of instruction in a very simple way, adapting input to the comprehension level and learning pace of students, and including a considerable variety in exercises, activities, and tasks that attract students with different interests (p. 245).

2.5.2.2.3. Culture

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING: A QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE STUDY. CHAPTER 2 BILINGUAL EDUCATION

Another fundamental block of CLIL and the 4C's, culture, is not to be regarded as any less important although it has been known to fall by the wayside in terms of status in the curriculum. As put succinctly by some researchers, culture is vital to CLIL (Cross, 2022; Coyle, 2007). Coyle et al. (2010) argue that CLIL gives learners a chance to experience an enhanced cultural awareness that would otherwise not be possible in a monolingual setting, and these "intercultural experiences" are of the utmost necessity if learners are to become true global citizens (p. 39). Pérez Cañado (2021b) draws attention to how CLIL

builds intercultural knowledge and understanding, develops intercultural communication skills, and promotes intercultural communicative competence. It equally raises awareness of cultures and the global citizenship agenda. In sum, it offers powerful opportunities for intercultural learning which go beyond those provided by traditional language learning settings (p. 41).

The multilingualism of CLIL and cultural aspect it provides is without a doubt advantageous, but once again puts another weight on the shoulders of teachers. Authors Coyle et al. (2010) acknowledge that culture cannot be learned in a few classes simply by teaching students about celebrations every now and then, alluding to how culture is dealt with in traditional FL classes, but they (2010) argue, in order for students to truly become culturally aware, it requires them to interact with the vehicular language meaningfully in and beyond the classroom. For her part, Coyle (2007) puts culture at the center of the CLIL curriculum, but as Cross (2022) notes, as important as this facet is, there has been far less emphasize on it than warranted.

The number of opportunities available for intercultural interaction increases in CLIL by giving learners access to a multicultural awareness that they need for FLL. Coyle et al. (2010) warn that the success of CLIL and the amount of cultural awareness it delivers depends widely on the intercultural atmosphere that is created in the classroom: "in essence, intercultural skills and understanding need to be developed through interaction with a range of people in a range of contexts, so that the new situations enable learners to adjust meaningfully in order to expand their own understanding" (p. 40).

Regarding culture in the scheme of the 4C's, it "is not a postscript", the previously mentioned authors (2010) stress, in lieu of the fact that culture is often overlooked, regarded as superfluous, or even forgotten (Cross, 2022), but it should be procured that this does not happen and this element should be given "careful consideration", as it is essential to the CLIL pedagogy (p. 54). The same authors (2010) manifest that it is also something that needs to be carefully planned in order to be executed systematically: culture "needs to be thought through to ensure meaningful connections rather than tokenistic reference" (p. 55).

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING: A QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE STUDY. CHAPTER 2 BILINGUAL EDUCATION

Adding to the conversation on culture is Banegas (2022), who argues that the superimposition of English as the default language in CLIL programs "may be detrimental to efforts to promote multilingualism across contexts and regions" (p. 278). The author explains that CLIL is almost exclusively used with English and "European languages with high ethnolinguistic vitality given their perceived high sociolinguistic status" which is having, he argues, the opposite effect CLIL was set out to achieve: to promote multilingualism across diverse contexts, since its use with English or other high status languages is not helping to revive or maintain regional or minority languages, and can thus jeopardize many contexts, as well as discriminate against marginalized populations. As the author (2022) argues:

Using CLIL to enhance multilingual learning language heterogeneity in Spain: In sum, when CLIL is employed for ethnic equity with marginalised people, it is not only language or content that are benefitted. Pluricultural and plurilingual and identity dimensions of school and community life are protected, maintained, and nurtured (p. 294).

Another way to see culture is threefold, as through the eyes of Cross (2022), who delineates three types of culture: societal, disciplinary, and classroom, all of which are important aspects of culture that must be taught to the students. The first type is the culture of the country where the learning is taking place. However, rarely does a country have a homogeneous culture, as within communities there are variations in culture, and norms and customs can fluctuate greatly between cities and even neighborhoods. The second type, disciplinary, refers to rules and expectations in certain cultures, that are seen through the practices and behaviors of people in that culture. Finally, the last, classroom, is how people in a certain culture interact and behave in their learning environments and what is expected of them in the roles they assume. This, the author explains, is something that must be carefully considered, especially bearing in mind the makeup of classrooms today, since students are not all from the culture, and might not be aware of what is implicitly being asked of them in the classroom culture. As the author points out, classroom culture is not something that is usually explicitly taught, yet most teachers are aware of it and assess for it.

Culture, it would seem, is one of the compelling reasons it is argued that CLIL will allow the European society to become the fully multicultural community it has set out to become. Coyle (2002) looks closer at this:

When language using experiences are positive, when students are challenged to understand, think, and re-conceptualize prior learning in more than one language, when alternative perspectives are presented to our learners in different languages, then as the number of successful language learners increase, we can consider ourselves as having matured as a plurilingual and pluricultural learning society. CLIL's role is vital to that maturation process (p. 28)

Ultimately, when handled properly, culture can add true value to learning environments and bring awareness on the importance of tolerance and acceptance for students, fundamental to CLIL, and the multifaceted culture that exists in Europe. It also gives a dimension to FLL that is necessary for meaningful learning to take place.

Following this recompilation of the four crucial elements to the CLIL curriculum, the subsequent section will take an in-depth look at how they come together in the methodological implementation of this pedagogy. However, as previously commented upon, outlining a precise CLIL methodology is not an easy feat, having been made clear by researchers that “CLIL implementations are heterogeneous” and vary greatly, due to the tailoring that all educators, schools, and governments ensure is undertaken so as to meet the specific aims, outcomes, and objectives of the contexts where they are found (Nikula et al., 2013, p. 72).

2.5.3. Methodology

A closer look at the literature on this topic reveals uncertainty when it comes to the methodology. Hüttner and Smit (2014) reason that “there is no unified CLIL pedagogy and even less a CLIL method [...]” (p. 163), arguing that researchers should not even enter into the discussion of what CLIL is and is not, as some researchers (e.g. Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2010; Somers & Surmont, 2012) have done, but instead reason there should be “a more genuinely constructivist approach that acknowledges the diversity and dynamics integral to CLIL practices” (p. 164). For her part, Pérez Cañado (2021b) declares that methodologically, CLIL is

a bid to bring innovation into the classroom, realigning teaching with modern pedagogical practices. It represents an opportunity to move from declaration to procedural knowledge and to minimize the transmission of knowledge model of education, in keeping with the post-methodology era we are in now (p. 43).

No single methodology or CLIL guide has been printed to date due to highly varying conditions in which CLIL may be found. Marsh (2006) resounds on this principle, since “applications of CLIL are multifarious depending on educational level, environment and the specific approach adopted” (p. 223). Coyle (2007a, 2010) insists that there is no formula nor one model that exists for CLIL, but those who use it must take into account all outside factors. Smit (2007) also elaborates on the diverseness of the programs regarding the types of teachers, the relevance of content and language in the classroom, assessment, and most importantly, the amount of target language used, all of which require content-specific methodology.

It is unanimously agreed upon that the CLIL methodology differs from that of the traditional language classroom, being “more communicative, participative and interactive [...]”

(Pavón Vázquez & Ellison, 2013, p. 74). Other key elements include “scaffolding, intelligibility, and communication strategies” (Pérez Cañado, 2021b, p. 43). The use of real English is also heralded as a major methodological feature (Grazzi & Lopriore, 2020; Pérez Cañado & Ojeda-Pinar, 2018; Vettorel & Corrizatto, 2020). For her part, Pérez Cañado (2013) specifies that teachers should employ “a diversification of methodologies” and “modernization of classroom didactics” (p. 17).

In this same vein, Marsh (2006) states that “CLIL can be realized using very different models. Each is determined by the context of the schools or university environment, the subjects taught, and the learners involved” (p. 32). The same author specifies why an exact methodology can easily be misunderstood and CLIL is not just using L2 to teach content, since “changing the medium of instruction from one language to another in an educational context does not automatically qualify as an example. It requires use of dual-focused language sensitive methodologies alongside changing the vehicular language” (p. 33).

Despite the lack of precise guidelines, there are inherent characteristics fundamental to this approach. Marsh (2006) details a few: employing visual effects; utilizing co-operative learning such as peer and group work; scaffolding; and, continuously moving between lower order (remembering, understanding, applying) and higher order (analyzing, evaluating and creating) thinking skills (p. 35, referencing Bloom’s taxonomy²⁵).

Touching upon the 4C’s integration, students must be engaged *cognitively* if CLIL teaching is to be effective. Drawing conclusions from her research, Guazzieri (2007) insists on the importance of active participation. She finds that tasks should be organized so that outcomes must be produced with participation by all members in the group in the class, a sentiment that has been echoed (Fields, 2017; Tomlinson, 2017). Teachers must ensure, she continues, to set groups or pairs up before class, as well as a time schedule and step-by-step run-down of the activity. Planning beforehand and making clear how feedback will be delivered will allow the teacher to avoid uncertainty and confusion (Fields, 2017; Guazzieri, 2007; Tomlinson, 2017).

²⁵ The original categorization (Bloom, 1956) has been republished by Anderson and Krathwohl (2001), who added a “knowledge” dimension as a way to bring the original categorization up-to-date. Coyle et al. (2010) note that this new taxonomy is essential for teaching and learning in CLIL since “this transparent connecting of thinking processes to knowledge construction resonates with conceptualizing content learning in the CLIL setting” (p. 30). The updated taxonomy shows the three categorizations: lower-order processing, higher-order processing and the knowledge dimension. Within the new knowledge dimension there are four types of knowledge: factual, conceptual, procedural and metacognitive (Anderson & Krathwohl, 2001).

Resources also prove to be key for CLIL, since they are not contrived for the use of FLL. Järvinen (2007) emphasizes that resources also prove to be an advantage for the CLIL teacher since they do not have to worry about language mistakes: "authentic sources are generally reliable in terms of content and language and provide security for a teacher who is uncertain about his/her language proficiency" (p. 256). The author illustrates a table with the different sources of input used in teaching and how they facilitate learning. She proposes different sources which can be used in teaching CLIL: mind maps, predicting activities, graphic organizers, repetition, checking for comprehension, and paraphrasing. CLIL "should be student-centred, eclectic, and plurilingual in order to promote critical thinking" and, instead of using a single (e.g. American or English) version, a "range of native and non-native varieties and accents of English" should be used in class (Pérez Cañado, 2021b, p. 43). For this, "authentic materials, such as written texts, audioclips, videoclips, charts, and literary texts" have to be implemented in CLIL pedagogy as a way "to encourage a more dynamic approach to presenting differences in accents and lexical items and as a way to go beyond static and monolithic representations of the language" (idem, 2021b, p. 43, referencing Vettorel & Corrizatto, 2016).

For task creation, how tasks are designed with regard to content, accessibility, and comprehensibility must be examined. Tasks "will determine how students make sense of the material and how they express that understanding" (Coyle et al., 2010, p. 92) and sensible task creation should be given top priority. Moreover, it is indispensable that tasks have "the intention to think through method of scaffolding" (idem, 2010, p. 109). Through the use of meaningful, engaging tasks, students are able to be motivated and participative, as well as being given the opportunity to demonstrate their knowledge, or lack thereof, which in turn serves the teachers' purpose in making sure all students are moving along satisfactorily in their learning.

Other methodological practices commonplace in the CLIL classroom include meaningful language, real communication, and scaffolding (Fields, 2017). Scaffolding²⁶ is necessary given the variety of levels found and varying degrees of English competences (Llinares & Whittaker, 2009). These connections take place in the CLIL classroom, by allowing students to link and put real-life situations, content matter, and language skills to use at the same time, and are necessary for the diverse students. Marsh et al. (2013) highlight how important scaffolding is: "many aspects of good pedagogy require enhanced and detailed scaffolding. A wide range of knowledge and skills relating to methodology and assessment are integrated in order to create meaningful and

²⁶ Scaffolding is regarded by Vygotsky (1978) to be "the temporary assistance by which a teacher helps a learner know how to do something, so that the learner will later be able to complete a similar task alone" (p. 170).

supportive learning experiences for students” (Marsh et al., 2010, p. 20). For their part, Hammond and Gibbons (2005) distinguish between macro- (designed-in) and micro- (interactional) scaffolding, alluding to premediated or more spontaneous help provided by teachers.

Drawing on the example of the conventional classroom activity of copying and repetition, Coyle et al. (2010) note that this does not help the LL process along in any way; rather, the teachers are doing themselves and their students a disservice by submitting them to this type of outdated learning. Teachers must engage their students in cognitively challenging activities, which entail creating a bona fide need for learners to learn and use the target language. Setting students up for success is also key and teachers must know where to draw the line with *cognitive overload*, since, “although we want to challenge CLIL learners through the use of cognition objectives within the 4Cs structure, at the same time we must ensure that the challenge does not lead to anxiety and reduced motivation” (idem, 2010, p. 88). Notwithstanding, this means more work for teachers: “ensuring that learners will be cognitively challenged yet linguistically supported to enable new dialogue learning to take place requires strategic and principled planning” (idem, 2010, p. 43). The same authors advocate for an “inquiry-based approach to practice” (p. 44), since dangers may arise if content demands are ignored or linguistic demands are not met. Teachers should lead the way for their own classroom methodology, learning from trial and error, gathering evidence based on their students and classrooms.

Cooperative and collaborative work are both employed in the CLIL classroom and are incorporated with a view to give students more autonomy as well as a more comfortable environment to work in, without fear they will be judged or ridiculed for being wrong or slow. Guazzieri (2007) differentiates between the two: in the former, teachers are at their disposition “to select, design and adapt a specifically devised structure, to be followed by students in a series of lock-steps in order to attain a precise learning outcome or end product”, whereas in the latter, “students have more power over the procedures and have to take more decisions on how to go on solving the task” (p. 163), although these distinctions are quite broad, as admitted by the author herself. Both should be used frequently in CLIL as a way “to provide weaker students with a non-judgmental environment and extra scaffolding for their learning” (p. 181).

On these grounds it can be argued that teachers should utilize all methods possible as a way to constantly monitor the communication between the students so as to warrant that learning is taking place in a way that contributes directly to the specific CLIL context, such as the 3A approach (apply, analyze, add) to language and learning (Coyle, 2007b), the CLIL Matrix (Coyle, 1999, an adaptation of the Cummin’s Matrix from 1984) and ELICIT (*Enhancing Learning Investigations Through the Critical Incident Technique*). Coyle (2007b) recommends all teachers include these practices in their teaching as a way to implant sound methodology in the classroom,

as well as to gain confidence and resilience when it comes to describing and defining a quality CLIL environment that works for them and their students. As Coyle et al. (2010) underscore, CLIL does not mean changing the role of all teachers into language teachers; rather, CLIL allows for the use of new methodologies, which can consequently benefit both learners and teachers.

Coyle (2002) and Coyle et al. (2010) mention the *Language Triptych*, a visual representation of how CLIL enables teachers to connect their language and content objectives coherently. Coyle et al. (2010) highlight that in order “for strategic planning [...] to take place, teachers need to make explicit the interrelationship between content objectives and language objectives” (p. 36). The Language Triptych can help this happen, by giving support to learners from three different perspectives (idem, 2010, pp. 37-38):

- *Language of learning*: language that learners need relating to the basic concepts and skills of the subject and overall. This means that the teachers “require greater explicit awareness of the linguistic demands of the subject or content to take account of literacy and oracy in the vehicular language.”
- *Language for learning*: the language that learners require to allow them to flourish in the FL environment. The authors insist that this type of language is very important, given that without it, quality learning will not be seen in the classroom. “Unless learners are able to understand and use language which enable them to learn, to support each other and to be supported, quality learning will not take place. Strategies for enabling learners to discuss, debate, get into groups and use the CLIL language independently will have to be transparent in both the planning (teaching) and the learning process.”
- *Language through learning*: refers to the active involvement of language and thinking. “When learners are encouraged to articulate their understanding, then a deeper level of learning takes place.” The authors note how the CLIL classroom requires a level of interaction and dialogue higher than that found in the traditional language classroom and even the normal content classroom. “In CLIL settings, new meanings are likely to require new language. This emerging language needs to be captured, recycled and developed strategically by teachers and learners.” They note that the language that learners need as they go along “cannot always be predicted in advance”, which means that teacher becomes motivated to also be prepared to highlight emerging language along the way as the situations arise. “Learners need language to support and advance their thinking processes whilst acquiring new knowledge, as well as to progress their language learning.”

The interaction amongst students, imperative for the learning process, makes group work a foundation in CLIL, maintains Guazzieri (2007), since cooperative learning

Could represent a first step towards switching students from a 'subject' position to that of 'participants' in the CLIL educational process, both by empowering them with a stronger social role in the classroom [...] and by presenting them with the opportunity to practice language and to move on from the 'inner/private' speech mode to a more autonomous interaction and production (p. 181).

Research confirms cooperative methodologies should be included in CLIL if functional learning is to take place and if students' competence levels are to be positively affected (e.g. Coyle et al., 2010; Guazzieri, 2007; Järvinen, 2007; Lesser, 2004; Marsh et al., 2010). Group work or collaborative work allows students to work together and rehearse the material, giving them the opportunity to become aware of "gaps in their linguistic knowledge, which leads them to search for solutions (formulate hypotheses)" (Järvinen, 2007, p. 258). Successful CLIL classrooms often use pair-work, group-work and cooperative learning activities "due to the challenges of learning through an additional language" (Marsh et al., 2010, p. 20). Active learning for students, maintains Järvinen (2007), is crucial for the CLIL methodology, since it is through actively participating that students "improve their use and knowledge of the target language. The tasks the students are engaged in are communicative tasks, but unlike in language teaching, these tasks require the students to process both language form and content" (p. 258). In that same vein, amount and quality of input are equally important, says Marsh (2006) and successful language acquisition depends on both. If there is limited intake, there will be equally limited opportunities for output (idem, 2006).

Along those same lines, the importance of quality and plentiful input cannot be downplayed and is a fundamental block in the CLIL methodology. Teachers must be conscious of the quantity and, most importantly, the quality of rich input. Intake is crucial, creating opportunities for meaningful language to be put into use, i.e. creating output²⁷, which is when successful content learning happens. There must be repetition and a variety of communicative exercises implemented. Järvinen (2007) mentions Krashen's theory of implicit acquisition and how teachers can incorporate it into their classes: input with repetition, paraphrasing, comprehension checks, gestures, facial expressions, and checking for previous knowledge. As Nieto Moreno de Diezmas (2016) puts it, "CLIL methodology is based on communication, providing a rich and varied input [...] and fostering students' involvement and production of comprehensive output" (p. 82, referencing Swain, 1985). The same researcher (2016) comments on the variety of input that comes with CLIL: "different language functions, different genres, academic language, and

²⁷ Defined by Marsh (2006) as the realization of productive language skills.

classroom language” (p. 82). Linguistically, CLIL is beneficial because of the increase in exposure to the FL in quality validated conditions (Pérez Cañado, 2013):

In this sense, it supersedes the shortcomings of traditional language teaching by providing sufficient, authentic, and unrestricted input. This is conducive to an increase in overall language competence in the target language (particularly in communicative skills) and the enhancement of specific language terminology (p. 16).

The “use of questions” is argued by Coyle et al. (2010) to be the single most important resource that a teacher may have (p. 64). The authors contend that teacher questioning leads to learner questioning, which, in turn, leads to high-order thinking skills: “perhaps the ‘richest’ tool for any CLIL teacher is asking learners the question ‘why?’, since a response activates a thread of simultaneous and integrated learning demands embedded in the 4Cs” (idem, 2010, p. 65). On that same note, the authors add that “[...] every good lesson requires learners to think while engaging with either previously learned or new content” (p. 113).

Communicative language teaching is another pillar of CLIL and teachers are no longer talking *at* their students, but, instead, are talking *with* them. Many teachers encourage and support communicative teaching, although some may feel uncomfortable with this new dynamic. However, Van de Craen et al. (2007) maintain this absolutely cannot be forgone in the CLIL classroom, since “language pedagogy can hardly be conceived of without the characteristic of genuine communicative interaction and inherent repetition. Moreover, it is hard to imagine interaction in a CLIL environment without it being hardly functionally formulaic” (p. 197).

As stated before, one of the key components of CLIL, as a result of the 21st-century learning environment, is having teachers take a more hands-*off* approach. Pérez-Vidal (2009) explains further: “no CLIL class can rely on teacher-fronted methodology, no content can be effectively dealt with unless interactive communication and oral activities take place” (p. 8). The author continues with an explanation of a “methodological paradigm” that takes place in, where “curricular content is related to cognitive processing [...] cognitive processes are in turn related to linguistic requirements which must be met” (Pérez-Vidal, 2009, p. 9, referencing Klapper, 1996). Cognitive processes are either experiential or explicit and should be made a priority in the CLIL classroom (Klapper, 1996). Pérez-Vidal (2009) claims that the cognitive processes that occur in CLIL classes lead to more profound thinking processes and can possibly foment more successful content learning. However, she admits that although no empirical research can prove this statement, first-hand accounts are highly suggestive that it is true. Marsh (2006) insists that visual effects that cater to cognitive demands must be used to a greater degree in the CLIL classroom.

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING: A QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE STUDY. CHAPTER 2 BILINGUAL EDUCATION

Knowledge, whether new or previously learned, is another widely debated topic concerning the methodology (Bruton, 2011a), as it has been suggested that CLIL is only the teaching of previously learned information in a FL. However, several authors reject this idea and recent research proves it to be incorrect. Coyle (2007a) affirms that the CLIL method requires teaching new content, not merely teaching known material in another language, and other authors (Coyle et al., 2010; Marsh, 2013) suggest that CLIL requires learning both new content and revising previously learned content: "techniques that explicitly anchor new and previous learning are found in quality CLIL practices" (Marsh, 2013, p. 115). Graham et al. (2018) add to the conversation, as they argue that CLIL features content that students have prior knowledge of or, "prerequisite knowledge for" in the L1 (p. 31).

Other important foundations of the CLIL methodology are listed by Nieto Moreno de Diezmas (2016): "mental construction, development of lower and higher order thinking skills, student-centered learning, and attention to diversity and multiple intelligences in the classroom [...]" (p. 83). Additionally, "successful CLIL practice is likely to require teachers to engage in alternative ways of planning for effective learning" (Coyle et al., 2010, p. 48). Teachers must adapt CLIL to fit the specific demands of their classroom and the starting point should be the same: "[...] the successful teaching strategies and devices which are proven to underpin learning in each content teacher's repertoire" (idem, 2010, p. 86). Other practices that are fundamental to CLIL are "immediacy of purpose, feedback, communication, scaffolding, and navigation, user autonomy [...]", especially when taking into consideration the similarity of these practices to how students engage online (Marsh, 2013, p. 116). Feedback is especially important in bilingual education and CLIL is no exception, and should be as immediate as possible, avoiding at all costs being "inconstant and delayed" (idem, 2013, p. 117).

Nurturing motivation is another important component of CLIL methodology and "one aspect of fostering motivation is the encouragement of positive retrospective self-evaluation as part of a focus on dynamic continual development, whereby goals are set, reviewed and progress noted" (Coyle et al., 2010, p. 89). It is thereby imperative that all tasks created reinforce this in the classroom. Getting students to become motivated and "having learners see themselves as teachers with responsibilities for achieving learning for themselves and peer cohorts" (Marsh, 2013, pp. 134-5) is paramount.

Another cornerstone of the CLIL methodology is the flexibility and ability to cater to learner variance. Marsh (2002) emphasizes how inclusion and diversity can be used to "help unlock the potential of CLIL/EMILE and facilitate mainstreaming" (p. 200), but educators must be aware of the importance of learner motivation when it comes to achievement and outcomes, especially when dealing with mixed-ability groups. However, for this to be a reality, a set of

methodological *guidelines* must be created in order to “facilitate the inclusion of a broad range of learners in a framework that encompasses diverse models” (idem, 2002, p. 200).

Marsh (2013) states that although a specific methodology does not exist, the basis of CLIL is up-to-date, innovative practices:

When we look at good educational practice, and especially where a rapid transformation from mediocre to high standards is achieved, we can find certain basic recurring features inherent in what is done. Educational practice in general requires good teaching and learning practices. In order to successfully integrate content and language through CLIL, it is understandable that alongside CLIL-specific expertise being applied, it needs to be done through state-of-the-art best practice (p. 21).

Bottom line, CLIL methodology is by no means rigid, and is loosely based. Arribas (2016) delineates some aspects of CLIL methodology that vary around Europe: admission requirements, L2 proficiency minimum for teachers and students, teachers’ educational training requirements, and number of hours in the CLIL curriculum. Within Spain, variations such as these are widespread.

However, despite being diverse by nature, it is wholesomely agreed upon that the methodologies employed in CLIL must promote learning strategies and autonomous learning since that is the basis of real learning (Pérez-Vidal, 2009). CLIL requires reviewing and analyzing previously existing methods and adapting them appropriately: “what is characteristic of many CLIL methodologies is the synergy resulting from communication orientation on language, the context, and the interaction as it takes place within the classroom” (Marsh, 2002, p. 69).

2.5.4. Objectives

Although multilingualism is unquestionably the main driving force behind CLIL, there stands to be some ambiguity regarding the language goals of the diverse programs that exist within Europe. For their part, Mearns (2012) argues that the main objective of CLIL is to “produce competent and confident target language users, while at the same time teaching subject content” (p. 176). This objective of plurilingualism in Europe through CLIL, says Pérez Cañado (2021b), can be made possible “by embracing a realistic approximation to English language teaching which is still accurate, but also pragmatic, and where the competent speaker with a functional linguistic competence becomes the model to follow for both teachers and learners” (p. 46).

Coyle (2002) maintains that while the methodology of CLIL is not clear-cut, the objectives are giving students the chance to learn subjects through another language and to use the language in a wide variety of settings, not just in classroom use. Coyle et al. (2010) maintain that

since young learners need to develop intercultural skills and strategies to be successful in the plurilingual, mobile landscape of Europe, they need a growing knowledge bank which can be put into practice for use now and throughout their lives. For its part, CLIL hopes to give students the opportunity to do this by equipping them with the required skills.

Similar to the other components touched upon in previous sections, the context, background, and policies determine the overall outcome of the programs. However, although there may be variance in the outcomes, one principle stands constant: the requirement of CLIL communities to clearly state the values and aims of the programs "according to the situational and contextual opportunities and constraints" (Coyle, 2007b, p. 50). CLIL is a method that can be tailored to each community or country depending on the needs and wants of its citizens, but it is crucial the aims be transparent and plainly stated.

CLIL sets out to achieve multiple outcomes, one of the most important being, as argued by Baetens Beardsmore (2002), bolstering academic performance in students and not just FL performance. Language proficiency in the CLIL schemes, says the author (2002), is seen as an extra, secondary to the learning of skills and knowledge. However, Marsh (2002) contests this claim, premised on the idea that CLIL mainly is being used to "support linguistic diversity" and has been "introduced as a tool for promoting plurilingualism in education and beyond" (p. 200). For her part, Stoller (2004) takes a trifold approach to describing CLIL's aims: "it is designed to help learners: construct knowledge and develop understandings about a topic and a learning task; use language meaningfully and purposefully; and learn about language in the context of learning through languages" (p. 261).

Regarding proficiency levels, some researchers argue that CLIL does not aim for native-like proficiency (Marsh, 2002); yet other researchers find this to be quite the opposite: CLIL learners are expected to become bilingual and fully-competent with advanced levels in the target language (Cenoz et al., 2014; Várkuti, 2010). However, in line with varying aspects of CLIL, these goals have been disputed depending on several factors and, while there is no clear-cut goal for proficiency level, it is agreed upon that CLIL sets out overall to improve multilingual incentives. Dalton-Puffer (2011) reasons that CLIL is still generally lacking in clearly mapped out aims: "despite CLIL being cast in the role of an important language enrichment measure, precise learning goals and objectives are largely missing" (p. 185). Discernibly, there is debate on the comparison of CLIL to other forms of bilingual education, and Järvinen (2007) claims that CLIL has the same finality as CBI.

Overall, the objective of CLIL "rests ultimately upon an overall aim: shifting from a monoglot to a multilingual ideology and sowing the seeds for a language change to become real

through education in Europe" (Coyle, 2002, p. 28). As put forth by Eurydice (2006), CLIL increases language competence, enabling students to be the multilingual citizens that today's society demands for success.

The next section will now look at the sustained debate comparing and contrasting CLIL to immersion programs.

2.5.5. Differences between CLIL and immersion

Comparable to the definition debate, the argument for differentiating CLIL from immersion continues to be disputed by authors, as many note it is unclear what CLIL is due to its all-encompassing definition. Some researchers see CLIL and immersion as interchangeable terms (Cenoz, 2015; Cenoz et al., 2014; Dalton-Puffer et al. 2014; Graham et al., 2018; Järvinen, 2007; Mehisto et al. 2008; Ruiz de Zarobe, 2008; Stoller, 2004), whereas other authors prefer to distinguish CLIL based on varying factors (Ball & Lindsay, 2010; Coyle, 2008; Coyle et al., 2010; Gallardo del Puerto et al., 2009; Genesee, 1991; Lyster, 2007; Pérez Cañado, 2012; Swain, 1996; Wolff, 2007a). However, as Cenoz et al. (2014) explain, "there is not a single position regarding the relationship between CLIL and immersion among CLIL advocates" (p. 254).

The former (2014), who consider CLIL and immersion courses to be one in the same, base their argument on the fact that, fundamentally, both use a FL to teach content and furthermore, deem them similar due to the characteristics they share, the most important being "the use of an L2 or a FL as the language of instruction of prescribed non-linguistic academic content" (p. 255). These same authors also contend that immersion programs, similar to CLIL, do not have clear-cut pedagogies.

Those who regard CBI and CLIL as synonyms consider CLIL a form of immersion (Cenoz, 2015; Dalton-Puffer et al. 2014; Graham et al., 2018; Järvinen, 2007; Ruiz de Zarobe, 2008). Noting the similarities, Dalton-Puffer et al. (2014) dispute that the terms "should best be considered lexical variants" (p. 214). To clarify further, Cenoz (2015) argues that there are no differences between CBI and CLIL in regard to their "essential properties"; rather, there are only precise differences that are due to the specific contexts around Europe where they are implemented, which holds true for CBI.

Nikula et al. (2013) agree that CLIL shares several features with immersion/CBI in Canada and North America both theoretically and pedagogically speaking. However, the authors note that context plays a big role: "CLIL has often been distinguished from immersion in that the language of instruction is a foreign language and, therefore, rarely present (or not present at all) in the

social context outside of the classroom” (p. 71), which is certainly the case in many regions in Spain, including Andalusia.

The same researchers (2013) designate areas where the target language is present outside of the classroom as immersion contexts, noting Catalonia and Quebec as prime examples. In Spain, particularly in the bilingual communities, where minority languages have been taught in immersion-like programs for years (e.g. the Basque Country, Catalonia, and Valencia), it has been argued that CLIL teachers are simply shifting the methodology from immersion classes to CLIL-labelled classes and replacing the regional language (e.g. Catalan in Catalonia) with the FL (Ruiz de Zarobe & Lasagabaster, 2010).

For their part, Dalton-Puffer et al. (2014) comment on the research that has been conducted on these two approaches, arguing that it indicates more similarities than differences between the two and they attempt to clarify from where the haziness arises:

[...] these very constructs simultaneously have a life in society outside academia. The words *immersion* and *CLIL* live the lives of words in natural languages: they have histories, migrate from one discourse to another, acquire connotations, and generally have fuzzy boundaries (p. 214, the authors’ emphasis).

Turning to another pair of researchers, Lasagabaster and Sierra (2010) list five principles which they state are true for both immersion and CLIL courses: The finality is L1 and L2 proficiency; the language used is student focused; the parents play a key role; teachers are fully competent in both languages; and, communication is an essential feature.

On the other hand, there are a number of researchers who maintain CLIL differs from immersion programs for various reasons. The main differences include the language, teachers’ language levels, starting age, materials, outcomes of the programs, and the amount of research that has been conducted. Those who judge immersion programs and CLIL to have very little in common by staking the differences in the teachers (e.g. Gallardo del Puerto et al., 2009) argue that immersion programs teachers are generally native speakers, whereas CLIL teachers are trained non-natives. However, the reason for this difference is more a topic of where these types of programs take place, since the former occur in bilingual settings where there are larger numbers of native teachers available. Other researchers (Cenoz et al., 2014) make the argument that students in immersion programs are more motivated since the language they are learning is spoken in the world around them; thus, their learning has a direct correlation to their integration in society.

With respect to the differences, many authors have pointed out varying characteristics that differentiate the two terms. Wolff (2007a) distinguishes CLIL from immersion based on the fact that "language is both content and medium in the CLIL classroom" (p. 16). For their part, Lasagabaster and Sierra (2010) state that differences lie in the language: "the language used in CLIL is not a language spoken locally; unlike immersion programs, which are carried out in languages present in the students' context (...)" (p. 370). Students in most CLIL courses only have contact with the target language at school, unlike in immersion courses (idem, 2010).

One of the biggest discrepancies between CLIL and immersion courses is how they are said to differ when it comes to expected outcomes. Immersion programs usually occur in countries where the target language is the major language spoken in the environment; thus, FL objectives are high, as it has been claimed that immersion programs aim for native-like proficiency (Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2010), due to the context that requires them to interact with native speakers of the target language. On the other hand, CLIL learners who live in Europe are not learning the language with the anticipation of achieving native-like fluency; instead, objectives look to equip learners with proficiency levels that enable them to be able to use the language comfortably, for travel, studies, or to establish relationships with speakers of other countries (Hofmannová et al. 2008), although Cenoz et al. (2014) remark that this type of classification can be "difficult to substantiate" given that there is no solid evidence which affirms that immersion programs only have this objective (p. 6). Certainly, there are cases in Europe where high levels of proficiency are demanded from CLIL and, likewise, the occurrence of immersion programs that only wish to attain functional proficiency.

The amount of research done is also used to discern between the two. Pérez Cañado (2012) highlights the amount of research that has been done with (Canadian) immersion programs, noting that it greatly exceeds the amount of research gathered from CLIL programs. She underscores that the programs' effects "have been vastly, rigorously, and systematically researched" (p. 3), shedding light on how CLIL programs do not benefit even in the slightest form such extensive research, bringing to our attention the reality of most CLIL research, which is lacking in "substantial empirical evidence" (p. 3). Lasagabaster and Sierra (2010) add to this statement, highlighting the amount of consistent and trusted "bolstering empirical evidence available" which has revealed the positive outcomes immersion courses boast; research that is so steadfast that "very few voices would nowadays dare to cast doubt upon" (p. 372). In the past, this was true for CLIL programs, which were seen as relatively new and in need of updated, sound empirical research. However, this has changed and the consensus is that CLIL now has a large and empirically sound body of research on which to stand, as well as outcomes which highlight its functionality and credibility which can be seen in many recent studies (Arribas,

2016; Agustín-Llach, 2019; Barrios & Milla Lara, 2020; Chaieberras & Rascón Moreno, 2018; Fernández Sanjurjo et al., 2019; Lancaster, 2018; Lorenzo et al., 2019; Navarro Pablo et al., 2019; Ouazizi, 2016; Piesche et al., 2016; Shepard & Ainsworth, 2017). Graham et al. (2018) reviewed 23 studies from Europe and two from Asia. Of those 23 studies, 17 were from Spain, yet more proof of the extensive amount of research taking place, and much of that on Spanish soil. As Dalton-Puffer et al. (2014) consider CLIL a type of immersion, they argue it has continually benefitted directly from bilingual education research, and has added tremendously to the field:

CLIL research has added new foci and carved a new research agenda in ways that have not been equally prominent in work on immersion, particularly by drawing on a range of sociofunctional and contextually situated language theories such as pragmatics, text linguistics, discourse analysis, Conversation Analysis, and Systematic Functional Linguistics (p. 215).

Touching upon more differences between the two terms, some attest it to the fact that the instruction in immersion programs focuses primarily on language (Genesee, 1991; Lyster, 2007; Swain, 1996). However, Cenoz et al. (2014) contest this statement, claiming that many Canadian researchers found that the focus was on content in immersion courses as well, and language instruction was a consequence of the content taught.

Other researchers differentiate CLIL from immersion on the basis of resources, arguing that CLIL teachers do not have as many materials or references to use; therefore, most of the material used has been designed by the teachers, and consequently, they teach according to their own devices (Ball & Lindsay, 2010; Cenoz et al., 2014). Quite the contrary has been found in the case of immersion courses, in which teachers use materials that have been developed for native speakers, although this claim stands to be substantiated by real evidence, since immersion teachers are allowed and, also likely, to design and adapt material to fit the needs of their classroom (Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2010).

Various authors (Cenoz et al., 2014; Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2009; 2010) have claimed that CLIL differs because it typically has a delayed beginning, whereas immersion courses are usually started with younger learners. However, some European authors (Dalton-Puffer et al., 2014; Llinares et al., 2012; Somers & Surmont, 2012) debunk this argument, mentioning Spain as a prime example of where CLIL is implemented early on (e.g. the implementation of CLIL in primary schools in Andalusia).

More differences in CLIL and immersion programs arise when dealing with the types of students that participate in them (Cenoz et al., 2014). Immersion programs are open for all types of students, and even though technically most CLIL classes are open for all, the selection is usually quite homogeneous. Many authors are dubious that CLIL is in fact accessible by all students

(Bruton, 2011b; Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2010; Mehisto, 2007) since participation in the programs is voluntary and it seems that only the audacious or smart students from middle- to high-socioeconomic status join (Cenoz et al., 2014). The authors continue:

At the very least, claims concerning the relative accessibility of CLIL in comparison with other content-based language options, and most importantly immersion, demonstrate a relatively superficial knowledge of different types of immersion education and the student populations they serve. All things considered, it would appear that there are no grounds for claiming that CLIL is typically and uniquely less elitist than immersion (p. 250).

Regarding immigrant students, Lasagabaster and Sierra (2010) point fingers at CLIL and juxtapose them with immersion courses, which immigrants freely and regularly participate in, unlike CLIL.

Another quality that differentiates CLIL from immersion is the target language. In CLIL programs, the additional language is typically a FL, whereas in immersion programs, the additional language is a locally spoken L2 (Cenoz et al., 2014, referencing Dalton-Puffer, Nikula & Smit, 2010b). Although this idea is found redundant when considering by the 2023 Eurydice report, which states that CLIL describes any second language (foreign, regional, or minority) used to teach content. Lasagabaster and Sierra (2010) comment on the use and priority of English in CLIL courses and contrast this with the immersion courses, where there is a range of languages used. For their part, Graham et al. (2018) consider CLIL to be a form of CBI. They examine how CLIL, classified as the CBI methodology, differs and compares to traditional FLL, finding more similarities than differences.

As well as language, the exposure time to the language is another characteristic for which CLIL stands out, since immersion programs typically teach at least half of the school curriculum in the target language, whereas in CLIL, the target language is only used to teach a specific subject (Cenoz et al., 2014).

Coyle et al. (2010) propose that although CBI and EAL (*English as an Additional Language*) may have some similarities and concepts in common, this does not make them interchangeable terms, given that there are some rudimentary differences. CLIL is different from CBI and other types of bilingual education due to "the planned pedagogic teaching and learning practice" (idem, 2010, p. 6, referencing Coyle's 4C's theory, 2002). Coyle (2008) and Coyle et al. (2010) maintain that the integration of language and content in CLIL is more systematically mapped out than in immersion programs.

Despite attempting to differentiate the terms, Cenoz et al. (2014) note that immersion programs are often used as a point of reference in defining what CLIL is. They argue that both immersion and CLIL have no well-defined pedagogical approach, and, moreover, as well as being fruitless, the efforts to differentiate the two are disadvantageous, a sentiment echoed by other authors (e.g. Dalton-Puffer et al., 2014), contending that researchers are doing themselves a disservice by ignoring the similarities of CLIL and CBI/immersion programs. By separating CLIL from other language programs entirely, they note (2014), researchers are restricting themselves to only new research and ignoring valuable research that has already been done. This provokes isolation between researchers, leaving them unable, or unwilling, to use mainstream research that has been carried out on bilingual education. However, Dalton-Puffer et al. (2014) disregard the idea that CLIL studies do not keep immersion research in mind and feel the complete opposite is true: "[...] on the contrary, CLIL-related academic events have often featured prominent immersion researchers, and the pivotal role of immersion research for the field has been acknowledged in numerous CLIL publications" (p. 215).

Location is also used to keep the debate alive. For their part, Lasagabaster and Sierra (2010) argue that even though the terms immersion and CLIL are used as synonyms, "in reality there are more differences than similarities between the two" (p. 367) and give the instance of Italy, which has both immersion and CLIL courses: the former using French and German in the bilingual regions, and the latter programs using English in the monolingual parts of the country. The authors regard this example as a clear-cut way to prove that immersion and CLIL are two different concepts.

In addition to the previously mentioned country, the same authors (2010) also put forth Spain as an exemplary context where both CLIL and immersion courses are also implemented, referring to the monolingual and bilingual communities. In the monolingual regions, CLIL uses languages that are not spoken locally and the children only have contact with the languages inside the classroom, and have little to no extramural exposure to the L2. They note the unfortunate reality that the bulk of the Spanish population "in general" almost never watch any broadcasting in English, albeit having direct access readily available (p. 370). This is different than immersion programs implemented in the bilingual regions of Spain, where there are "ample possibilities" to use the language outside school and this distinction "is a key issue, since immersion students have many more opportunities to use the local language both in formal and, above all, informal communicative situations" (p. 370).

The previously mentioned authors (2010) highlight the Basque Autonomous Community as an example, where the minority language, Basque, may not be spoken in all contexts; however, there are still many opportunities to hear it in broadcasts, cartoons, youth programs, and the like.

Another differentiation that can be found lies in the teachers, since a high percentage of the teaching staff in immersion programs is made up of native speakers, which is simply not the case in CLIL. The teachers in the bilingual regions have also undergone specific training at university in preparation for their immersion teaching careers, whereas CLIL primary and secondary teachers typically have not ever had any specific training for CLIL courses. However, the authors do note that “new university degrees are currently being designed with a view to matching the future implementation of the European space for higher education in 2010” (p. 371), revealing that, for the first time, tertiary level educators will be trained in the CLIL methodology²⁸.

The importance of separating the two terms has been stressed (Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2010), and these authors warn of several negative consequences that may occur in case of the contrary, including additional pressure on teachers, impossible expectations of students who may be expected to reach unattainable results, “misguided conclusions”, and “uncritical analysis” of the results from immersion programs, which may steer CLIL stakeholders “in the wrong direction” (p. 369). They (idem, 2010) highlight the importance of using accurate terminology when it comes to bilingual education: “the terminology accuracy is necessary so that research can be clearly delimited and the findings become relevant”, so that educators can use valid and consolidated research to guide their teaching in a correct, methodological way (p. 369).

This extensive, albeit contradictory, explanation of if and how CLIL and immersion are or are not different, can be summed up with this thought from Cenoz et al. (2014), who maintain that CLIL can be seen as innovative and different from previous bilingual education models since it now includes academic content and operates outside the FL classroom, yet this still is not sufficient enough to label it revolutionary: “[...] and moreover, distinction that have been used by advocates to argue that CLIL is unique do not, in fact, hold up when analyzed carefully” (p. 254).

They (2014) refer to the ambiguous nature of the CLIL term and contend the “lack of precision in the internal definition” renders it almost impossible to specify the unique features of CLIL compared with immersion education (p. 25). The authors conclude by arguing that we should “conceptualize CLIL as an umbrella construct and immersion as a form of CLIL, it is difficult and meaningless to make categorical claims about their distinctiveness” (p. 255). For their part, Lasagabaster and Sierra (2010) demand a differentiation be made between the two terms based on the substantial differences between them. Furthermore, they advocate for “the establishment

²⁸ Cf. section 2.5.7.1.1. for more details on updated teacher training schemes in Spain.

of reasonable language objectives considering the context of each particular context [...]” in order to benefit CLIL schemes and future guidelines (p. 372).

The arguments are sufficient, and it is clear that although immersion and CLIL share certain characteristics, they are different, with CLIL having evolved to adapt to the European context.

2.5.6. Innovation

CLIL is such a radical force in LL that some have argued it has the power to change education as we know it, such as Wolff (2007a), who maintains: “(...) its innovative potential is so high that it will break down encrusted structures and outdated pedagogical ideas” (p. 23). Similarly, numerous authors attest to its innovative status (e.g. Cenoz et al., 2014; Coyle et al., 2010; Dalton-Puffer, 2011; Hufeisen, 2007; Marsh, 2002, 2006, 2008; Wolff, 2006, 2007a). It is a response to the modern learners and represents a paradigm shift in LL for the 21st century. As suggested by Coyle et al. (2010), this is more than another LL pedagogy, but a shift in education altogether: “CLIL changes the status quo” (p. 161).

Some attribute the innovation in CLIL to its collaborative and up-to-date methodology, since instructors have to continuously re-evaluate how they teach, which “requires adopting an interdisciplinary mindset within the educational profession” (Marsh, 2002, p. 66). The same author (2002) elaborates on this innovation: it “invariably goes beyond language teaching and learning. It has become an innovative educational approach, which is increasingly taking on a distinct European characteristic, and which carries methodology as its hallmark” (p. 66).

For his part, Wolff (2007a) says the innovation or “specific novelty” comes from the content (p. 15), as agreed upon by many (e.g. Cenoz et al., 2014; Marsh, 2002, 2008; Pérez Cañado, 2016b). Marsh (2006) points out that this is the core “essence” (p. 33) of CLIL which gives it the innovational factor, and the originality of CLIL is where the subject content comes from, since, traditionally, FLT in Europe has never been based on academic or scientific content (Wolff, 2007a).

The new content-based classroom is where the innovation lies in CLIL, argue Coyle et al. (2010). LL is no longer restricted to the confines of a language classroom, where students may feel unmotivated or uninspired to work. They (2010) detail: “successful language learning can be achieved when people have the opportunity to receive instruction, and at the same time experience real-life situations in which they can acquire the language more naturalistically” (p. 11). Dalton-Puffer (2011) reasons that this “space” where LL takes place in CLIL, which is not

"specifically and exclusively" centered around FLL, is where the innovation and ingenuity lies (p. 196).

Similarly, Coyle (2002) explains how the content of CLIL brings about pioneering methodologies, since the language used by teachers and learners must be continuously re-examined in order to promote real interaction in the classroom and with this come reflective teaching practices. When considering innovative learning methods, CLIL gives teachers the ability to use more diverse methods and unique classroom practices; as Marsh (2002) puts it: "CLIL can act as a catalyst for change" (p. 69).

CLIL instruction is student-centered, which Dalton-Puffer (2011) insists is what makes it the innovative pedagogy it is heralded to be, moving away from teacher-centered, and inefficient, practices. Very often, the language that CLIL teaches is not the first or only second language to the students, which is why CLIL instructors must be willing to understand and undertake new methodologies: "to become pedagogically more comfortable and competent" (Hufeisen, 2007, p. 126), wherein lies the innovation.

This revolutionary approach offers the occasion for *convergence*, fundamental since "convergence and integration will be hallmark characteristics of education and life over the next decade" (CCN, 2010, p. 10). Coyle et al. (2010) wax about this *merging*, arguing that CLIL is "neither language learning nor subject learning" (p. 4), but rather, a meshing of both elements. It is this *integration* of broken elements in the curricula which reveals the true innovative nature of CLIL. The authors (2010) view CLIL "as a fusion of subject didactics, leading to an innovation which has emerged as education for modern times" (p ix.). This phenomenon "usually involves breaking the 'status quo' and introducing change and innovation" (CCN, 2010, p. 11).

Generally speaking, the CLIL teachers themselves have to be the innovators if CLIL is to change European education. The teachers who employ CLIL in their classrooms are "the educational reformers of the 21st century" (Wolff, 2007a, p. 23). This innovative status profits the CLIL teacher with more satisfactory, deeper learning, and consequently the students, since it gives them more motivation to make an additional effort, as they feel more responsible and empowered, as researchers Halbach and Iwaniec (2022) discovered in their teacher interviews.

However, Cenoz et al. (2014) attest that researchers should not be so worried about documenting the innovation of CLIL; rather, they should spend their time and money on efforts concerned with establishing guidelines on the different forms of CLIL, with a view to educate stakeholders and gain unison regarding methodology as well as address the diverse settings where CLIL can be implemented. For his part, Lorenzo (2007) casts doubt upon the novelty of

this approach: “multilingual education has been rather frequent in Europe. This being the case, there is nothing in CLIL that makes it brand-new, nor especially ground-breaking in the larger picture of multilingual education” (pp. 28-29).

Although innovative and effective, as previously mentioned, CLIL is not a quick-fix solution (Coyle et al., 2010, p. 5). Quick-fix solutions are characteristic of the modern age we live in; however, the innovation in this approach does not propose to be an easy fix to LL. Rather, quite the contrary: extra work is required to ensure CLIL is being implemented correctly and effectively, in which its uniqueness is rooted.

Ultimately, innovation comes with challenges that must be vanquished, such as the content versus language dilemma, contends Guazzieri (2007), since:

the sustainability of the CLIL project itself is likely to fail, if it does not foster a parallel growth in the FL and in the specific disciplinary knowledge and competences of the content subject. Indeed, if language is given priority over content, the CLIL classroom reverts back to a FL classroom (p. 172).

The next section will take a look at three of the most important stakeholders to any CLIL scheme, starting with the teachers and going into detail about teacher training schemes, followed by the students and, finally, the parents.

2.5.7. Roles of stakeholders

All stakeholders play important roles in CLIL and must do their part if this pedagogy is to be successful: “all stakeholders in the process including parents, learners, policy makers, and providers, researchers, and teachers, need to contribute to this professional dialogue to drive the quality agenda forward” (Coyle, 2007b, p. 50). It is fundamental there be a shared community where all members have a united understanding of what a quality learning environment looks like. Learners must know what is expected of them and, alternatively, pre- and in-service teachers must be able to perceive and react to these expectations in terms of training as well as material preparation, lesson planning, and for general monitoring of progression as time passes.

The dynamic between stakeholders in the class changes in CLIL schemes. The teacher stops being the source of input and knowledge, becoming a facilitator instead. They take a step back and students move into the spotlight. This change releases a powerful energy into the classroom, and the effect it has on students, empowered with their new roles, allows them to learn, percept, communicate and reason (Coyle et al., 2010). In CLIL, students become the center of learning, actively participating, and taking responsibility for their learning, all the while charged

with being conscious of the learning process (Pavón Vázquez & Ellison, 2013). Fernández Yubero and Pareja Moreno (2009) agree that the CLIL teacher "is no longer the only source of information"; instead, now they are "a guide who monitors the cooperative learning of students" (pp. 45-46).

The change in attitudes, regarding ability, can be noted in this day and age, as many teachers now have an attitude of *inclusion* education, rather than *exclusion* (British Council, 2012). Teachers are more empathetic, willing to adaptations for students who need it: "there is now dialogue between managers and teachers; teachers and teachers; teachers and parents; parents and learners; and learners and learners. Consequently, awareness, understanding, and tolerance is being raised" (idem, 2012, p. 3). Correspondingly, positive teacher-student relationships are imperative if CLIL is to be maximized. Julius and Madrid (2017) note that students need affective teacher-student relationships, including harmony, understanding, and patience, and use of the L1 in class for clarification and calming purposes.

Stakeholders, says Dalton-Puffer (2011), must come into the classroom respecting the process of CLIL: "what is at the center for stakeholders is the understanding that CLIL classrooms are an environment for naturalistic language learning, implying that the best kind of language learning proceeds painlessly, without formal instruction" (p. 183). Misunderstandings about what CLIL is can lead to misinformation and myths, jeopardizing CLIL's future, which is why it is crucial that all who play a part know their roles and what is expected of them.

Overall, CLIL's success depends on how research investigates the stakeholders, with quality insurance know-how kept at the forefront, which is why "resources, materials, guidelines, and clear-cut lines of action should be set in place to ensure that CLIL is working adequately for all types of achievers" (Pérez Cañado, 2017b, p. 10). As Hüttner & Smit (2014) emphasize, "[...] a language policy view underlines that the pro-English managerial decisions often go hand-in-hand with supportive teacher, parent and student beliefs and practices both inside and outside of school" (p. 165).

The following four sections will look specifically at the three main players of CLIL: teachers, students, and parents.

2.5.7.1. Teachers

As grassroots implementers, teachers are the ultimate deciding factors in the triumph, or not, of a CLIL program since, as Halbach (2009) wisely asserts, "the success of bilingual education depends on the daily work carried out by teachers in the classroom" (p. 25). For this exact reason, teachers must be given adequate time to plan and prepare, with incentives and recognition being

made for the additional effort they are putting into their profession (Halbach, 2009). CLIL teachers must be open to questioning everything to ensure optimal learning: from practices and methodologies, assessment, feedback, and how the classroom is organized, to their own personal beliefs about achievement, ability, and diversity.

The CLIL teacher is, in most cases, a content specialist first, having acquired the language qualifications as a secondary measure in order to give bilingual lessons. Most CLIL teachers are, like their students, second language speakers themselves (Nikula et al., 2013). Research conducted by Schuitemaker-King (2012) found that CLIL instructors should be doubly qualified, both as subject and language teachers, to truly advance CLIL objectives. However, as Nikula et al. (2013) note, very few education systems actually require these qualifications. In this same vein, many can attest to the fact that most CLIL teachers do not have any formal education in language pedagogy (Dalton-Puffer et al., 2009; de Graaff et al., 2007; Eynitskaya & Morton, 2011).

As previously mentioned, teachers should be playing a different role than before, utilizing frequently and consistently cooperative and collaborative strategies; however, pragmatic studies done on classroom discourse in CLIL, as put forth by Nikula et al. (2013), show that teachers are still reverting back to traditional roles, in charge of all speech and language taking place, since this is the role that teachers have historically played. The same authors (2013) offer a solution to having teachers break free of these traditional roles and explore the possibilities of CLIL:

[...] it would be beneficial for teachers to be conscious of the constraining tendencies that classrooms as institutional settings may have on learner discourse, so that they can plan activities that would both offer students possibilities to experiment with various forms of talk within the confines of classrooms and provide them with realistic expectations regarding the possibility of CLIL settings to provide an arena for engaging in FL use (p. 83).

Teachers are the backbone of the classroom and must exude traits that students are drawn to, such as optimism, positive energy, tolerance, flexibility, friendliness, attentiveness, high energy, and respectfulness (Madrid, 2004; Madrid & Pérez Cañado, 2018). As Mehisto (2007) elucidates, learning environments where kids feel safe psychologically and are not afraid to make mistakes are crucial if students are to communicate with spontaneity. Therefore, educators are faced with the task of making their classroom as safe and accepting as possible.

As well as being responsible for the workings of the class and being a secondary source of input, the teacher also serves a very important role in ensuring quality measures (Coyle, 2007b). Teachers play an essential part of regularly guaranteeing that their teaching is up-to-date, by continuously incorporating new technologies. They must teach students how to become

actively involved in their learning and give verbal rationale for their answers based on reasoning. In that same vein, nowadays these stakeholders are not only charged with being linguistically and academically competent, but they must possess other traits that allow them to be quality teachers, mainly what some have regarded as *pedagogical tact*:

to use Aristotle's distinction, teaching is not only about *poiesis*, that is a process of production for which we need a capacity for judgement called *techne*, but about *praxis*, that is, a process oriented towards the human good, for which we need a capacity for judgement called *phronesis* or practical wisdom (Forghani-Arani et al. 2019, p. 18, authors' emphasis).

This capability to maneuver difficult or complicated situations in the classroom, dealing with complex discussions and impromptu decisions is not even a competence, but is *practical wisdom*, argue Forghani-Arani et al. (2019), or otherwise denominated "quality or "excellence" that permeates and characterizes the whole person" (p. 18). Overall, teachers must be doted with this capability if they are to be able to properly handle diversity:

A teacher can be knowledgeable, understanding, caring, empathetic, reflective, self-aware, and autonomous, and still not be effective in diverse classrooms. Despite good planning, teachers can find it challenging to make spur of the moment pedagogical decisions. This concept is at the heart of teaching: the need for concrete situated judgements about what is educationally desirable, both with regard to general principles of education and with regard to the specific case at hand (idem, 2019, p. 18).

The EASNIE (2016) highlights the essentiality of well-trained teachers in CLIL schemes and how they are fundamental if outcomes are to improve: "quality and effective teaching can be defined as the kind of teaching which leads to high learner achievement, using outcomes that matter to future success" (p. 19). The guide (2016) states various tactics that are synonymous with quality learning, which teachers should resolve to promote in their class at all times (p. 19):

- sustainable knowledge;
- knowledge used for a deeper understanding of the world;
- actionable knowledge;
- a willingness and desire to continue learning;
- critical thinking, collaborative skills, creativity, independence and problem-solving ability; and
- a democratic attitude of mind.

Similarly, the guide (2016) lists assets that analogous with good teaching (pp. 19-20):

- visible, well-organized, planned, and reflective pedagogic leadership;
- clear mandates for teachers and a professional pedagogic climate;

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING: A QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE STUDY. CHAPTER 2 BILINGUAL EDUCATION

- teacher competence: a rigorous subject knowledge and efficient use of this knowledge in relation to a deep understanding of the learners;
- safe, supportive, and encouraging learning environment; and
- search for evidence, founded on a context-based critical reflection.

For their part, Håkansson and Sundberg (2012) pinpoint five dimensions between the teachers and students, necessary for quality teaching to occur:

1. Collective learning between students and teachers.
2. Collaborative learning between students and teachers.
3. A safe environment where students can make mistakes and express themselves freely with no fear of judgement or harsh correction but feel supported.
4. Teachers orient the students through specific goals.
5. Teachers and students learn together and build upon knowledge accrued in class.

Likewise, Coe et al. (2014) find that quality teaching is based upon six elements: content knowledge, quality of instruction, classroom climate, classroom management, beliefs, and behaviors (reverberated by Mitchell, 2014).

In a study on pedagogical performance in CLIL undertaken by de Graaff et al. (2007), they assume five basic principles regarding teaching content in a FL and basic practices that educators should adhere to including making sure the input level is accessible for all but not excessively easy; regular check-ins should be used as a way to monitor students' comprehension; language features should be included in activities; ample opportunities must be given for students to interact and react; and, students must be encouraged and prompted to reflect and participate.

CLIL is, by nature more demanding for teachers. It requires more preparation and work, and demands that teachers investigate, create, all the while being sufficiently proficient so as to have confidence in both the content and target language competence. Pérez Cañado (2013) manifests the workload that falls on teachers' shoulders is substantial: "they must not only be content specialists, but should also have received training in second language pedagogy and need to be capable of providing adequate language input paramount to attaining success in these types of programs" (p. 19).

Expanding on this, Marsh et al. (2010) lists other knowledge that he argues all CLIL educators should possess (p. 27):

- Commitment to cognitive, social and affective development.

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING: A QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE STUDY. CHAPTER 2 BILINGUAL EDUCATION

- Understanding the core characteristics of CLIL and how they are connected with the best educational practices.
- Awareness of how important language is on content learning and knowledge of interdependence of language (L1, L2, L3).
- Understanding the importance of methodology and assessment; cooperation with colleagues; use of strategies.
- Building direction and focus.
- Constructing safe, meaningful learning experiences.
- Understanding the importance of self-reflection and auto-evaluation.
- Understanding the importance of learning resources and environment in the classroom.
- Use of proper CLIL and classroom management.

Preparation is absolutely key for all CLIL educators. How learning is going to take place should be one of the principal queries in teachers' minds when planning a lesson and should be divided beforehand into three phases, as suggested by Coyle et al. (2010): first, meeting input; second, processing input; and finally, producing a response (p. 92).

All of these stages must be carefully considered by the teacher so as to positively affect their creation or selection of materials. The tasks should be multi-layered and multi-staged with a view to attend to both affective and cognitive issues and aim to include all students. When teachers choose or create materials, they must keep in mind how that particular activity, via language, is going to be perceived by the student and it must be done in a reasonable and visible manner.

Especially important is the process of introducing new content by limiting the amount of new material so as not to overwhelm, yet neither underwhelm, the pupils: "educators need to constantly evaluate how learners are comprehending new material and the role that language plays in the process and must monitor the role of familiarity and novelty in both content and language, so that learning is both accessible and challenging in the right way at the right times" (Coyle et al., 2010, p. 96). This can be done, proposes Tomlinson (2017), by probing students' *readiness* levels, or their knowledge in any skill or content point at any given point in their learning trajectory, and is especially important to consider since many students will have varying readiness levels at all times. Within these parameters falls the task of scaffolding, differentiated by San Isidro and Pérez Cañado (2023) as micro and macro. The former are measures that the teacher has premeditatedly decided upon, that are included in the materials, resources, and instructions. The latter includes more communicative, spontaneous support that the teacher offers students during class without having previously pondered about it, or without having explicitly written it down.

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING: A QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE STUDY. CHAPTER 2 BILINGUAL EDUCATION

The role of the teacher, as Marsh (2013) wisely states, has changed from “the feeder of information” to the “manager of learning resources” (p. 80), and thus, he or she is responsible for the creation, designing and development of activities, a relaxed atmosphere, and interpersonal relations within the classroom. One of the many vital jobs for an educator is designing the lessons “proactively for variability”, which is when teachers “anticipate and value the incredible strengths and diversity of our learners” (CAST, 2018, p. 2, referencing Meyer et al., 2014), and in this way, educators can be assured they are prepared to begin catering to diversity.

Accordingly, teachers need to be aware of students’ feelings and ensure they explore interesting topics in class so learners are involved in their learning and retain content and language points more easily. Teachers should develop support systems for students, such as a buddy system, assistant teachers, peer tutoring, on-call teachers, and homework clubs (Mehisto, 2007). The support system is a way to ensure the quality of the CLIL program and can benefit the learning process and interpersonal relations in the CLIL class. Teachers must instill and restore confidence in students, they must tell students the expectations of the course and set them up for success, fuel motivation, and allow them to assume responsibility for their learning. Educators must be aware of their presence in the classroom and how their relationship with students affects their achievement and learning and how they can make the classroom as inclusive as possible. Sette et al. (2019) find that teachers may not be aware of how much of an influence they have on students, concluding they “may represent an important authority in affecting students’ decisions to include or exclude classmates from academic group activities” (p. 8).

Teachers are also charged with having confidence in their knowledge of both language and subject. In a study done by Nikula (2016), the research concluded that teacher language during class was dry and flat, giving rise to the debate of target language level for teachers. However, irrespective of the actual accreditation level, educators should be able to manipulate the language, and transmit colorful, interesting speech to the students, and of course, personal situations must be considered: while a B2 accreditation may be sufficient for one teacher, a C1 might be needed for another. The competence in the foreign language must be high enough for teachers to be able to “allow the subject to emerge” as it normally would, despite being presented in another language (Coyle et al., 2010, p. 92). Notwithstanding, this is yet another added pressure.

When it comes to content knowledge, Hattie (2009) finds that subject knowledge on the teachers’ behalf does not affect the quality of learner’s outcomes; however, it is important, as previously stated, that teachers feel confident enough with their subject to comfortably teach it because, how this is taught *does* affect the learners a great deal.

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING: A QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE STUDY. CHAPTER 2 BILINGUAL EDUCATION

In that same vein, language use in the classroom is another task for teachers, and they must be excruciatingly careful with the words they use in the classroom, justifies Dalton-Puffer (2011), since “the language choices of individual teachers have a significant impact” on whether students continue to use the L2 during class time (p. 191). The author (2011) suggests creating *class rules* for the students that the teachers must enforce and, of course, follow themselves.

Especially important for inclusive practices and catering to diversity is knowledge about linguistics (Fillmore & Snow, 2000). The multitude of language present in a single class, such as the language the content is being taught in and the language the students are conversing in, must all be given importance. The authors sustain that all teachers must have “a basic knowledge of educational linguistics [as a] prerequisite to promoting language development for the same reasons any educated member of society should know something about language” (p. 10). Language diversity is, cautions Eurydice (2023), something that cannot be overlooked, as it places quite a burden on teachers, who now must be knowledge about theoretical and practical means to support multiculturalism.

And, beyond basic linguistics, educators should also be knowledgeable in academic discourse and language use, since this understanding is the key “to understanding the unique features of academic language” (p. 15). Furthermore, academic language is necessary for students to be able to continue their studies past the age of 16, move on to higher education and be successful in the future in the L2, which is why teachers must be able to teach this aspect of the L2 to their students.

Concerning native teachers teaching a content in their native language, these teachers must be fully trained in knowledge about their native language, expose Fillmore and Snow (2000). Each language (for example, Spanish, English, German, French, and Arabic) has its own eccentricities or irregularities that teachers must understand, based on their historical construction. However, on account of their mother tongue, many native speakers are proficient in the competences and may “take for granted” peculiarities that might be very confusing for those who are learning the language (idem, 2000, p. 16). This is why teacher training needs to bolster language competence for all so CLIL teachers are fully versed in all linguistic aspects of the FL.

Tied to this is the knowledge of vocabulary and understanding how to teach it, as put forth by the authors (idem, 2000):

What does it mean to acquire a word? What do we know when we know a word? Knowing a word involves knowing something of its core meaning. But few words are unidimensional in meaning or use, so knowing a word goes well beyond knowing a definition of it. Knowing a word requires also

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING: A QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE STUDY. CHAPTER 2 BILINGUAL EDUCATION

an understanding of how it relates to similar forms [...] Vocabulary instruction could be more effective if teachers understood how words are learned in non-instructional contexts, through conversational interactions, and through encounters with written language. Knowing individual words more deeply is as important as knowing more words (p. 18)

Regarding the target language of the teacher, another area which has profited from recent research, it is fairly agreed upon that CLIL instructors have an excellent command of the FL, although there is disagreement upon what exact level should be required and varying degrees of intermediate or advanced are usually the norm. Laws on this topic differ around the continent; taking the instance of Spain, in Andalusia for example, CLIL teachers are required to have at least a B2 level accredited for and, from 2020, CLIL teachers in the capital must have a C1 requirement (Granados & Lorenzo, 2022). Most recently, Pérez Cañado (2024) highlights the importance of a C2 accreditation in order for CLIL classes to be truly successful. Marsh (2013) underlines that even though CLIL teachers may be content specialists and not, per say, language specialists, "CLIL contexts require linguistically-aware teachers" (p. 96), which is why teaching training schemes and second language acquisition knowledge is fundamental for CLIL implementation. He elaborates: "considering the role of language as a conduit for understanding it is vital that any teacher, whether using the first language of the students, or an additional language, be highly skilled in the use, understanding, and ability to actively use language for teaching and learning" (p. 96).

Reflective teaching practices are yet another cornerstone of CLIL instruction, says Guazzieri (2007), so teachers can "become more aware of the approach to group work they are implementing in their classes and decide whether any amendments are advisable to make group work more beneficial to the active learning of both content and language" (p. 173). She points out that some classrooms still revolve around "a teacher centered model of teaching", where the teacher talks at the students and the students simply take notes (p. 173). The EASNIE (2016) adds that successful teachers must not only dispose of a "repertoire of practices", but must also "possess a deep understanding of how learning occurs and of the determinants that influence attainment" (p. 32). As proposed by Marsh et al. (2010), teachers themselves must also be students: "a dynamic CLIL teacher is a learner who follows a path of enquiry, reflection and evaluation. This provides an active model for students to develop the ways and means of learning through their own research and evaluation" (p. 24).

Of course, this new, dynamic role comes with more responsibility, but it is a great deal more conducive of inclusive education than traditional methods, as put forth by UNESCO (2017):

In this changed view, the teacher's role becomes one of guiding and facilitating engagement and learning, rather than instructing. This makes it possible for a diverse group of students to be

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING: A QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE STUDY. CHAPTER 2 BILINGUAL EDUCATION

educated together, since the students need not to be at the same point in their learning, or receive the same instruction from their teacher. Rather, they can work at their own pace and in their own way, within a common framework of objectives and activities (p. 19).

Drawing upon the idea of collaboration and lifelong learning mentality, it is imperative that all teachers take part of the CLIL community of teachers, assert Coyle et al. (2010). In Portugal, a study (Messiou et al., 2016) was carried out with teachers throughout the country, investigating their perceptions on inclusion. Teacher collaboration was highlighted as being one of the main indicators for motivation and it was reported that collaborating with coworkers and students gave them more insight and purpose to think about diversity, as well as boosting their confidence when it came to experimenting with innovative, diverse methodologies. Furthermore, collaboration amongst educators is critical:

Sharing ideas with evidence about how students of any age think they learn enables teachers to construct their own theories of practice, based on professional beliefs and practice-based evidence about how and why their students learn [and] to develop as CLIL professionals, to gain confidence, to explore the CLIL agenda, to take risks and move beyond the familiar, it is desirable that teachers belong to or build a professional learning community where everyone considers themselves as learners as well as teachers (Coyle et al., 2010, p. 69).

Teachers must be committed to IC as well as being visual and vocal in their mobility to other countries, something that before might not have been attainable for many teachers, but now, studying and teaching abroad are financed in part by European programs, which can help teachers gain experience abroad, strengthening their linguistic competence as well as learning from other environments. This is extremely important, since multicultural training is not common for most teachers around Europe (Eurydice, 2023). Recent reports show that only a fourth of teachers were formally trained about how to teach in multilingual environments (idem, 2023). Erasmus+ programs are having more success, and Spain in particular is taking advantage of the programs: it is one of three countries (along with Iceland and the Netherlands) with the “highest percentage of mobile foreign language teachers, with more than 80% of them reporting transnational mobility” (idem, 2023, p. 111). For teachers, this can be seen in the Professional Visits, which gives Primary and Secondary school teachers the prospect to go abroad with a view to study, observe, and learn from another atmosphere.

In this same vein, cooperation amongst teachers and integration between subjects is a key element, and all educators, regardless if they are NLA or LA, should plan together on how to integrate content and language across the curriculum. There should be communication and collaboration between all teachers, in particular, the content and language teachers (Järvinen, 2007; Mitchell, 2018; Muñoz, 2007). For his part, Mitchell (2018) sheds light on the importance

of collaborative teaching and its novelty, since teaching has been mostly a solitary action in the past. However, he points out that inclusive educators have been collaborating with teachers, professionals, parents, doctors, and therapists for decades, setting a foundation for how to successfully have open, honest lines of communication and facilitate cooperation to a high degree. The author (2018) paints a visual picture of how educators must begin to see themselves: "instead of being soloists, teachers have now become members of an orchestra" (p. 51). UNESCO (2017) further highlights the importance of teacher collaboration: "sharing practices among colleagues is an effective means of encouraging teacher development. It is important to encourage teachers to collaborate with and support colleagues, to reflect on their practice and to build 'team' knowledge and skills" (p. 36).

Educators are also charged with making proper use of a "repertoire of didactic strategies" to "support continuous language growth" (Marsh et al., 2010, p. 21), which are listed below:

- zone of proximal development;
- error awareness and correction;
- first language transfer and interference;
- translanguaging;
- anti-plateauing strategies; and
- modeling.

Keeping the learning environment safe and comfortable is another task teachers are charged with: "one of the greatest challenges for CLIL teachers is to develop a learning environment which is linguistically accessible whilst being cognitively demanding – one in which progression in both language and content learning develops systematically" (Coyle et al., 2010, p. 68). Equally as important is making students the protagonists and occupying themselves with their success. Guazzieri (2007) highlights some of the fundamental questions that should arise from CLIL teachers who seek to find the heart of education, regarding the protagonists of the classroom, the students:

- Why do kids go to school?
- What is school really for?
- What do we expect from our students?
- What do our students want to become?
- How can we help them do that through CLIL?

Catering to diversity is another vital element in the CLIL methodology and yet another demanding task that educators must undertake. This may mean creating new materials and coordinating with other teachers, "which means an extra workload", especially when compared

with traditional FL teachers (Durán-Martínez & Beltrán-Llavador, 2016, p. 88). The UNESCO (2017) recommends that teachers constantly revise and evaluate teaching strategies based on the types of learners in the classroom, as well as focus on keeping a *positive* mindset: “in an inclusive and equitable education system, all teachers need to approach the diversity among learners with a positive attitude and an understanding of inclusive practices” (p. 35).

Assessment is another complicated element, especially since the CLIL teacher is now assessing both language and subject. Furthermore, it is also up to the teacher to assess each student individually, based on their needs, and teachers must be able to respond to the different students, constantly checking on their progress. Providing constructive, reasonably immediate feedback to let students know how they are performing also falls upon the workload of the teachers, especially in the CLIL classroom. The evaluation of students must go beyond just numerical grades for content and language skills, reasons UNESCO (2017):

In an effective education system, all students are assessed on an on-going basis in terms of their progress through the curriculum. This allows teachers to respond to a wide range of individual learners. This means that teachers and other professionals must be well informed about their students’ characteristics and attainments, while also assessing broader qualities, such as their capacity for cohesion and cooperation (p. 34)

To conclude, it can be acknowledged that while being a CLIL teacher requires the ability to effectively teach both content and language, and thus the need for adequate mastery of both, it is much more complex than that. It requires *willingness* to teach these classes, *confidence* to carry them out in the target language, *patience* to work with all types of learners and levels, and a *commitment* to take on all the responsibility that comes with it. Ultimately, what really matters, as summarized by Coyle et al. (2010), is the presence of “principles and practices which have the potential to provide more learners with high-quality, accessible, motivating, and challenging plurilingual and pluricultural learning experiences” (p. 166), something all CLIL educators must ensure they possess and adhere to.

For CLIL teachers to live up to these high standards, they must be offered with proper training to take on this workload and forge new territory. Accordingly, the following section, will critically examine teacher training needs for CLIL teachers.

2.5.7.2. Teacher training

Deduced from the previous section and given the complexity of the role of the teacher in the CLIL classroom, it is undoubtedly perspicuous that teacher training may be one of the most imperative foundation blocks to this pedagogy. As highlighted by Coyle et al. (2010), CLIL

teachers should “consider themselves as learners as well as teachers” (p. 69). Marsh (2013) concurs, and referencing the *European CLIL Teacher Education Framework*, states: “having teachers able to see learning through the eyes of the students and being able to learn alongside students is a recurrent finding with respect to teacher perception and attitudes” (p. 135). Instructors are not only teachers, but lifelong learners, and must commit to rigorously updating themselves as professionals by attending workshops, classes, conferences, or courses to exchange information about experiences, materials, and strategies, as well as be continually willing to learn about CLIL methodology and use inclusive, innovative methodologies. Fillmore and Snow (2000) stress the sheer pressure that comes with this profession given what it entails and demands. The list of competences, the authors say, required for teachers to have is so exhaustive that ultimately “teacher preparation programs often do not make time for substantial attention to crucial matters, choosing instead a checklist approach to addressing the various required competences” (p. 3).

Indisputably, no educational approaches can be reliable without trained, high-quality teachers, which is why educators must commit to constant teacher training and improvement, despite the fact that “teaching is a demanding and at times underappreciated profession” (CCN, 2010, p. 13). In a study done by Pena et al. (2007), bilingual teachers concluded that they felt uneasy in their teaching abilities and generally felt like they had not been given enough training (referenced by Halbach, 2009).

In light of this, Durán-Martínez and Beltrán-Llavador (2016) maintain that teacher training has only become increasingly more necessary. Coyle et al. (2010) argue that “teacher supply and the quality of CLIL practice lead to the systematic growth of CLIL through integration in different ways in different educational systems, and that the key to future capacity building and sustainability is teacher education” (p. 167); the contrary would ultimately be conclusive of its demise. Teacher training is imperative to ensure that we are employing effective, quality, and sustainable CLIL practices. Furthermore, students are at jeopardy if teachers and governments do not put quality insurance policies in place, since “[...] it could be said that poor-quality CLIL could contribute to a ‘lost generation’ of young people’s learning” (idem, 2010, p. 161)

As previously touched upon, ultimately, teachers are the ones who will move the CLIL curriculum or not. The policies will come from policy-makers, but the true implementers are the grassroots practitioners, which is why teachers need training on CLIL and bilingual education, as well as inclusive, research-backed, innovative methodologies, maintains Halbach (2009). Teachers “need the tools and knowledge to understand what bilingualism in general, and bilingual education in particular, entails” (idem, 2009, p. 25).

Currently, in Spain, where teacher training programs are continually heralded as insufficient, regional educational authorities are attempting to compensate and adopt “specific measures” as a way to compensate for the lack of training opportunities for in-service teachers (Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2010, p. 37). But, despite this action, it is not enough and “the future needs of CLIL programs demand a more planned course of action concerning both teacher formation and in-service teacher support (idem, 2010, p. 37). The NALTT Project (*Needs Analysis of Language Teacher Training: A European Perspective*, EA2010-0087, funded by the Spanish Ministry of Education) was specifically aimed at figuring out the main problems teachers face when stepping into the bilingual classroom and, thanks to conclusions from projects like these “concrete teacher training proposals” have been created, says Pérez Cañado (2021b, p. 38), such as the *Máster Interuniversitario en Enseñanza Bilingüe y AICLE*²⁹ in Andalusia.

Specifically, in Andalusia, focus is placed on accessible FL competence and teachers are no longer confronted with barriers due to their nationality/mother tongue, since “non-native distinction is becoming increasingly irrelevant” (Pérez Cañado, 2021b, p. 36). Notably, teachers in Andalusia who wish to participate in the bilingual program need to have a minimum B2 certification: “instead of simply having a native-like mastery of the English language, CLIL teachers now need to be well-versed in academic, disciplinary, or subject-related literacies, together with EFL skills” (idem, 2021b, pp. 36-37). On that same note, importance is given to teachers’ abilities in pedagogical practices in addition to a knowledge of linguistics paired with intercultural competence. There is less prioritizing of teachers who are native speakers, nor are these professionals given preference or thought to be superior to their non-native, highly trained counterparts: “what is now important is the instructor’s level of linguistic and intercultural competence and his/her teaching ability, and not whether (s)he is a native speaker of the target language” (idem, 2021b, p. 37). This is exceptionally promising as CLIL methodology requires more than advanced FL competence.

Want of confidence in the target language is one of the main causes in reported instances of bad teaching practices when it comes to CLIL, something that may easily be resolved by having linguistic support available to in-service educators. Unfortunately, inadequate target language competence on teachers’ behalves continues to be a widespread problem throughout Spain. The “lack of support” teachers receive, coupled with a “shortage of teacher training programs”, is a

²⁹ Online Master in Bilingual Education and CLIL (MIEB): a 100% online whose main objective is to train CLIL educators as a way to guarantee a more homogeneous, reliable implementation of CLIL in all grades. For more information see the University of Jaen’s website: <https://www.ujaen.es/estudios/oferta-academica/masteres/master-interuniversitario-en-ensenanza-bilingue-y-aprendizaje-integrado-de-contenidos-y>.

reality that many teachers face in Spain, something that must be remedied in the very near future (Pérez Cañado, 2013, p. 19).

Thus, CLIL teachers are burdened with more than just language knowledge and teacher training needs for CLIL teachers are immense. Having a language certification and content knowledge is not sufficient because teachers, argues Pérez Cañado (2021b), are charged with possessing “a new skillset that goes well beyond merely linguistic aspects” (p. 37). This means rethinking this profession in a way (Siqueira, 2017), as well as commitment from top-down initiatives to “a rethinking of teacher training in order to bridge the gap between implication and application, ensuring such ongoing professional development truly trickles down to on-the-ground practice” (idem, 2021b, p. 37).

According to Pérez Cañado (2018d) there are seven “core CLIL teacher competences” every teacher should be equipped with and develop throughout their professional careers (p. 38):

1. linguistic competence,
2. pedagogical competence,
3. scientific knowledge,
4. organisational competence,
5. interpersonal competence,
6. collaborative competence, and,
7. reflective and developmental competence.

For the first point, *linguistically* the same author (2021b) says teachers need intercultural awareness, notions of BICS and CALP and plurilingualism. *Pedagogically*, educators need to be familiar with student-centered methodologies, resources, materials, and a “more transparent, holistic” way of assessing students (idem, 2021b, p. 38). For the third type of knowledge, *scientific*, teachers must understand the background and foundation of CLIL. *Organizationally*, teachers need to be able to put their knowledge together and manage the class correctly and efficiently. For the fifth and sixth core competences, *interpersonal* and *collaborative*, teachers have to be able to create a welcoming, safe environment “where students receive personalized attention and feel safe and unthreatened to participate and take risks, as well as the capacity to liaise with colleagues to a greater extent, stepping up collaborative and teamwork” (idem, 2021b, p. 38). This goes along with authors Rascón Moreno and Casas Pedrosa (2021), who maintain collaboration is essential between LA and NLA teachers, especially for CLIL and English, given that the latter “play an essential role in the language teaching context and must coordinate with non-linguistic area teachers and teaching assistants in the common interests of providing a

successful bilingual experience at school” (p. 11). And finally, the last competence, *reflective and developmental*, demands that teachers be lifelong learners themselves, “constantly up-to-speed with the latest information and research on CLIL developments” (idem, 2021b, p. 38), as well as be constructively critiques of their own teaching styles.

Teacher training schemes must adapt itself to the educators in need of advances in innovations in methodology, since teachers may not have any experience with them, argues Pérez Cañado (2021b, referencing Cabezas Cabello, 2010):

Task-based learning, collaborative work, meaning- and form-focussed processing are all considered pivotal in fostering this transformative pedagogy. However, this considerable pedagogical investment in innovative pedagogical practices which CLIL brings with it may be largely unfamiliar to teachers, not having experienced such practices first-hand as students. In this sense, teacher training actions should be considerably stepped up on the methodological front (p. 43).

For her part, Järvinen (2007) notes that “a research-based, content-specific, but flexible and relatively extensive module for CLIL teacher training” is urgently needed (p. 255). Commenting on NLA teachers and their struggle when it comes to teaching language in class, since many CLIL teachers are content and not language specialists, the author highlights that their greatest challenge arises when trying to figure out how to “promote students’ language development – how to focus on language form apart from meaning in a way that is both effective and appropriate” (p. 258).

Discernibly, language acquisition training is of extreme importance. For his part, Scanlan (2011) discerns that all teachers “to some degree” are language teachers and therefore, all, but especially bilingual teachers, must be trained in linguistics and language use. Authors Mehisto (2012) and Marsh (2013) comment upon the fact that few teachers have been trained in the art of teaching academic language, which can, in turn, be of extreme detriment for the students receiving the classes. Academic language study must dedicate special focus on the needs that may arise during this type of approach: “during teaching and learning sequences, and be embedded through scaffolding according to just-in-time techniques so as to ensure successful learning outcomes” (Marsh, 2013, p. 100). Fillmore and Snow (2000) defend that the reality is academic language is misunderstood and a point of confusion for many teachers. Referencing Cummins (1984), academic language is “cognitively demanding” and “relatively decontextualized and relies on broad knowledge of words, phraseology, grammar, and pragmatic conventions for expression, understanding, and interpretation” (p. 20). The same authors discern that the subject being taught in the FL is not of the most importance; there needs to be a focus on language, and students must be engaged with the content in “sophisticated” ways. Thus, teachers must have sufficient training in the language to be able to do this in class regularly and effectively (p. 22).

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING: A QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE STUDY. CHAPTER 2 BILINGUAL EDUCATION

Educators must also be trained in the use of the L2 and its use in the content subject so they “know how to structure their own language output for maximum clarity” (Fillmore & Snow, 2000, p. 4). Likewise, and equally as important, teachers should be instructed in techniques that can be used to understand students who may not be able to express themselves completely in the L1 or L2. Being able to communicate with all students is fundamental “since understanding student talk is key to analysis of what students know, how they understand, and what teaching moves would be useful” (idem, 2000, p. 4).

Teachers must be fully competent regarding knowledge about the language they are using, argue Fillmore and Snow (2000), including the sounds, morphemes, words, phrases, sentences and discourses; the “peculiarities” of the language “rooted in the history” of its development; the selection of proper and adequate materials and activities for their students; understanding classroom environments to “avoid linguistic obstacles to content area learning”; and taking responsibility for exposing their students to the language in a “vivid way” that is interesting and appealing to the students (pp. 14-18).

In addition to FL competence, it is increasingly important that teachers have knowledge about linguistics in general and not just a single language or FL, given the diversity of students and the fact that many students taught will not hold the same mother tongue or culture. This familiarity with languages and linguistics, insist Fillmore and Snow (2000), can also help teachers become more multicultural, accepting, and more tolerant of mistakes, since

an understanding of linguistics can help teachers see that the discourse patterns they value are aspects of their own cultures and backgrounds; they are neither universal nor inherently more valid than other possible patterns. Without such an understanding, teachers sometimes assume that there is something wrong with students whose ways of using language are not what they expect (p. 4)

Other specific areas for teacher training include: secondary education, given that, unlike primary teachers, they are not trained to teach various subjects (Marsh et al., 2010); the integration of content and language due to a lack of knowledge in this area (Marsh et al., 2010); literacy (Marsh, 2013); intercultural competence and linguistics (Fillmore & Snow, 2000); and, inclusive education (Pérez Cañado, 2018b; Roiha, 2014).

Regarding this last item, many teachers find themselves at a loss when it comes to diversity and Florian et al. (2016) highlight that “a commitment to high levels of inclusion and achievement makes great demands on those who work in classrooms and schools” (p. 2). Educators must have more than a basic understanding of the different indicators of attainment and of what affects achievement both positively and negatively. UNESCO (2017) draws attention

specifically to how education authorities can get teachers to work together on defining what inclusive education is. Failure to get conversation moving about inclusion can be dangerous since:

Without such a language, teachers may find it difficult to experiment with new possibilities. It is through their shared experiences that colleagues can help each other to articulate what they currently do and to define what they might like to do. Their common language and shared experiences are also the means for challenging assumptions and biases about particular groups of learners (p. 25).

For her part, Roiha (2014) underlines the importance of including differentiation in teacher training schemes, tailored to in-service teachers who can put it into practice. Teachers should have ways to *share* their experiences and, furthermore, policy-makers need to take action: “to aid the process of making differentiation a natural and implicit part of teaching” (idem, 2014, p. 12). Blair (2020) highlights the importance of making sure teachers know *the what* and *the how* of their profession, which is why teacher training should be focused on educators learning to understand: “*what* they are helping their learners to achieve, and *how* teachers themselves can best succeed in this aim” (p. 7).

Intercultural competence (IC) is another widely forgotten topic in teacher training, despite the classroom environment of the 21st century and indisputable importance in any the CLIL scheme. Fillmore and Snow (2000) argue that the vast majority of teachers are not prepared to deal with the linguistic and cultural diversity in the classrooms of today “because most have no had well-designed professional preparation for their current challenges” (p. 3). Given that bilingual education hopes to create competent intercultural speakers, teachers themselves must be trained in this area, defends Cavaleiro (2020). Intercultural competence allows for teachers to enhance their awareness of cultural diversity, important since society today is so diverse and teachers are interacting with students with whom they do not share a mother tongue, or a culture, religion, background, or ethnicity. Thus, knowledge about culture, linguistics, and heritage can give teachers insight into backgrounds distinct from their own, making them more understanding and accepting of students who may make mistakes or behave differently for cultural reasons. Ultimately, mindset around what teaching and learning looks like must be reimaged and teachers “need to abandon their traditional practices and be ready to humbly rethink a lot of what they have been doing over the years in order to indeed prepare intercultural teachers to this more than ever intercultural world” (Siqueira, 2017, p. 400). Intercultural competence is a topic in need of desperate attention, as Forghani-Arani et al. (2019) draw our attention to: despite the

superdiversity that characterizes our societies, not much is known about how teachers teach in diverse classrooms and how they can be prepared to do so" (p. 7)³⁰.

Undoubtedly, given the extra demands of CLIL courses, many authors attest to the difficulties that CLIL teachers face (e.g. Brown, 2004; Dickey, 2004; Hellekjaer & Wilkinson, 2001; Lasagabaster, 2008; Marsh et al., 2010; Mehisto et al., 2008; Pérez Cañado, 2013, 2021a; Ruiz de Zarobe, 2008; Scanlan, 2011; Smith, 2005; Tudor, 2008), leaving us to conclude that teacher training for CLIL is even that much more critical. Teachers are forging their way through unknown territory, as Pérez Cañado (2013) states, making this practice unstable without the support of reliable teacher training schemes, and vulnerable to subjectivity on teachers' behalves if they have not experienced quality CLIL or bilingual education for themselves:

Teachers who embark on this difficult enterprise can apply little of others' navigational knowledge. Their attitudes furthermore stem from their prior personal experience in compartmentalized learning and might thus give way to certain misgivings, misconstrued perceptions, or false myths about the CLIL endeavor which need to be dispelled. For instance, they might harbor misguided beliefs about content and L1 learning lagging behind as a result of integrated educational practices or regarding their suitability only for the most academically gifted students or those with a particular learning style (p. 18).

In conclusion, teacher training is the backbone of any educational initiative, and undeniably essential if CLIL is to be successful and sustainable in its endeavor to bolster language proficiency levels and allow Europe to flourish as a plurilingual continent. Several factors must be considered if teacher training schemes are to be effective, including knowledge about linguistics and language use, IC, collaboration techniques, and regularly updating educators with up-to-date methodology. The need for highly competent, motivated, and knowledgeable teachers is undeniable, and is a pressing concern in the majority of countries around the world, especially given that this requirement is not backed by proper teacher training courses in many regions: "there is general consensus that teachers need to be equipped with relevant competences throughout the teacher education continuum if they are expected to fulfill the growing expectations they face" (Forghani-Arani et al., 2019, p. 13). Lamentably, it would seem that educational policy approaches in many areas of the world simply "are not always coherent with the intended objectives, are often limited in scope or even counterproductive and misguided" (p. 13). This means that teachers are charged with informing themselves, dedicating themselves to continual improvement, and the idea of lifelong learners as the world changes. Teachers who

³⁰ Cf. 2.3.2. for more on IC.

consider themselves CLIL instructors must continually submit themselves to training and honor a commitment to improvement throughout the duration of their professional careers. Touching upon this, Forghani-Arani et al. (2019) and Schleicher (2018) emphasize the need for teachers who are lifelong learners, mostly because professional development courses for teachers are, in the vast majority of education systems, singularly focused on teachers who are beginning their teaching careers or have not even begun yet, which is unacceptable for today's classrooms: "teachers' development must be viewed in terms of on-going learning" due to the longevity of an educator's career and the changes that society will pass through during that time (idem, 2019, p. 29).

2.5.7.3. Students

Focusing on the learners, they take center stage in CLIL. Llinares and Morton (2010) assert that students in CLIL are capable of much more than generally assumed, and this potential can be realized in them as long as educators "provide them with interactional space to articulate their understandings" (p. 62). Vocabulary-wise Bray and McClaskey (2014) urge the exclusive use and promotion of the word "learner" in place of student, since learner implies a responsibility for their education, whereas student refers to something more passive.

Learners are irrefutably complex; and to help shed light on just how complex, Nuthall (2007) explains the three worlds that shape and determine who the learner is, only one of which is presented in its entirety to the teacher: their public world, the semi-private world the student interacts in with the other students, and members of the school; and finally, the completely private world that exists inside the learners' minds.

UNESCO (2017) informs us that students are "levers for change" and that the "presence, participation and achievement of learners are among the most important factors for success" (p. 21, referencing Ainscow, 2005). Unfortunately, research is scant when it comes to the students and, there has been meager research on students' perceptions and opinions about CLIL.

Fortunately, things are changing in this regard. Quite recently, San Isidro and Pérez Cañado (2023) delved deep into learner perspectives when it comes to bilingual schemes, and they note that how learners value their bilingual schemes has not been properly investigated, as agreed upon by Barrios (2022). The previously mentioned authors (2023) make clear that the student perspective is of the utmost importance for research, especially with a view to "identify scope for improvement" (p. 269). Other recent studies (within the past five years) done on students' perceptions include Barrios and Milla Lara (2020), Chaieberras and Rascón Moreno (2018), Mahan and Norheim (2021), Ocaña Peinado (2019), Oxbrow (2018), and Pérez Cañado

(2018b)³¹, all of whom conclude this important cohort has important light to shed on CLIL implementation.

Accordingly, students in the CLIL classroom are different from traditional FL or typical content students. Wolff (2007a) describes the CLIL learner: in the CLIL class, learners have to merge both FL and content learning, a process analogous to how the learner assimilated the first language, where they also learn the linguistic sign and the core concept at the same time. As this author claims, "the CLIL learner (...) forms original concepts which are not shaped by linguistic items related to concepts designated by first language linguistic items" (idem, 2007a, p. 19), alluding to the naturalistic setting in CLIL and changed mindset in learning L2 through content.

On the negative side, bilingual education may be confusing and frustrating for some students and even "daunting" for some (Pérez Cañado, 2013, p. 19). For those who are just beginning to experience bilingual education, it may seem overwhelming at first, but they must not be left out of the conversation, since "[...] learners are agents and therefore full members of the language community" (Coonan, 2011, p. 31). As Cross (2022) heeds warning, if CLIL is not theoretically implemented, teachers might be negligent to the "demands on students", which might intensify problems a student might be having academically (p. 197). On a positive note, San Isidro and Pérez Cañado (2023) find that "learners, as central agents in CLIL programs, have strong faith in the bilingual education system" (p. 279), which is a good indicator of a positive future for CLIL.

In that same vein, students must be willing to put in more effort and educators must allow students to come more into the light, since as a general principle, "[...] inclusive curricula are based on the view that learning occurs when students are actively involved, taking the lead in making sense of their experiences" (Udvari-Solnar, 1996, p. 16, referenced by UNESCO, 2017). This can be done by "enabling [students] to share responsibility for classroom management and the co-construction of learning" (Marsh et al., 2010, p. 26).

At the center of any CLIL scheme are the students and fomenting autonomy in these stakeholders is a major practice. The learners must also shift their idea of what LL entails, and be ready to take on these new challenges, accepting that they will be learning content in a FL.

2.5.7.4. Parents

³¹ Cf. Chapter 3 for research on stakeholders' perspectives.

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING: A QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE STUDY. CHAPTER 2 BILINGUAL EDUCATION

Finally, the last of the three stakeholders, parents, and legal guardians, need to be as active and participative as possible in their children's education, especially those who have lower educational backgrounds or lower SES (Pérez Cañado, 2017b). Unquestionably, "families' involvement is particularly crucial" in all educational settings (UNESCO, 2017, p. 28), and not any less important in CLIL. Evidence, points out Scanlan (2011), "continues to demonstrate the critical role that parents play in successful student achievement" (p. 7).

As for the parents and legal guardians of SEN learners, being properly informed is key. Keeping students out of bilingual classrooms due to outdated reasoning must be avoided and parents must "take active responsibility" when it comes to their child's education (Genesee, 2015, p. 12). Simply enrolling them in bilingual programs is not enough; parents must ensure that their children are receiving the proper attention and their needs are being met in the classroom. For his part, Genesee (2015) suggests "continuous and regular exposure to both languages" is a must for disadvantaged children, so parents should make sure that their children remain in bilingual programs for extended periods of time, avoiding brief periods of bilingual schooling which could be detrimental to their learning, and commit themselves to enrolling their children for the duration of their educational trajectory.

Parents of learners "who are excluded because of their gender, social status, or impairments" must "become involved in supporting change for developing inclusion in schools" (UNESCO, 2017, p. 28, referencing Mittler, 2000). Parents must advocate for a quality education for their children and lobby for equal education rights: "parent involvement positively influences achievement when schools focus on specific learning goals, cultivate trusting collaborative relationships among teachers, families, and community members, and share power and responsibility with parents" (Scanlan, 2011, p. 7).

These stakeholders are fundamental to the process and should be included in the discussion about their children, content and task adaptation, always keeping in mind intelligence, learning methods, and multiple intelligence (Barrios, 2010; Julius & Madrid, 2017; Madrid & Hughes, 2011; Madrid & Pérez Cañado 2018). Parental support is one of the main factors behind academic success, or failure (OECDa, 2019), along with other factors. However, parental encouragement can help students "cultivate resilience" and learn to be "academically resilient" (idem, 2019, p. 66). As Ráez Padilla (2018) delineates: "parents, together with students and parents, are key players in CLIL implementation, so canvassing their opinions can help to shed light upon some of the controversies affecting CLIL characterization [...]" (p. 183). It is critical that parents are included in more discussions when it comes to CLIL, as it seems to be a decisive factor in students' learning trajectories. The same author (2018) alerts us to the fact that higher SES parents, or those that have higher educational levels, might also be able to offer their children

more support in the FL, and consequently, CLIL classroom. The higher-SES parents are also much more satisfied, generally, with the different facets of the bilingual program.

In conclusion, “regular, open communication” with parents is “crucial” in making sure that children get the attention and help that they need and deserve (British Council, 2012, p. 9) and parents must be a part of the conversation when considering the future of CLIL schemes.

2.5.8. Role of the L1

A main concern voiced in the past, regarding CLIL, was the use of a FL and what many stakeholders, principally parents, believed meant the demise of the L1 in students. Pavón Vázquez (2018) denominates this L1-L2 dilemma a *controversial relationship*. Addressing the concern of harm being done to the L1 as a result of instruction through the use of a FL, the author points out: “[...] there are reports that this is not the case, but on the contrary as an additive methodology it may actually strengthen the first language” (p. 14).

In the past, FLT was “dominated” by the mostly unanimous “principle” that the only language that should be used in the classroom was the L2 (Littlewood & Yu, 2011, p. 64), with most stakeholders under the impression that if the L1 and L2 are used jointly in the same class, the L1 will hinder and interfere with the development of the target language (Martínez et al., 2015). This was owed to the fact that before bilingual education established its foundation, it was believed to work due to “the idea that maintaining instruction through the mother tongue for as long as possible” was what was conducive of higher attainment in bilinguals (Irujo, 1998, p. 6). And, while this rationale does exist today, it is not nearly as widely supported.

Given findings from pertinent studies, many involved in bilingual education research have come to realize that the L1 does indeed have a role in the FL classroom. In research carried out by Pavón Vázquez and Ramos Ordóñez (2019), which aimed to identify, describe and analyze the use of key communication strategies employed in the L1 during CLIL classes, the conclusions dispelled the previous question of *if* we should use the L1, leaving only the question of *how* it should be employed. Moreover, Hornberger (2005) implies that learning is maximized when students are allowed to draw upon and correlate all their existing languages and skills in the same class. The use of the L1 leads to a number of advantages, including increased language awareness (Marsh, 2008) and development of cognitive flexibility (Dalton-Puffer, 2016).

As it would be, the very name CLIL does not symbolize a complete monolingual use of the L2 and the “issue” of to use or not to use the L1 in language teaching “has been a problematic area within language teaching for many years” (Marsh, 2013, p. 96). Currently, countries are seeing a major turnaround from complete ignorance to blatant promotion of L1-L2 use due to

“the potential benefits for nurturing metalinguistic awareness and additive bilingualism” (Marsh, 2013, p. 96, referencing Horst et al., 2010; Krashen, 1985). Researchers now acknowledge that CLIL is not meant to suppress the L1, but rather, teachers are meant to work with students and their mother tongues while *integrating* the language and content. More recently, Marsh et al. (2020) underline that evidence proves bilingualism is additive, and “the interaction of two or more languages in the mind has the potential to enrich both linguistic systems” (p. 28).

As Pérez Cañado (2023) insists, CLIL is, as the name suggests, bilingual education, and is focused on subject-literacy in two languages, which needs further conceptualizing, and the foreign language (in most cases, English) should not be given absolute priority in these classes, as that is not what the CLIL agenda stands for. A move must be made away from the monolingual policies or methodologies of CLIL that leave students’ L1 to the wayside and, instead, use students’ mother tongues or linguistic repertoire as a scaffolding strategy which can work simultaneously to cater to diversity (idem, 2023). Findings point to the use of L1 in CLIL scenarios, but misconceptions and malpractices involving translation, or summarized explanation of content in the FL must be eliminated, focusing instead on how to achieve an actual integration of the content, L1 and L2 (idem, 2023).

Another rationale put forth by Pavón Vázquez (2018) is that the L1 in the CLIL classroom can be helpful for students by compensating their linguistic deficit with no hindrance to their progression in learning content. This combining of two languages in the classroom is justified in the CLIL classroom since there is a pedagogical reason for it: content acquisition. Jakonen (2016) says the L1 is a way for the students to revisit the information learned in the L2 and gain a deeper understanding of content in texts. Fortunately, in this same vein, if classroom methodology and teacher practices are well grounded, argues Tavares (2015), the L1 will only have a positive impact on the students.

All language is connected, and Madrid and Hughes (2011) contend that proficiency levels achieved in the L2 depend on the proficiency level attained in the L1: “[...] the higher the level of development in the L1 the easier it will be to develop the L2” (p. 25). Deller (2005) agrees and insists that the L2 will not be able to reach its full potential if the L1 has not been fully developed. However, the question still remains fully unanswered, regarding how much of a role the L1 should play in the CLIL classroom: some attest that the L1 can be beneficial in mild amounts to second LL, while others believe that its use should be fairly limited. Gierlinger (2015) sides with the former, arguing that the L1 can be a way to support FLL and can act as a scaffolding technique to assist students. The same author notes that the L1 positively affects both the communication and learning processes affectively and cognitively.

In this same vein, tying L1 aptitude to L2 proficiency, Dinklage (1971), based in the United States, studied students at Harvard University who were categorized as overachievers in all subjects save their language courses. He found that all of these students had problems completing their language courses despite the fact that they had no difficulties in any other courses. The researcher made sure to rule out motivation as a factor, and determined that it did not play a part in their bad performance in the FL course, since the study was careful to measure the desire of the participants in the study regarding their performance in the FL. The conclusions found that a majority of the students had LL difficulties in the L1 such as problems when it came to reading, spelling, letter confusions, sound distortions, and more. Referencing this study, Ganschow et al. (1998) propose that students who face challenges in learning a FL are prone to mirror the same challenges in their native language. The authors (1998) cite various other researchers who agree with this so-denominated *native language learning problem* and the detrimental effects it can have on second language acquisition or “pendulum effect” (p. 248) it can have on FLL: Cohen (1983); Fisher (1986); Lefebvre (1984). The previously mentioned authors (1998) argue that in the majority of cases, it is not students’ low levels of motivation and poor attitudes that lead to mediocre results in the FL, suggesting that the opposite is true, and that students’ frustration in FLL and poor results is what leads to their low motivation and attitude problems. For this reason, the authors conclude that individuals’ language skills in their mother tongues should be considered when it comes to FLL and that “basic language aptitude is a residue of first language skill” (idem, 1998, p. 249). The authors mention the Linguistic Code Differences Hypothesis (Sparks & Ganschow, 1989), which suggests “skills in the native language competences- phonological/orthographic, syntactic, and semantic- provide the basic foundation for FL learning” (p. 249).

Relatively recent findings in Spain, conducted by Madrid and Barrios (2018), “seem to provide further evidence that CLIL enrollment does not exert a negative impact on the students’ mother tongue [...] despite the reduction in exposure to Spanish during school class time that it entails” (p. 37). However, this conclusion is not conclusive since it lacked adequate conditions to make it reliable, mainly due to the fact that there was “no baseline data” nor “pre-post design” (p. 37). Nevertheless, their study (2018) does back findings that suggest “CLIL education is not detrimental to non-linguistic content learning [...]” (p. 37). In this same vein, in their study in southern Spain, Navarro Pablo and Lopez Gándara (2019) found that both teachers and students had positive opinions of CLIL and its effect on the L1. Both stakeholders found that CLIL gave students more knowledge about how languages work in general, and thus, vamped their L1 competence.

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING: A QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE STUDY. CHAPTER 2 BILINGUAL EDUCATION

More positive findings come from Navarro Pablo and López Gándara (2020), who researched the effect CLIL has on students' L1 competence in monolingual environments in a study carried out in southern Spain, in rural and urban Primary and Secondary students. The findings highlight that L1 and FL competences can and should be developed simultaneously, since these can work together, allowing the students to draw from the L1 and L2 in ways their monolingual peers cannot. The results point to an advantage the CLIL students have over their monolingual peers when it comes to the Spanish language, based on the grades the students received at the end of the year, with CLIL students outperforming the non-CLIL peers in the L1. The qualitative data, taken from the polling of students and teachers, also gives CLIL backbone to rest upon: the stakeholders voiced almost unanimously positive opinions, believing CLIL has a positive influence on students' mother tongue, by allowing students to understand more about the languages and how they work by using both in different ways.

There are two types of tools used when implementing L1 in the classroom: code-switching and translanguaging. To differentiate the two, the phenomenon "translanguaging" is explained by Coyle et al. (2010) as "a systematic shift from one language to another for specific reasons" (e.g. homework done in the L1 to build confidence; questions asked in the L1 but answered in the L2; explanation of key terms to avoid confusion) (p. 16), whereas Nunan and Carter (2001) define code-switching as "a phenomenon of switching from one language to another in the same discourse" (p. 275). Both uses of L1 can be used in CLIL as a technique when "the primary focus of instruction is the acquisition of subject matter" (Fennema-Bloom, 2010, p. 33). The use of the L1 can ultimately be beneficial and the communication strategies used by the students help facilitate the learning process when students employ a wide variety of strategies in the classroom in the mother tongue, including asking for confirmation, calling for attention, giving instructions, translating, and expressing emotions (Pavón Vázquez & Ramos Ordóñez, 2019).

No two teachers can be expected to teach language the same; in particular, a difference can be seen between how the content teacher and language teacher use language differently. Méndez and Pavón Vázquez (2012) speak on the variances in language use in content and language teachers: content teachers seem to focus more on language at the textual level, whereas language teachers focus on conversational use, trying to use the L2 as much as feasibly possible and exemplify a plethora of diverse contexts.

On the contrary, teachers who feel more competent in the L2 tend to use the L1 less and vice versa, as confidence in the L2 plays a colossal role in the amount of L1 used during class time (Pavón Vázquez & Ramos Ordóñez, 2019). It is due to this reality that there exists no concise method of L1 use in CLIL classes and most teachers find themselves using it spontaneously and non-systematically, based on L2 proficiency and confidence with such. Therein lies the dilemma

of the L1. Its use, per say, is not detrimental to the CLIL classroom; however, due to lack of research and guidelines, teachers are unsure if they are using it properly or if they are abusing it. Lasagabaster (2017) says that more detailed attention must be paid to what determining factors arise in the classroom which would require the use of the L1. Most teachers are using the L1 based on their own intuition, reasons Gierlinger (2015), given that there are no guidelines or concrete methodology for them to follow.

Drawing upon what has been previously mentioned, teacher training must specifically be developed in this area, since teachers need clear-cut instructions on how to use the L1 systematically in class and not spontaneously, note Pavón Vázquez and Ramos Ordóñez (2019). These authors insist that there should be a guided way in which the L1 is used systematically, either with specific activities or at specific times, and insist that all five skills should be used with both the L1 and the L2. Most importantly, they (2019) stress that the L1 should not be used as a summary at the end of class due to the fact that this will allow for students to disconnect entirely and wait only for the synopsis in the mother tongue, a feature that is seriously counterproductive to the CLIL methodology. As San Isidro and Pérez Cañado (2023) heed, research on how translanguaging is being used pedagogically as means to scaffold learning is in scant supply and must be “sharpened and refined” (p. 279).

The fact remains that CLIL is bilingual education, and thus, requires an integrated use of two languages; however, exactly how to use both the L1 and L2 still remains to be determined. Ultimately, as Pavón Vázquez and Ramos Ordóñez (2019) remind us, all stakeholders should keep in mind that CLIL is aimed at furthering L2 competences as well as content acquisition and, thus, the L1 should be employed when it is being used to promote these goals.

2.5.9. Assessment

The importance of assessment in CLIL cannot be forsaken, nor can it be denied that it is contentious, given the integration of language and content into one class subject. This feat is made yet more ambiguous given the “absence of standard assessment criteria” (Otto, 2018, p. 320). In education, assessment is one of the more complicated aspects, as explained by Marsh (2013), it

lies at the heart of the question of how to define the level of content-language integration, because, ultimately, no matter what is taught and how it is taught, the mode of assessment determines how the learners perceive the teachers’ intention, and, of course, also shapes performance data (p. 80).

Evaluation in education systems today, CLIL included, are still weighed down by outdated techniques, including the infamous standardized testing (Marsh et al., 2020). This type of

assessment will not do for diversity in the 21st century as adverted by Marsh et al. (2020), since “standardized tests suit standardized minds” (p. 4). Unfortunately, as evidenced by Hidalgo-McCabe (2022), these types of tests are becoming more familiar as their use becomes more routine. The researcher (2022) says standardized assessment is now more desired by parents, who hold in high regard these “high stakes” tests, given their belief that this type of evaluation is more reliable (p. 6). In that same vein, the same author (2022) found that most parents answered positively when questioned about their children and exam anxiety.

The question of assessment is one of the more difficult topics to take on, especially when considering how to simultaneously assess content and language and what weight each one should carry (Pérez Cañado, 2013). As San Isidro and Pérez Cañado (2023) point out, assessment in CLIL schemes “is one of the aspects which wrestles with the greatest problems, and a major overhaul of its manifold dimensions is required” (p. 276). Serragiotto (2007) remarks on the difficulty of assessment in CLIL:

Owing to the fact that one must evaluate both the FL and the content of the field discipline contemporaneously. This means that assessment must be structured in such a way that there remain no doubts as to whether missing elements, or errors, are linguistic-oriented or content-related, or if they include both of these aspects (p. 271).

She (2007) acknowledges that if CLIL is truly integrating content and language and is not “simply a sum of what language and field discipline teachers teach during class time”, then there is a great need for researchers to start thinking “about an integrated assessment of language and content” (p. 272). Coyle et al. (2010) attest to this challenge, adding that it is one of the “major areas of teacher uncertainty in CLIL contexts” (p. 114). A feasible solution to the difficulty of assessment in CLIL is a rubric, put forth by Serragiotto (2007, in which content and language are listed separately. On one side lies *language*, which includes spelling, grammar, lexicon, organization; and the other part is made up of the *content*, which includes quality of ideas, adequacy of examples, originality, or bibliographical documentation. In this way, it can be easier for teachers to compartmentalize CLIL classes, by separating the content and language into points by which to assess the students.

As for poignant researchers in Spain, Otto (2018) has made undeniably important contributions to the assessment facet of CLIL and sheds light on how “the dual focus of CLIL might complicated the assessment” (p. 310). The author highlights one of the main issues in CLIL assessment, assessing both content and language, and alerts us to the fact that assessment in CLIL is usually concerned with the content subject, which is not linguistically-related, and thus, CLIL teachers are generally not assessing language outcomes in a systematic way. Since there is

much discrepancy between how to go about assessing both language and content outcomes, especially from teachers who might not be language specialists, it is no wonder that “language-related assessment issues are one of the most contested aspects of the CLIL literature” (idem, 2018, p. 310).

Unfortunately, and yet understandably, inconsistent assessment in CLIL is directly tied to the teacher in the classroom, and variation between one professional and another is typical, as pointed out by Otto (2018), since “the attention to language in CLIL can vary among practitioners depending on their profile, the teachers’ expectations, and its relative priority within CLIL objectives” (pp. 310-311). This, the author points out, is contrasted with the FL classroom, where language objectives are clearly stated, and teachers know where the language benchmarks stand. Another issue lies in the FL competence of the students, and teachers must take this into consideration, or they are putting many students at jeopardy when it comes to their education:

In fact, due to the students’ limited language proficiency, learning a subject through the vehicle of a foreign language is not the same as learning it in a first language. If the student is not able to express herself/himself in this foreign language, the grade she or he receives might be lower than the one by the student who is more proficient. Thus, as language expectations are often embedded in the assessment criteria, when language is not assessed appropriately, it can threaten the validity of assessment, and fail to provide an accurate picture of students’ content knowledge and skills (p. 314).

Other authors have seen improvement when it comes to evaluating language in CLIL. Touching more upon how CLIL is evaluating language use, Pérez Cañado et al. (2023) discuss it has evolved, assessment-wise, and “a systematic-functional approach to evaluation is now favored in CLIL” (p. 1028). The authors argue that both BICS and CALP, or conversational language and academic language functions must be given priority, or a “conflation” of said elements, fomenting a “strengthening the relationship between the conceptual and communicative continua and making the transition towards a more integrated type of assessment” (p. 1029, referencing San Isidro, 2019). This, the authors (2023) say, is a pioneering way to evaluate CLIL students:

This novel approach to evaluation considers not only if a language form is grammatically correct, but whether it is used appropriately to convey meaning in functional contexts, taking into account communicative intent in terms of language functions rather than linguistic accuracy or grammatical correction. Thus, assessment now needs to consider not only the ability to use linguistic forms correctly, but to use the appropriate form to express meaning in a particular academic context (p. 1029).

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING: A QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE STUDY. CHAPTER 2 BILINGUAL EDUCATION

As for the types of assessment, there has been a distinction made between discrete and integrated assessment (Otto, 2018). The former “considers language and content separately” (p. 311), whereas the latter includes jointly assessing both content and language in the classroom, favored by Otto (2018) and Coyle et al. (2010). The reason for jointly assessing language outcomes in the CLIL classroom stems from the fact that content subjects are dependent on language functions, and language bears an important weight on the content acquired by students (Otto, 2018). Thus, language objectives need to be measured alongside content objectives, and language skills should be given importance always and when it pertains to the content mastery (idem, 2018).

Another crucial element to the assessment process is feedback, highlighted by EASNIE (2016) as “one of the most critical influences on pupil learning” (p. 32). Feedback that is constant, direct, and as instantaneous as possible, is especially important for learners in this day and age and their learning environments, directly connected to how they get feedback online since, as Marsh (2013) explains, this is a “core feature of gaming” (p. 117). Students in this day and age are on gaming and social media platforms multiple times a day, which is why education must adapt itself to allow students to get more real-time feedback, which would allow them to learn from their mistakes more immediately. Fortunately, technology, as an indispensable resource, is also relatively easy to use in well-equipped classrooms, with a plethora of options for quizzing students that allow for instantaneous results.

Other aspects must be considered by the educators as well, including the subject being taught, as well as the age of the students. For the former, the subject is a crucial element to consider when it comes to assessment, as underlined by Otto (2018), who draws attention to the fact that subjects such as Art and Social Science demand different language functions for their successful completion, and each subject will have its own “language-related issues” (p. 313). Thus, teachers have to be conscious of assessment for their specific content, giving attention to “subject specific vocabulary” (idem, 2018, p. 315). The same author highlights the difference between assessing students’ language use in the FL and CLIL classrooms, since students should not be evaluated on their correct usage of the language, related to accuracy, spelling, pronunciation, and verb tenses, but they should be assessed on how they are able to “express meaning in a particular academic context” (p. 316). For the latter, the amount of language being assessed in the CLIL course will also fluctuate depending on the grade level of the students, and teachers must be careful not to overlook the amount of language they are assessing, as put forth by Otto (2018). The author notes that for younger children in Pre- or Primary education, “reducing the level and amount of language present in assessment tasks can be beneficial” (pp. 315-316). However, this does not hold true for more mature students, argues Otto (2018):

[...] for higher educational levels, cognitively challenging content requires more advanced language use and skills supporting content expression. So, if CLIL is aimed at developing both content and linguistic skills, diminishing the presence of language in assessment tasks does not seem to succeed in the long-term, especially in those subjects and contexts in which speaking and writing tasks prevail over reading and listening (pp. 315-316).

Government policies can also favor or hinder the assessment process. For the former, these policies should also permit flexible assessment policies and warrant them to be tailored to adapt to certain situations. The OECD (2012) found that in countries where more autonomy is given to states and schools regarding assessment, student performance is generally more satisfactory. Equally important is making the standards and expectations of the students as transparent and clear as possible. The way teachers and students interpret this facet cannot be overlooked and, as Otto (2018) warns, teachers must avoid “muddled assessment”, a result of “overlapping tasks” or “when the performance of one task depends on language skills such as understanding a reading or listening extract” (p. 311). In that same vein, as Serragiotto (2007) explains “assessment must be structured in such a way that there remain no doubts as to whether missing elements or mistakes are linguistic-oriented, content-related or both” (p. 271). Irrefutably, Otto (2018) concludes that teachers must be completely transparent what they transmit to their students how and why language will be assessed in the CLIL subject. Language outcomes and expectations are also critical for the correct implementation of CLIL, and thus “the language needed for the competent performer of content learning needs to be clearly visible” (idem, 2018, p. 314).

When it comes to inclusion and promotion of learning for all, assessment has been identified as the “key to reducing underachievement” (EASNIE, 2016, p. 24). Regarding what type of assessment, EASNIE (2016) highlights formative assessment and feedback as “the best ways to promote achievement”, since it “can involve learners, enabling them to take a more active part in their learning [...] and can have substantial positive impact on learner achievement”, whereas summative assessment “has been traditionally linked to standardized, high-stakes tests and accountability”, something *unfavorable* for low achieving or disadvantaged learners (p. 24). Learners must be at the center of assessment and creativity and emotional competences, in addition to skills and concepts learned in class, must be evaluated as well and teachers must be sure they are evaluating students on the process, and not just the final product, assignment, or test (idem, 2016). More ideas come from Marsh et al. (2020) who emphasize the need to redesign tests so they focus on *deep learning*, what they describe as a “combination of crystallized and fluid intelligences which builds complex understanding and meaning” or the “locus of value creation” (p. 4).

Expounding on formative assessment, it can also include self-assessment, peer assessment, use of questioning, and emphasizing “risk taking and learning from mistakes” (idem, 2016, p. 25). The benefits of this type of assessment are accentuating the role of the learner in the assessment process, and, another added advantage is that “it provides the basis for personalisation according to the learner’s interest and aptitudes” (EASNIE, 2016, p. 24).

Overall, the assessment process is another fundamental piece to the CLIL puzzle and a way to ensure that it is inclusive and fair for all types of learners and achievers (Pérez Cañado, 2016b). Teachers must be properly trained in this aspect because it has the potential to be incredibly beneficial for CLIL programs in the future and inclusive bilingual education, but, alternatively, it can also be extremely detrimental if not used to cater to diversity. By distinguishing language assessment in CLIL as very different from assessment in the FL classroom, students will be more prepared to deal with CLIL while improving in both content and language outcomes and students should be encouraged to look at their language as directly related to the content. As Otto (2018) draws our attention to, assessment in CLIL varies greatly and teachers will have to reflect on their specific context, course, and students in order to find an evaluation technique most appropriate for them and their learners.

Following this section, where an in-depth look has been given of the CLIL methodology and all the aspects it includes, the subsequent section will examine the advantages and disadvantages of this approach by looking at the different representations of CLIL: positively and negatively.

2.5.10. CLIL in a positive light

Undoubtedly, and as already mentioned, there are copious advantages to the CLIL methodology, which have been evidenced study after study. The most notable feature of CLIL and most relevant for education today is its inclusive nature (Coyle et al., 2010; Wolff, 2002). It functions equally well with both genders, various types of achievers, and with students of varying socioeconomic status, having the possibility to serve even the most vulnerable children (Pérez Cañado, 2018a) as there is no evidence that there are “specific ‘at risk’ learner types that would be disadvantaged by CLIL/EMILE” (Marsh, 2002, p. 175). Elaborating more on this topic, the same author (2002) states: “on the contrary, there is evidence that so called low ability learners can achieve specific advantages” (p. 175).

The Council of the European Union (2005) addresses how this *dual-focused* pedagogy

offers a more natural context for language development and brings an immediacy, relevance and added value to the process of language learning. CLIL can be one of the means of giving all

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING: A QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE STUDY. CHAPTER 2 BILINGUAL EDUCATION

learners, regardless of their educational, social, or economic background, the opportunity to strengthen their knowledge of FLs, thus maintaining cultural and linguistic diversity and promoting individual plurilingualism (p. 449).

Initial research of CLIL has found that it is beneficial in many ways, although fundamentally, one of its greatest qualities is the egalitarian nature and how it promotes social inclusion. Coyle et al. (2010) emphasize that CLIL is inclusive of learners from all backgrounds, regardless of wealth or social status. Wolff (2002) concurs on this point, adding that "CLIL is not an elitist approach to language learning; it functions in all learning contexts and with all learners" (p. 48). The same author (2002) contends that research continues to indicate to the superiority of CLIL and not just because of selection criteria, as Bruton (2011a) claims, but because CLIL truly has the potential to function with all learner in all situations. In that same vein, Van de Craen et al. (2007) contend that "CLIL can be positive for all learners, irrespective of their socio-economic status and linguistic background" (p. 198). Marsh (2002) chimes in: "it is a positive educational experience for certain types of young people who are regarded as having behavioral difficulties" (p. 175).

What is more, Coyle et al. (2010) suggest CLIL is an effective way to overcome inequality in the classroom, given that it promotes "[...] equal access to education for all school-aged students, including those with additional support needs" (p. 7). CLIL is a way to allow all types of learners the opportunity to be exposed to languages, despite any learning differences they may have (Madrid & Pérez Cañado, 2018). This approach, Marsh (2002) underlines, opens "the doors on languages for a broader range of learners" (p. 29). Most recent studies done on attention to diversity find CLIL is cancelling out differences amongst learners (e.g. Halbach & Iwaniec, 2022; Lorenzo et al., 2021; Pérez Cañado, 2018e; Shepherd & Ainsworth, 2017), differences that continue to be an issue in non-CLIL education settings. The bottom line: CLIL has the potential to level the playing field, especially when it comes to learner backgrounds and disadvantages that a student might have inherited.

Its flexibility is seen by several authors (e.g. Dickey, 2004; Lasagabaster, 2008; Pérez Cañado, 2016d) to be another positive aspect, since "not only does this flexibility not hamper its development but it also helps to accommodate the diverse linguistic landscape in Europe" (Pérez Cañado, 2021b, p. 12).

As for LL outcomes, CLIL gets positive reviews, as studies consistently prove that CLIL irrefutably benefits the acquisition process. Concluded by many authors, CLIL is valuable for global communicative competence, receptive skills, speaking, risk-taking, motivation, emotive and affective outcomes, morphology, creativity, fluency and quantity, reading, listening, and

writing (e.g. Ackerl, 2007; Dalton-Puffer, 2007a, 2007b, 2008; Navarro Pablo & García Jiménez, 2018; Oxbrow, 2018; Pérez Cañado, 2017, 2018a; Pérez Cañado & Lancaster, 2017; Ruiz de Zarobe, 2011). For her part, Dalton-Puffer (2007b) argues that CLIL enhances oral competences most of all. Numerous authors attest to the obvious, better FL competence (e.g. Admiraal et al., 2006; Alonso et al., 2008; Gálvez-Gomez, 2021; Jiménez Catalán & Ruiz de Zarobe, 2009; Lorenzo, 2010; Lorenzo et al., 2009; Navés, 2011; Navés & Victori, 2010; Nieto Moreno de Diezmas, 2016; Pérez Cañado, 2011; San Isidro, 2009; 2010; Várkuti, 2010; Villoria et al., 2011) and there is no hindrance of content acquisition in the classes (e.g. Badertscher & Bieri, 2009; de Jabrun, 1997; Housen, 2002; Jäppinen, 2005; Seikkula-Leino, 2007; Van de Craen et al., 2007). More recently, Julius and Madrid (2017) found that CLIL streams outperformed the non-CLIL streams in English in all four skills.

For their part, Surmont et al. (2016) conclude that the CLIL methodology “increases metalinguistic awareness”, alluding to the ability that bilingualism gives learners on reflecting on language structures, “which requires a higher level of abstract thinking and understanding” (p. 322). It is this dual-thought process, say the authors, that allows the bilingual learners to “compare the language structures of the languages they speak”, thus giving them an advantage over their monolingual counterparts who do not, generally, “question the way their language system is built up” (p. 322). Presenting the advantages of the bilingual brain, Marsh et al. (2020) state that by learning content in a FL, students are able to give more “attention to task”, which in turn “drives memory and learning” (p. 9).

Merged with language, on the other side of the CLIL methodology is content acquisition, which has also been confirmed by many authors to be bolstered in CLIL environments. Järvinen (2007) comments on how the positive effects of CLIL are “well-known” since CLIL produces just as good, if not better, content language outcomes than regular language teaching. She attributes the good results to the fact that “there are features that are characteristic of programs that combine the teaching of content and language that may have a facilitating impact on dual learning” (p. 253). In this same vein, Heine (2010) underlines the fact that CLIL fosters and deepens understanding of content knowledge. Other authors who attest to increased subject-matter acquisition include Jäppinen (2005), Madrid (2011), Martínez-Agudo (2021), Ouazizi (2016), Pérez Cañado (2018e), Surmont et al. (2016), Ullman (1999), Wode (1999), amongst others.

Remarking on why CLIL is the solution to bilingual education, Coyle (2007a) clarifies it is because it nurtures linguistic competence, bolsters confidence in students, raises the expectations of learning for all learners, allows students to develop a wide array of skills, and foments cultural and global citizenship awareness. To boot, Coyle et al. (2010) state that any burdens placed on

students during the LL process can be avoided as long as CLIL is used in the curriculum. Pérez Cañado (2013) explains that the cognitive dimension in CLIL develops a wide range of skills that go far beyond the communicative ones. Although research has proven that CLIL has more of an effect on productive skills than receptive skills, “absolutely all the linguistic components and skills are positively affected by the development of CLIL programs, especially in the long term” (Pérez Cañado, 2018a, p. 68). This same thought is shared by other researchers (e.g. Dallinger et al., 2016; Heine, 2010).

Emphasizing the role of meaningful communication in the classroom which favors several objectives in the FL curriculum, Muñoz (2002) states the numerous benefits that CLIL has (pp. 35-36):

- meaningful communication means that the students are implicitly, rather than explicitly learning;
- students are more motivated to continue and use the target language since the focus is no longer on accuracy rather, it is upon usage;
- the teachers are more in tune with the students and their linguistic needs since they are hearing them speak more often; and,
- as communication has increased, teachers are able to constantly assess and evaluate their students.

The aforementioned author (2002) argues that CLIL has the potential to increase the competence of FL speakers because the quality of teaching is higher and input is “meaningful and understandable” (p. 36). Furthermore, CLIL may “strengthen learners’ ability to process input, which prepares them for higher-level thinking skills, and enhances cognitive development” (idem, 2002, p. 36). Both content and language outcomes stand to gain from CLIL schemes. Wolff (2002) emphasizes that CLIL is not just a way to teach a FL; it is a way to teach both subject and FL content and, as such, both competences stand to improve, more so than when content and language are taught separately. This is harmonious with the conclusions that have been drawn after researching the predecessors of CLIL, which reveal that L2 instruction paired with content matter is more effective than isolated L2 instruction (Genesee, 1994).

As for the teachers themselves, Järvinen (2007) argues that CLIL teachers outstrip the content teachers in teaching subject content to the students, due to the fact that the latter have no language teaching training, making CLIL teachers therefore more apt and prepared to teach language and content to the children.

Another added benefit for teachers is the realization of the importance of innovative, engaging methodological tactics content. As CLIL teachers develop specific CLIL tailored practices, by taking advantage of the specific CLIL atmosphere in the classroom, utilizing group

and peer-work and social learning, they “become a part of the growing number of teachers who seek to replace instruction by construction instead of feeding them [the students] with pre-digested knowledge” (Wolff, 2007a, p. 23). For teacher training schemes, CLIL is touted “for being applicable across all educational levels, for offering teachers opportunities to refresh and hone their skills, and for contributing to build a community of practice where all stakeholders have a role to play” (Pérez Cañado, 2013, p. 17). Furthermore, teacher collaboration and integration of subjects leads to a more consistent framework (Wolff, 2007a).

The integration of content and language, implies Marsh (2006), is bettering our teachers and our students because the integration of subject and language gives way to new and innovative teaching and learning methods. Baetens Beardsmore (2002) agrees, noting how CLIL requires more collaboration between educators, yet another way in which CLIL improves teachers, by allowing them to coordinate and evolve.

Confidence is another highlighted benefit, as Dalton-Puffer (2011) examines: “the self-confident and self-evident” hold of the target language that benefits CLIL learners is the biggest advantage to this methodology” (p. 196). Nikula et al. (2013) discuss why the students are more confident in CLIL, staking the main difference between the CLIL and FL classroom in the learners is “explained by students’ greater courage to engage in L2 interaction in situations where their language skills are not under constant evaluation in the same way as in language lessons” (p. 84). This view is supported by Halbach (2009), who refers to the new attitude that students may develop, upon seeing and viewing the language differently when they are “given the chance of using it for a real purpose [...]” (p. 20).

Furthermore, students have more freedom to participate (Nikula, 2016) and, in turn, it has been found to lower the affective filter in students (e.g. Pérez Cañado, 2013). Swain (1993) found that activities that compel language users to go outside of their comfort zone in productive language skills, an expectation in CLIL, such as speaking, is shown to bolster language proficiency levels significantly. Nikula (2016) found that teachers in the CLIL classroom are seen more as equals with the students, which ultimately allows the students to express themselves more freely and more frequently, findings agreed upon by Smit (2010) at the tertiary level. An interesting finding by Maillat (2010) concluded that the students felt more disconnected with words and speech generated in the L2, and consequently, were more likely to produce deeper exchanges in class “because the learner’s own personal beliefs” were not at stake (p. 190).

Anxiety, a main cause of LL hindrance, has been found to be greatly reduced in the CLIL classroom (Dalton-Puffer, 2011; Jiménez Catalán & Ruiz de Zarobe, 2009; Nieto Moreno de Diezmas, 2016). Dalton-Puffer (2011) attributes this reduction in students unwilling to

communicate in the FL due to anxiety to the new CLIL classroom, which differs from the FL classroom in “fundamental pragmatic parameters” (p. 190).

Another strong point of CLIL is the community of collaboration amongst instructors and students alike. The sense of belonging leads to motivation and passion from both stakeholders (Coyle, 2007b). Providing students with the opportunity to obtain language competences benefits them tremendously and prepares them for the future in the globalized world (Cenoz et al., 2014).

By bridging the gap between life in- and outside of school, CLIL plays an important role in making the transition between the two easier: learners are confronted with real-life situations in the classroom which are directly transferable to life outside of school (Wolff, 2007a). In this way, CLIL can make learning in school more valuable since learners can ascertain upfront and earlier how to use these skills outside of school. This is something, the author (2007a) argues, which is almost impossible to do in typical FL classrooms.

The previously cited author (2007a) contends that CLIL learners are more prepared for the demands of any future job they may hold, since the general studying environment of the CLIL classroom is based around group work, where they learn to both collaborate and solve problems more autonomously and, as such, is more similar to real-life work than traditional FL classrooms. He (2007a) highlights how the focus that CLIL puts on reading and writing process benefits the students:

A high formal language proficiency is also promoted because of the focus on reading and writing processes which is very common in the CLIL classroom [all] of this leads to a linguistic competence in the foreign language which is much more oriented to working-life than the competence which develops in the ordinary language classroom (p. 20).

For his part, Marsh (2000) describes how CLIL prepares students for the future by facilitating them the skills needed to succeed and evolve. Students are given a purpose to learn the language since it is a necessity in order to deal with real problems, situations, and content (Dalton-Puffer, 2007a; Navés, 2009). Both language and content knowledge are improved upon and, as Pérez Cañado (2013) insists, the competences developed through CLIL are not only limited to communication, “but also problem-solving, risk-taking, pragmatic and interpersonal abilities” (p. 17).

School environments are also benefitted by this educational approach, since the schools that implement CLIL have a higher standing in the community, are more modern, and prepare students for life outside of school; thus, the school takes more precautions to ensure they will graduate proficient students that can be employed in the future (Wolff, 2007a).

Research is another factor that CLIL has benefitted tremendously from, as interest in the field has grown exponentially and it has stimulated research on LL. Cenoz et al. (2014) expound on this argument: the research that has come about as a result of this phenomenon is “[...] advancing our theoretical understanding of this important aspect of human development and our capacity to nurture it in school contexts” (p. 256). Thanks to CLIL research, the subject of integration has been studied more profoundly: “[...] research interest has gone beyond the idea of balancing language and content pedagogies, as brought up in French immersion research [...], into investigating the processes of how language and content are best taught, learnt, and assessed in integration” (Dalton-Puffer et al., 2014, p. 216). CLIL has instigated research into seeking out and defining effective practices, emphasize Cenoz et al. (2014):

The growing interest in CLIL [...] has resulted in enthusiasm and active pursuit of improved methods of foreign language/L2 teaching that is much welcome at a time when countries of the EU are becoming increasingly integrated and, indeed, as nations around the world become globally integrated (p. 255).

Pérez-Vidal (2009) highlights the linguistic, educational, and social benefits that CLIL offers. The language used in CLIL is more motivating, being that it is used to discuss subject matter. Learning is constructive in CLIL since “using the foreign language stems from intrinsic motivation to communicate, hence unconscious or implicit learning may take place” (idem, 2009, p. 11). Furthermore, learners are benefitted socially, since CLIL favors a more global view of the world and are both linguistically and culturally more diverse when exposed to the CLIL methodology (idem, 2009).

Studies done on language use in CLIL classrooms show that CLIL students have more opportunities to use varied language when responding to teachers’ prompts in the classroom (Nikula, 2007; Nikula et al., 2013; Wells, 1993). There is also noted evidence of positive changes regarding the “mind, brain and thinking processes” (Pavón Vázquez, 2013, p. 11, referencing Marsh, 2010; Mehisto & Marsh, 2011). More recently, Marsh et al. (2020) have found a *bilingual advantage*, giving stark evidence that bilinguals hold intellectual advantages over monolinguals, and the communication between two languages in a single brain does not subtract from the learners’ experience; it adds to it. The same authors suggest that bilingualism allows increased “capacity for thinking and communication” due to the simultaneous engagement of completely different language systems (p. 28). Moreover, the increased memory function is an undisputed advantage, given that “the ability to retain, organize, store, and retrieve information” is a “vital human competence” that is strengthened in bilingual individuals and “any possibility for enhanced memory function has considerable significance in relation to learning and education in general” (idem, 2020, p. 11).

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING: A QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE STUDY. CHAPTER 2 BILINGUAL EDUCATION

CLIL triumphs over the shortcomings found in previous LL approaches. Pérez-Vidal (2009) acknowledges the limitations of traditional FL classrooms regarding the lack of both input and output and stresses that CLIL conquers such hindrances. Most of the benefits of CLIL are similar to those gained in bilingual settings: inclusion and creativity; risk-taking and problem-solving; vocabulary learning skills and grammatical awareness; attitudes, linguistic spontaneity, and motivation (Marsh, 2000, 2008).

To further the argument for CLIL, Pérez-Vidal (2009) claims that CLIL has all the advantages of a studying abroad without the added expenses of sending students to a foreign country: "a step between formal instruction and stay-abroad periods stands CLIL, offering higher amounts of exposure and using language in a wealth of contexts and always for meaningful purposes" (p. 10), and since immersion stays are the preferable way for students to learn languages, but obviously not feasible for many families, CLIL can reap the same benefits, without the financial strain. Furthermore, culturally, adds Pérez Cañado (2013),

it builds intercultural knowledge and understanding, develops intercultural communication skills, and promotes intercultural communicative competence. It equally raises awareness of cultures and the global citizenship agenda. In sum, it offers powerful opportunities for intercultural learning which go beyond those provided by traditional language learning settings (p. 18).

Motivation is another advantageous side effect of CLIL (e.g. Coyle et al., 2010; Navarro Pablo & García Jiménez, 2018; Oxbrow, 2018; Pérez Cañado, 2013, 2018a). This is found to increase on both teachers' and students' behalf. Instructors feel like they are meeting the needs of students thus they feel more compelled to better their teaching process (Coyle, 2007b; Wolff, 2007a). CLIL offers flexible models that teachers can adapt to work for them and, because the teachers are the owners of their classes and pedagogy, there is no strict method they have to stick with. Motivated teachers are fundamental in the classroom because from motivated teachers come motivated learners (Coyle, 2007b, p. 12). Although this is obviously not always the case, it is much more likely that teachers will deal with higher levels of motivation in the classroom when they themselves are demonstrating interest in the subject. Teachers can further foster their motivation to work in CLIL by collaborating with other teachers and finding cross-curricular activities to implement in class. Pavón Vázquez and Ellison (2013) are congruent on the issue: teachers and students are more motivated in the CLIL classroom. For their part, Coyle et al. (2010) declare that more engagement and involvement on behalf of the student leads to voluntary participation and, thus, increased motivation.

Along these same lines, the methods used in CLIL, task-based teaching and cooperative learning, which are associated tightly with CLIL, are "more intrinsically motivating" (Pérez Cañado,

2013, p. 17). The motivation to learn the content that results from the comprehensible input fosters and increases the motivation to learn the FL as well. With the learner mindset on the content changing with regards to FLT and FLL, CLIL is a way to affect students in a positive way, as noted by Coyle (2007a), since allowing students to work with content and languages in a way that "caters for a fast-changing world of work and leisure is more likely to motivate our young people to understand the benefits and relevance of foreign language using as a basic skill" (p. 2).

While CLIL does not singularly motivate all students, as is true for any pedagogy, Hüttner and Smit (2014) put forth that the very nature and flexibility of CLIL can reach kids that may be unmotivated by traditional methods: "the advantage [...] lies in the complementary nature of CLIL and in its diversity [...] this very diversity of practices is an inevitable consequence of CLIL being a set of localized responses to the rise of English as a global lingua franca" (p. 166).

The change of scenery, from the traditional language classroom to the content classroom is yet another major asset to CLIL (e.g. Coyle et al., 2010; Dalton-Puffer, 2011; Marsh, 2002; Mehisto et al., 2008; Nieto Moreno de Diezmas, 2016) as a way to offer students a change of pace and break out of the routine of standard LL, where they can "focus on more subject- and discipline-specific uses of the FL" (Hüttner & Smit, 2014, p. 165). The classroom is not only new, but a more natural way to approach LL. Coyle et al. (2010) extend on this: "CLIL can offer learners of any age a natural setting for language development which builds on other forms of learning. This natural use of language can boost a learner's motivation towards, and hunger for, learning languages" (pp. 11-12). This naturalistic situation in the CLIL classroom "replicates the conditions to which infants are exposed when learning their first language" (Mehisto et al., 2008, p. 26). Another advantage to the CLIL classroom is that they are "a part of the learners' everyday experience of school" and, as such, "the lessons are thus well-embedded in the matrix culture of the L1 and possesses a high degree of familiarity for the student", which is undoubtedly a "decisive asset" to CLIL (Dalton-Puffer, 2011, p. 195). The setting of CLIL makes learners feel more at ease, Marsh (2002) arguing that this setting is the basis for CLIL's success, since the students feel comfortable in this classroom, and as such, motivation is able to grow exponentially. For her part, Dalton-Puffer (2011) says the "content-based situations help steer learners' attention from language forms to things accomplished and meanings conveyed through language" (p. 195) and this is what she attributes to CLIL's success.

The benefits of knowing more than one language and culture are widely acknowledged (García, 2009) and CLIL helps children become exposed to different languages and cultures. Pavón Vázquez (2013) lists the advantages of the multilingual mind (p. 14):

- higher memory capacity (short-term memory);
- sharper accuracy in making decisions and solving problems;
- a better capacity to formulate creative hypotheses;
- absence of distraction with irrelevant information when performing tasks; and,
- a better ability to engage in multi-tasking.

Numerous other benefits of CLIL have been noted throughout the years: the affective filter (Krashen, 1985) has the potential to be greatly reduced in the CLIL classroom (Coyle, 2007a; Gassner & Maillat, 2006; Hüttner & Smit, 2014; Maillat, 2010; Pérez Cañado, 2013); it fosters tolerance of other cultures; it is “less pain for the learner” (Dalton-Puffer, 2011, p. 193); it makes the students more apt learners due to the increased effort they are exerting to learn content through a FL (de Jabrun, 1997); it increases the presence and quantity of FLs in the school curricula; it finds a way to tackle both the individual learning and social learning environment approaches to teaching as well as maneuvering between basic learning theories and SLA theories (Coyle et al., 2010); it boosts global communication competences (Pérez Cañado, 2018a); it increases target language exposure without harming the L1 (Pérez Cañado, 2013); it foments deeper semantic processing and better understanding of curricular concepts (Dalton-Puffer, 2006); it provokes a deeper level of processing regarding semantics (Marsh, 2002); and nurtures self-confidence, converting knowledge into skills, while also supporting the creative spirit (Marsh, 2002).

To conclude, the declaration of Lorenzo (2007) will be put forth, which claims that CLIL is the future of bilingual education, and anything less is “second rate education” (p. 35); that is to say, kids will be cheated of a good education if CLIL classes are not included in their curricula, given the overwhelming growing body of research that confirms the superiority of this methodology to traditional LL. Following this examination of CLIL and its advantages, the other side of the debate will be scrutinized: specifically, the areas in which CLIL is in need of fixing will be presented, in addition to its flaws and shortcomings as a pedagogy.

2.5.11. CLIL in a negative light

True of any change regarding education, skepticism has crept up in reaction to this pedagogy. When looking at real classrooms of CLIL, questions have been posed about how inclusive it truly is, with some researchers claiming CLIL is the absolute opposite of inclusive. Bruton (2011a, 2011b, 2013), a major faultfinder of CLIL, warns that it is only for academically blessed students; a way to weed out those of lesser intelligence, so as to create a classroom full of the best students. He cautions that not many drawbacks of CLIL have been encountered simply because only academically-blessed, motivated students participate in the programs, thus avoiding problems which is not due to CLIL itself, but, rather, to the students who participate (2011a).

However, it has not yet come to light if CLIL truly is inclusive or not, as the lack of research on attention to diversity leaves us unable to truly know for sure. In this same vein, corresponding with the uncertainty of CLIL and lack of research into important aspects, Pérez Cañado (2016c) has updated the 4Cs of CLIL, originally proposed by Coyle (2007a) to *craze*, *critique*, *conundrum*, and *controversy*.

Problems with streaming and selection in the process have been pinpointed as faults with this approach in the past. Cenoz et al. (2014) argue that CLIL is perceived as egalitarian; however, Bruton (2013) says CLIL allows for invisible streaming to occur, giving access to the students with higher SES. Many perceive CLIL to be harder and therefore, only for brighter students. In that same vein, Cummins (1976) argues that not all types of learners benefit from bilingual education.

Alluding to the lack of egalitarianism, Bruton (2013, 2015) and Paran (2013) say that the CLIL method is exclusive by nature (as referenced by Madrid & Pérez Cañado, 2018). Anghel et al. (2016) find that the negative side-effects of CLIL “are concentrated on the children of less educated parents” (p. 1222).

Bruton (2013) addresses the attention to diversity issue as well, proclaiming: “it is very possible that deficit FL teaching might become even more deficient, especially for those less academically able, the less linguistically proficient, or the less economically privileged” (p. 595). The same author claims that teaching in a language other than the mother tongue is in itself discriminatory, but as Hüttner and Smit (2014) point out, this can hardly be farther from the truth in Europe today, where migrants are commonplace. As they put it:

In view of the diversity of the 21st century European classrooms, however, the assumption that the national language equals the students’ L1 has definitely outlived itself [...] English, on the other hand, [is featured] as an obligatory subject for all students, thus acknowledging its unparalleled utilitarian value and its status as one of the essential educational goals of the 21st century. That English has gained a status similar to literacy and numeracy is underlined in bilingual initiatives catering for mainstream learners (p. 162).

However, English dominance of CLIL programs is also controversial, and some have found downfalls with the fact that English is the default language throughout CLIL programs, alluding to the fact that it is not helping Europe with its language goals, as put forth by Banegas (2022), Cross (2022) and Lasagabaster and Sierra (2010), the latter of whom argue that English only CLIL programs “will not pave the way to the much-lauded aim of European multilingualism” (p.

373), since multilingualism is not accounted for when CLIL becomes the previously explained CEIL³².

Although promoted as an inclusive educational approach, some researchers criticize CLIL for favoring more intelligent students. Halbach (2009) points out that “teaching through a FL [...] may also increase the spectrum between stronger and weaker students, and hinder the progress of students with learning difficulties” (p. 23). However, the author goes on to say that this can be avoided if teachers put in the work and tediously plan and scaffold during class. Bruton (2013) concludes: “implicitly, CLIL is likely to be elitist and cream off certain students” and is “subtly selecting students out” (as referenced by Madrid & Pérez Cañado 2018, pp. 593-5). However, while that may have been true five years ago, CLIL is more likely nowadays to be implemented in entire schools, not only sections (Madrid & Pérez Cañado, 2018). Thus, this argument, while maybe true in the past, certainly currently stands void of any real sustenance. For their part, Hüttner and Smit (2014) maintain that CLIL is not discriminatory as an approach; however, they do admit that, like all other educational practices, it can be used to further the gap between smart and challenged students. Educational discrimination, the authors say, is an important topic and requires “more focused attention, political as well as academic” (idem, 2014, p. 162).

Some, like Halbach (2009), who warn that CLIL can increase the achievement gap, do stress that teachers have it in their capacities to avoid this, and can fully “bridge the gap” by dedicating more time to preparation and scaffolding in their lessons (p. 23). As many authors caution (e.g. Anghel et al., 2016; Fernández Sanjurjo et al., 2019; Pérez Cañado, 2023) the move from bilingual sections to fully bilingual schools is putting greater pressure on all involved in these programs, including the students and teachers, and while this move to a more inclusive CLIL is needed, the hurdles it brings with it “could seriously jeopardize everything achieved so far in bilingual programs” (Pérez Cañado, 2023, p. 1129).

Discrepancies between learners’ “language and cognitive levels” may pose a real threat to language and content acquisition. Coyle et al. (2010) argue that this may possibly be the biggest issue students will have:

In the CLIL classroom it is unlikely that the language of the learners will be the same as their cognitive level. This might give rise to mismatches where either the language level is too difficult or too easy when set against the cognitive level. If the language level is too demanding, then

³² Cf. section 2.3.1. English as a Lingua Franca.

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING: A QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE STUDY. CHAPTER 2 BILINGUAL EDUCATION

arguably effective learning cannot take place. If the cognitive level is too low taking into account language level, then learning is restricted (p. 43).

General misunderstandings about CLIL are also the reason CLIL has been regularly cast in a negative light, as stakeholders assume generalities, believe falsehoods, and spread myths about its implementation. For example, many parents and teachers may worry that students are not going to be able to understand the concepts of the subject, especially since most of the learners do not have sufficient levels of proficiency to manipulate the language with ease. However, Hufeisen (2007) notes that this fear can quickly be dispelled upon examining the CLIL classroom. Coyle et al. (2010) point out that many parents and students may consider the CLIL process to be “counter-intuitive”, which is why “greater understanding depends on recognizing the subtle overlap between language learning (intentional) and language acquisition (incidental)” (p. 11). As Navarro Pablo and García Jiménez (2018) mention, one of the main flaws with CLIL is the lack of a standardized implementation across Europe, “not only among countries but also among regions within the same country and even among schools in a single town due to different social, cultural, economic and political contexts” (p. 72).

Bruton (2011a) himself doubts that CLIL can actually overcome the deficits in language education, alluding that the real problem might lie in the current pedagogy that is being used, which might be the real reason for students’ academic stagnation, and thus, “[...] it would seem that adding the burden of using a FL for content instruction is perhaps overambitious” (pp. 530-531).

Another area of concern is regarding the integration of content and language and how this integration should be achieved, as it is not applied in a systematic manner (Mehisto, 2008). Not only is the integrating of a subject and a language unsystematic, but it is also very complex, as commented upon by many authors (e.g. Bruning & Purrmann, 2014; Hüttner & Smit, 2014; Mehisto, 2008; Meyer et al., 2015; Paran, 2013). Bruton (2013) claims that the integration of content and language is “still an illusion” (p. 595) and denies that the combining of these elements actually takes place.

The classroom environment has also been claimed by some to be counter-intuitive. Some find that CLIL cannot be used before there is an educational standard being upheld in all schools, especially in the L1 and in the core classes, before beginning this “overambitious” leap into teaching content without first making sure the quality of teaching has been maintained to a certain standard (Bruton, 2011a, p. 531). Dalton-Puffer (2011) argues that the CLIL classroom may differ a bit from the FL classroom; however, these differences are minute. Moreover, these classrooms “share a great deal more” than people claim; therefore, CLIL cannot “be expected to

prepare learners for other situational contexts in a direct way" (p. 195) since "CLIL classrooms are *classrooms* exhibiting the respective characteristics in terms of participant roles, goals, physical setting, temporal structure and the like" (p. 195). However, this same author goes on to admit that the CLIL classroom "offers considerable potential" (p. 195), which undeniably refers to the amount of work that both teachers and students put into it has the ability to make CLIL successful or not.

Lasagabaster and Sierra (2010) warn about the incorrect implementation of CLIL, which, if done wrong, can potentially jeopardize not only the students and stakeholders at play, but can also "create misgivings regarding CLIL that may be detrimental to future implementation" (p. 372). The authors reference a case in Valencia, where there were two teachers in the classroom, the subject teacher giving the subject in Spanish and an English teacher, acting as a translator. They refer to this incident as a "fiasco" and warn that incidents like this can "undermine all the efforts made so far as to apply pedagogically sound and successful CLIL programs", which is why correct implementation is so crucial (p. 373). It is situations like these which lead to falsehoods and misunderstandings of what CLIL is, and cast CLIL into an underserving negative light.

For her part, Gálvez-Gómez (2021) warns about the importance of continuity in these programs, since the benefits are mainly seen in the long term: "our results indicate that, although many of the effects of bilingual education remain, they can gradually disappear if the programs are discontinued. That is why it is highly recommendable to promote their continued implementation" (p. 163). When these programs are not implemented successfully or in a sequenced manner is when they begin to fall short.

Many authors concur that the umbrella term is ambiguous and leaves too much room for interpretation (Alejo & Piquer, 2010; Bruton, 2011a; Cenoz et al., 2014; Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2009). Mehisto (2008) points out that the dual-focused nature of CLIL, the epitome of the approach, is not clearly defined and therefore, is most likely being applied in fluctuating ways by teachers (p. 99). Cenoz et al. (2014) highlight that CLIL's abstruse nature makes it hard to identify the main features without a certain degree of uncertainty, which can be perilous for its future: "this lack of precision makes it difficult for CLIL to evolve in Europe in a pedagogically coherent fashion and for research to play a critical role in its evolution" (p. 247). The umbrella term is "ambiguous and imprecise and does not necessarily imply the balanced use of two languages in the classroom" (Reilly & Medrano, 2009, p. 59).

Dalton-Puffer et al. (2014) comment how the flexibility of CLIL can prove to be disadvantageous when trying to apply findings in different contexts; however, the authors clarify that this is not unique to CLIL but "inherent in comparative educational research in general" (p.

215). The diversity in CLIL makes research and defining what it is difficult (Bruton, 2011a): "CLIL can mean many things and create much confusion in the mind of the reader" (Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2010, p. 368). Problems arise for educators as well, since those "wishing to become better acquainted with these approaches" may find the research on them to be bewildering and contradictory (Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2010, p. 373). The same authors pinpoint some of the confusion with the acronyms of CLIL/AICLE/EMILE, where there is no reference to any FL, only content and language integration.

The lack of sound research is another cause for concern among many. Cenoz et al. (2014) criticize CLIL due to claims being made without sound backing, while Pérez Cañado (2012) comments on the large volume of research that has been done which lacks sound empirical conditions and, therefore, cannot be used. After a period of "heightening enthusiasm", more critical insights have come to light and researchers who were once thoroughly convinced of the unrefuted benefits of CLIL are now skeptically re-analyzing its characterization and implementation (Cinganotto, 2016, p. 378). For their part, Nikula et al. (2013) argue that research cannot be synthesized since both the implementation of CLIL and investigative approaches are extremely varied, making it "a challenge to draw generalized conclusions" (p. 73).

Another drawback is the fact that research outcomes can be interpreted depending on interests and motives, claims Bruton (2011a). Furthermore, the same author maintains that most, if not all, of the studies that have taken place are extremely limited and flawed, with small sample sizes and no pretests, which in itself leads to questionable results. He finds liability in the quality of research being conducted, and insists that it is necessary to know that "disinterested reliable quality research is being conducted to try and ensure that expected content and language standards, both L1 and FL, are being met across the board" (p. 531).

Studies which link positive L2 competence results shed light on the fact that it may well be the increase in exposure to the target language which is improving the FL competence, and not CLIL, as claimed by the SPDLA (Junta D.A., 2017), which concludes that there is a very fine relationship between exposure time to the FL and the improvement in basic competences, primarily communicative competence, making mention of the ESCL (*European Survey on Languages and Competences*). However, albeit exposure may be responsible in some part for the increased competence, the study argues for the promotion of CLIL to capitalize on this situation and further debunks this argument, since quality, motivating exposure is what is needed to foster LL goals and not just an increase in FL exposure: "CLIL can be extremely useful for the intensification of language exposure time and an increase in motivation, by using the target language to learn topics that are of particular interest for the students" (Junta D.A., 2017, p. 16). In that same vein, Lancaster (2018) demonstrates that exposing students to the target language

via a CLIL scheme is more advantageous than exposure in a traditional FL classroom, even if the latter is more plentiful than the former, and the author suggests that “more parents should encourage their children to take part in CLIL programs rather than pay for them to attend private academies, especially taking into account that the research implies CLIL students perform better without this extra FL” (p. 111).

Another problem seems to be that many authors tend to address only the benefits of CLIL and not the faults, which can lead to a picturesque representation of the concept. Authors insist that there are shortcomings in the research that has been done, CLIL has not been thoroughly researched and there are still discontinuities in empirical evidence that need to be filled in in order to fully comprehend CLIL’s efficacy (Cenoz et al., 2014; Pérez Cañado, 2012). Dalton-Puffer (2011) questions the enduring faith that some have put into CLIL, almost to a fault, and wonders “how far this catalyst role of CLIL” is actually able to take students (p. 195). According to the author, CLIL, contrary to popular belief, is “not a panacea” (p. 195).

There are some studies which find that CLIL classrooms are the same as, if not worse than, non-CLIL classes, when considering teacher practice and methodology (Badertscher & Bieri, 2009; Dalton-Puffer, 2007a; Nikula, 2010). This might be due to weak or insufficient target language competence level, since teachers may be prompted to implicate themselves less spontaneously in class, or engage in impromptu situations with their students if they have a limited L2 proficiency or mastery.

Teacher workload is another disadvantage as educators in CLIL have surplus roles in preparation, execution, and assessment³³. Coyle et al. (2010) reiterate that while CLIL is undoubtedly advantageous, it does pose serious challenges for teachers who must add to their workload if CLIL is going to be truly successful, something that requires “time, patience, and professional support” (p. 48). Working with such a wide variety of students also puts more pressure on teachers, and for his part, Marsh (2013) goes as far to compare CLIL and special needs classes, since:

In CLIL contexts one can assume that very often the teacher faces much the same challenges as with special needs due to heterogeneity of knowledge and skills, diversity of ability, and possibly motivation. Both SEN and CLIL involve working in ways in which numerous multi-dimensional

³³ Cf. section 2.6.7.1. for more on teacher qualifications, training and expectations.

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING: A QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE STUDY. CHAPTER 2 BILINGUAL EDUCATION

challenges need to be continuously handled, and this requires sophisticated recognition and response to major factors in successful learning, such as emotion (pp. 81-82).

Furthermore, problems with teacher training abound, as CLIL teachers are expected to undertake and implement successfully and systematically a plethora of facets: L1 use, L2 confidence, assessment, feedback, differentiation instruction, motivating communicative strategies, knowledge of linguistics and academic language and more. There remains a deficit in the amount of teacher training as perceived by several authors (Cabezas Cabello, 2010; Navés, 2009; Pavón Vázquez & Ellison, 2013; Pérez Cañado, 2012, 2016b; Tobin & Abello-Contesse, 2013). This is a serious problem, as Pérez Cañado and Ráez Padilla (2015) remind us, since “the key to any future vision for bilingual education is teacher development” (p. 7). Teacher training is an absolute necessity when it comes to assuring confidence and quality in teachers and getting teachers to rise to the challenge can be daunting, as non-native teachers struggle to cope with insecurity in the FL, since “pedagogically, teachers must be familiar with the rationale, and the techniques to conduct a highly interactive lesson as they deal simultaneously with content and help out with language” (Pérez-Vidal, 2009, p. 12). For her part, Pérez Cañado (2018a) notes that catering to diversity is not able to be functionally carried out due to the lack of materials, guidelines, and updated teacher training programs.

Another issue regarding teacher training are the different types of CLIL teachers: The English teachers who have been trained in content, and the subject teachers who have been trained in English. Bruton (2013) gives these examples of the two teachers that exist in Spain, the latter being commonplace in Andalusia. He also questions the motives of the teachers who join the CLIL courses, more specifically concerning their language capabilities, and wonders what the future of CLIL will be if it becomes a requirement and no longer an option: how will non-capable teachers cope? This also remains an uncertainty in CLIL schemes since the L2 proficiency levels of teachers are not concrete and it could be argued that B2 proficiency is not sufficient for the impartation of these classes.

Assessment is another challenge in the language classroom, which is difficult enough on its own, without the added pressure of including content; hence, evaluation and assessment become even more complicated and capricious due to CLIL (Pérez-Vidal, 2009). Teachers now have to be able to respond adequately to children in the classroom and give them timely feedback. On that same note, Pérez Cañado (2021b) argues that assessment in CLIL “needs to be considerably revamped” (p. 44).

To touch upon some of the other criticisms, the following are highlighted: the prevalence of English in this approach is seen as a drawback for some who claim that this means CLIL is not

truly increasing Europe's potential for multilingualism and plurilingualism (Nikula et al., 2013); the lack of teaching materials (e.g. Halbach, 2009); students who may knowingly or unwillingly pay less attention to the class due to negative feelings and poor confidence stemming from either language or competence deficits (Dickey, 2004; Smith, 2005); CLIL's inability to properly teach certain aspects of language such as pronunciation, syntax, discourse skills, informal, and non-technical language given "an insufficient focus on form" (Pérez Cañado, 2018a, p. 158); and the slower pace it requires (Pérez-Vidal, 2009).

2.5.12. Conclusion

CLIL has taken root in Europe, and it is here to stay. However, as with any methodology, progress is still to be made (Eurydice, 2023). Teaching content and language simultaneously will be the future for this "linguistically diverse continent" (idem, 2023, p. 15) and CLIL will help students be more competent in content, language, and culture, all of which are critical for the European population, who "value and cherish" language diversity (idem, 2023, p. 19).

Despite the aforementioned flaws, and the negative light it has been cast in, it is reasoned that the disadvantages CLIL programs have are the same any second language program may have, since the pressure for students to become multilingual warrants a certain quality assurance, regardless of the methodology employed (Coyle et al., 2010). For her part, Pérez-Vidal (2009) wisely concludes: "CLIL is about innovation, and as with any innovative approach, challenges have to be faced. However, the firm base that underpins this new approach makes the effort for multilingualism worthwhile" (p. 13). Most importantly, recent research (Marsh et al., 2020) concludes that "people who have more than one language have advantages over monolinguals" (p. 3).

Any of the drawbacks are undoubtedly due to the relatively quick upsurge in the CLIL pedagogy, which has taken over Europe at such a pace that research and training are struggling to keep up, thus casting some shadows of doubt over unknown aspects. With that acknowledged, CLIL has made such an impact in the short time it has been properly and completely imposed in many European nations and now, as will be discussed in the subsequent Chapter, research is blossoming to help keep CLIL sharp and attuned to 21st-century stakeholders.

Chapter 3.

Research in Bilingual Education

3.1. Introduction

Drawing upon the previously expounded characteristics and core features of this pedagogy, it can be deduced that CLIL requires crucial elements in order to be successful, including qualified, highly trained teachers; attainable target language use; systematic L1 use; a functional content-language relationship; and classroom practices that foment an inclusive learning environment. Hence why it is so vital researchers continue to investigate these elements so as to implement CLIL in a more harmonious way that works for all learners in varying contexts.

Although CLIL has been around since the mid-1990s, unfortunately, much of the research done during the first years of the CLIL takeover was not carried out under completely sound circumstances, thus jeopardizing its reliability and validity (e.g. Pérez Cañado, 2016d; Van de Craen et al., 2007). For their part, Van de Craen et al. (2007) note that the research gathered from the years 1995 to 2006 “[...] is scattered, non-systematic, and very incomplete” (p. 187). Dalton-Puffer et al. (2014) emphasize that “[...] empirical research on CLIL implementations visibly started to happen in different national contexts around the mid-2000s” (p. 214). This, in part, was due to the fact that CLIL “introduced an enormous amount of new variables”, which subsequently led to many questions regarding the learning of two languages, explanations of LL, implicit and incidental learning, learner background, roles of stakeholders and methods and materials, and explains why some CLIL research has been futile, since many of these variables were not factored in (Van de Craen et al., 2007, p. 187). Furthermore, many of the inconsistencies in earlier research are owed to the fact that “the comparative studies of bilingualism and cognition painstakingly made sure that the groups under study were composed of balanced bilinguals in order to make comparison with monolinguals possible in a CLIL environment”, and it was precisely this attempt to gather equalized students that make this research “biased” (idem, 2007, p. 188).

CLIL implementation is very diverse and, hence, there is no functional way to export models of CLIL from one country to another, as programs differ based on regional and national differences. This is true for many reasons, first and foremost being the social and cultural differences found in each nation which call for a specific type of CLIL tailored to their particular country (Baetens Beardsmore, 1990; Coyle, 2007b). Given the differences in the application of CLIL, the research must be carried out meticulously and be region-specific if a particular country stands to benefit, Hüttner and Smit (2014) warn: “CLIL comes in such diverse national, but also local realisations that cross-study evaluations need to remain particularly careful not to disregard the different educational specificities the respective CLIL studies are taken from” (p. 163).

As for CLIL schemes in Europe, disparity abounds. All European countries have adapted CLIL in varying degrees in their curriculums except Denmark, Greece, Iceland, and Turkey

(Fernández Sanjurjo et al., 2019). Dalton-Puffer (2011) points out Spain and The Netherlands are the only two countries in Europe whose “national education systems have actually responded with substantial investments into CLIL implementation, teacher education, and research”, referencing the extensive research being done in Spain and the “national accreditation system and quality parameters” in The Netherlands (p. 185). For her part, Pérez Cañado (2012) highlights the fact that CLIL application throughout Europe is extremely varied given each country’s traditional, linguistic, and educational differences. Focusing on some specific countries, Belgium, Luxembourg, and Malta employ CLIL nationwide (Cinganotto, 2016), while Luxembourg, Malta, and Liechtenstein are the only countries in Europe that report 100% of students to be learning a FL (Devlin, 2018).

When it comes to FLL in Europe, Devlin (2018) draws attention to the fact that European students are far ahead of their North American counterparts: The European median of students enrolled in FL classes lies at 92% and statistics for Spain show 96% of the population learning a FL, compared to only 20% in the U.S. (idem, 2018). Studying a FL is mandatory in over 20 countries in Europe but less than half of the 50 states in the U.S. have it as a high school requirement. On the European scene, English is by far the most popular FL among all ages, echoed by various authors (e.g. Banegas, 2022; Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2010; Llinares & Cross, 2022). Devlin (2018) shows that English is the dominant language in CLIL programs in Europe, and by far the most studied language in the EU (97%). French, as a FL, comes in second with almost 34% of the European population taking French as a FL, followed by: German (23%) Spanish (13.5%), Russian (2.7%) and Italian (1%). This is in line with Banegas (2022), who remarks on language heterogeneity in European CLIL programs, or lack thereof, doubting CLIL’s contribution to inclusion, with the domination of the few languages in CLIL, denominated by the author as “high ethnolinguistic vitality” (p. 278). As the author argues, the use of CLIL with only popular languages “may be detrimental to efforts to promote multilingualism across contexts and regions” (p. 278).

The Eurostat (2018) gives information on specific European countries and where they fall percentage-wise with FLL in two additional languages (per the *mother tongue + two initiative*). Liechtenstein reports 100% of students learning two or more FLs, Iceland trailing behind with 98%, followed by Finland, Greece, Italy, and Estonia, all of whom report between 95% and 98% of students to be learning two or more FLs. For its part, Spain reports 46% of students learning two or more FLs, which is significantly below the EU median of 59%. Some of the poorer ranking countries when it comes to the percentage of population and FLL in two additional languages are: Germany (35%), Belgium (27%), Bulgaria (17%), Ireland (13%), Austria (9%), and Hungary (6%).

When it comes to English as a FL in particular, the EPI (English Proficiency Index, 2020³⁴) ranks The Netherlands with the highest with English proficiency, ranking first out of the 34 European countries included on the list. Other European countries that rank *very high* include: Denmark, Finland, Sweden, Norway, Austria, Portugal, Germany, Belgium, and Luxembourg, and 10 of the 12 countries ranked as having *very high* English proficiency were European countries³⁵. Spain falls at number 23 out of the European countries and 34th globally, out of 100 countries on the list, with an overall EPI ranking as *moderate*. The EPI average for Europe is 550, and Spain comes in slightly below the average with 537. The index highlights that Europe, as a region, has the highest English proficiency level and that is notwithstanding the inclusion of non-EU member countries on the list. The index attests this to years of research and investment made by national education ministries and the EU when it comes to promoting and fomenting plurilingualism. The countries with the highest EPI are Scandinavian countries, and the index highlights certain characteristics of these education systems, including focusing on communicative skills from an early age on, extramural exposure to and daily exposure to English in the school, and language instruction that is career-oriented.

The index highlights the Eurozone's four largest economies (Germany, France, Spain, and Italy) and only one of the four, Germany, is listed as *very high* in terms of English proficiency. France, Spain, and Italy are pointedly behind the other EU member states; however, France has made significant gains when it comes to English proficiency over the years, moving from *low* and *moderate* in the years 2011-2019 to ranking as *high* for the year 2020. As for the ten countries that fall last on the list, they are categorized as *moderate*, Italy, Spain, Belarus, Russia, Albania, Ukraine, Georgia, and three as low or very low: Armenia (*low*), Turkey (*low*), and Azerbaijan (*very low*).

With regards to Spain in particular, throughout the years, this nation has worked its way up from being categorized as having an EPI of *low* in 2011, changing to *moderate* the following year, where it currently stands. Considering the country as a whole, only two regions continue to be categorized with a *low* EPI: La Rioja and Extremadura. Of the 17 regions, four of them are categorized as having *high* EPIs: Navarre, Madrid, Basque Country, and Asturias, while the rest are categorized as *moderate*.

³⁴ <https://www.ef.com/wwen/eipi/>. Countries are listed by English proficiency in five categorizations from *very high*, *high*, *moderate*, to *low* and *very low*.

³⁵ The two non-European countries also ranked *very high* are Singapore and South Africa.

As CLIL grows in popularity and confidence and this (not-so) novel approach flourishes, research has been growing steadily, but has also been carried out in a plethora of different conditions around Europe. For two decades, interest in CLIL has spawned countless research into this innovative pedagogy; however, as previously mentioned, not all the research is completely reliable (Pérez Cañado, 2012, 2016d), leading to the cataclysmic discovery that many of the results found in prior studies are now questionable at best. This may unfortunately have “biased the results in ways that it is impossible to predict or correct” (Genesee, 1998, p. 10). Regrettably, almost all of the research done has been initiated “without always guaranteeing their homogeneity, factoring in moderating variables, considering the long-term effects of CLIL, or determining the true causes for potential differences detected between treatment and comparison groups” (Pérez Cañado, 2016d, p. 5). For her part, Coyle (2007b) warns that “quality might be overtaken by quantity”, referencing the amount of research that has been done in less than sound conditions (p. 53). There are also calls for controlling “potentially intervening factors [...] so as to avoid erroneous attributions of higher FL proficiency and academic performance solely to CLIL education” (Madrid & Barrios, 2018).

Fortunately, remedial studies are taking place: two government funded projects were carried out in Spain (FFI2012-32221 and P12-HUM-23480), led by Pérez Cañado, which sought to re-evaluate previously conducted CLIL research, joining together sound recurring evidence that CLIL is superior in bilingual methodology. The studies focus on issues related to contextual, cognitive, and affective variation in CLIL, factoring in 11 different intervening variables to examine their effect on the L1, L2 and content learning of students in CLIL and non-CLIL programs in both Primary and Secondary education. The conclusions continue to back this methodology as being superior for bilingual education.

Numerous studies in various areas of CLIL have been executed over the years as researchers have been “striving to keep track of the phenomenal growth of this approach” (Siepmann & Pérez Cañado, 2022, p. 268). It is now imperative to underline several leading researchers in the field. In addition to D. Coyle in the United Kingdom and her immeasurable contributions to CLIL research, other headline figures stand out, including: C. Dalton-Puffer in Austria; D. Marsh, P. Mehisto, T. Nikula and A. Roiha in Finland; L. Cinganotto, C. M. Coonan and G. Langé in Italy; H. Baetens Beardsmore in Brussels; D. Wolff in Germany; and E. Barrios, A. Fernández Fontecha, A. Halbach, N. Lasagabaster, A. Llinares, F. Lorenzo, D. Madrid, A. Otto, V. Pavón Vázquez and M. L. Pérez Cañado in Spain, among many others.

Regarding research specifics, Pavón Vázquez (2018) lists some of the most touched upon areas (p. 10):

- evaluation of the programs;

- language outcomes;
- content outcomes;
- the affective domain;
- stakeholders' perceptions;
- teacher training;
- L1 use; and
- pedagogical orientation.

Many studies fall within the second point (e.g. Lorenzo et al. 2021; Madrid and Barrios, 2018; Pavón Vazquez, 2018; Rascón Moreno & Bretones Callejas, 2018; Shepherd & Ainsworth, 2017). Summarizing previous studies by area, Navarro Pablo (2021) gives an extensive list of the literature on CLIL based on four criteria: CLIL characterization; implementation and stakeholders' beliefs and opinions; English and content learning outcomes; and individual and contextual variables. For the first criterion, authors include: Cenoz et al. (2014); Coyle (2008); Dalton-Puffer (2011); Dalton-Puffer et al. (2014); Dueñas (2004); Marsh (2002); Mehisto et al. (2008); Nikula (2007); Pérez Cañado (2012); Ruiz de Zarobe (2017); and Turner (2013). Regarding stakeholders' beliefs and opinions, the author (2021) includes researchers such as Coonan (2007); Dalton-Puffer (2011), Lancaster (2016), Oxbrow (2018) and Pérez Cañado (2014). For the third strand, research is abounding, as cited by Navarro Pablo (2021): Admiraal et al. (2006); Agustín-Llach (2009); Agustín-Llach & Canga (2014); Breidbach and Viedbrock (2012); Dalton-Puffer (2009); Fernández Fontecha (2010); Lasagabaster (2015); Lasagabaster and Ruiz de Zarobe (2010); Llinares and Dafouz (2010); Moreno (2009); Naves and Victori (2010); Ojeda (2009); Pérez Cañado (2018a); Ruiz de Zarobe (2008); Ruiz de Zarobe and Jimenez Catalán (2009); Rumlich (2016); San Isidro (2010). Finally, regarding individual and contextual variables, research studies included by Navarro Pablo (2021) in her detailing are: Alejo and Piquer (2016); Arribas (2016); Dafouz and Hibler (2013); Dalton-Puffer (2007a); Doiz et al. (2014); Fernández and Canga (2014); Fernández Sanjurjo et al. (2019); Lancaster (2018); Lasagabaster (2011); Lasagabaster and Sierra (2009); Llinares et al. (2012); Lorenzo (2017); Lorenzo et al. (2019); Madrid and Barrios (2018); Martín del Pozo (2013, 2015); Navarro Pablo and García Jiménez (2018); Pavón (2018); Pfenninger (2016); and Rascón Moreno and Bretones Callejas (2018).

The next section will delve into three of these four criteria, beginning with stakeholders' perceptions studies, language and content studies, and finishing with a closer look at research conducted the implementation at grassroots level of CLIL. Then, this chapter will look at research specifically tied to inclusion and diversity, related to individual variables such as SES, L1, gender, motivational variables, extramural exposure, and context (rural/urban).

3.2. Stakeholders' perceptions studies

Stakeholders' perceptions are essential to CLIL research schemes; as Barrios Espinosa (2019) maintains this "lies in the fact that their interpretations and beliefs are crucial to understand how the CLIL program is socially viewed, understood and constructed, and the expectation it raises" (p. 1). Unfortunately, how learners are experiencing these programs has not been given sufficient attention to in research from the past two decades as brought to our attention by San Isidro and Pérez Cañado (2023), who note that learners' perspectives in CLIL is "one of the most underexplored areas" (p. 268), as agreed upon by other authors such as Barrios (2022). It is imperative research is carried out as a way to "identify scope for improvement" (San Isidro & Pérez Cañado, 2023, p. 269) Fortunately, more recently, research in this area has been stepped up. In any case, recent studies on perceptions have been mostly concentrated on perceptions from teachers and students, with studies on parents still coming to fruition.

Regarding teachers' perceptions, one of the first studies to be carried out was the STIMOB (*Stimulerend Meertalig Onderwijs Brussel*) project (2001), which probed teachers' sentiments regarding bilingual programs. The findings, per Van de Craen et al. (2007), established "that CLIL does not require special skills from the pupils and that they adjust fairly easy to learning in another language" (p. 190). They found that the attitudes of the teachers "changed from apprehensiveness and hesitation to enthusiasm" as a result of "the pupils' progress, openness and spontaneity" (p. 190). However, during the study, the schools involved repeatedly remarked highlighted the inadequate in-service training offered to CLIL teachers.

For their part, Durán-Martínez and Beltrán-Llavador (2016) carried out a study in northern Spain (Castile and Leon) regarding the perspectives of the teachers and found resources and teacher training were considered the two most important features of the bilingual program. Once teachers felt confident with their level of English and ability to use it fluidly in the classroom, the next big issues to address were methodology, professional training, and development schemes. The same authors (2016) insist on the need for improved teacher training, both for pre- and in-service teachers. Their research found that teachers were insistent on the need for improved resources and a better selection of such. It is assumed, and their findings are consistent in this theory, that most CLIL teachers are designing their own CLIL materials as they deem fitting. Upon evaluation, the majority of the teachers agreed that the bilingual sections are very positive; however, they mentioned two disadvantages: "the added difficulty of catering for inclusive alternatives for SEN children and the need to become fully confident and proficient in their use of English" (p. 88). Results also highlight the problems that might arise between types of teachers, with regard to their studies and training: "accreditation for bilingual teachers poses an unanticipated threat for the non-specialists whose profile may be seen, in comparison, as downgraded, less prestigious and less competitive" (p. 88). Concluding their research, the general consensus was that teachers had threefold needs: more support from educational authorities

regarding materials and resources, increased teacher training opportunities, and more flexibility in the arrangements of students, including the power to divide larger classes into smaller groups.

Aligned with these findings, more recently, Pérez Cañado (2021b) carried out a study on teachers' perceptions regarding materials in CLIL, a notorious deficiency to this pedagogy, which "evinces conspicuous lacunae" (p. 41). Her research found that: "authentic materials are no longer valid options for teaching content and language in an integrated way" (p. 42). Instead, she concluded that the majority of teachers are originally designed and adapting their own materials, due to the fact that existing materials are impractical for CLIL classes. In another publication, same author (2018c) notes that materials used in CLIL classes are "communicative, interesting, and innovative"; however, unfortunately, "new technologies are still not prominently used [and] blogs, wikis, webquests, and computer-mediated communication are scarcely employed" (p. 42). The conclusions from the study found that efforts on the teachers' behalf for material creation were exhaustive and substantial. Furthermore, teachers lament the amount of time it takes to create proper material and lack of recognition for this endeavour. To cater to these issues, Siepmann and Pérez Cañado (2022) sought to reinforce the digitalization of CLIL materials³⁶.

For their part, Milla Lara and Casas Pedrosa (2018) also polled teachers on their opinion when it came to CLIL implementation in southern Spain by looking at key variables. They found differences in opinions as related to the type of teachers: LA teachers were more positive in their appraisal of students' L2 competence when compared to the NLA teachers. Teachers that had more proficiency in the L2 (a C1 or C2 certificate) also were more positive when it came to reviewing the CLIL scheme than their lower proficiency peers (B2 certificate or lower). In that same vein, more language competent teachers believe their students are more proficient themselves, whereas less competent teachers are the ones who voice more need for training. The authors suggest this is most likely due to the fact that a B2 language certificate is not enough to generate enough confidence to lead a CLIL class, a subject that undoubtedly necessitates further investigation. This is directly in line with a recent publication by Pérez Cañado (2024), in which successful CLIL implementation hinges on adequate language accreditation by teachers, ideally a C2.

As mentioned at the beginning of this section, parent perspectives have been slower to get off the ground, most likely due to the inaccessibility with this cohort and problems presented when it comes to follow up. However, within the past decade, Ráez Padilla (2018) looked into the parent perspective in the Spanish context, under "the premise that parents [...] are key players

³⁶ Cf. section 3.6.3.4 for more details

in CLIL implementation” which is why the author sought to “canvass” their opinions (p. 183) regarding CLIL schemes in southern Spain. The author concludes that from a parental perspective, CLIL programs are a success on all fronts: competence, motivation, grades and interest. The author (2018) did find that SES played a role in how parents are perceiving these programs: parents with higher SES (higher education levels) are more confident overall in how much support they are able to offer their children in the FL and consequently, in the CLIL subject. The higher SES parents are also more satisfied with the diversity of methodologies being employed in the classroom. However, on the whole, the parents in this study were widely content with the CLIL program, with the only main issue being that parents who have little to no L2 proficiency are not receiving enough guidelines and are unable to help their offspring. While the parents here did not see any negative influence, they also did not see the CLIL class having any positive impact on the students’ L1.

Also in Spain, Barrios and Milla Lara (2018) looked into practitioner and parent perspectives. The findings were consistent with most of Ráez Padilla’s (2018) findings, in that parents feel inept when it comes to helping their children in the CLIL class due to insufficient L2 proficiency. The parents in this study were also quite vocal about needing more guidance about CLIL methodology as well as strategies to support their children academically.

More recently, in the South American context, McDougald (2023) sought to categorize teachers’ perceptions and attitudes on CLIL programs in research that has been carried out throughout the years as a way to summarize and objectively describe key findings from over the years when it comes to these important stakeholders. The author found there were five elements that “form a continuous cycle that is a part of the teaching and learning process: beliefs, perceptions, experiences, attitudes, and behavior” (p. 255). The author, through the combing of teacher perception studies, found that all have different levels of experiences and beliefs when it comes to bilingual education, and since the CLIL approach itself is “relatively new”, compared to other FLT approaches, “it is safe to say that not every teacher is aware and knowledgeable about CLIL” (p. 257). The author concludes that there is still much to be discovered, and subsequently disseminated to the stakeholders involved, about CLIL since, it seems to be seen from either a content perspective, from content teachers who give little to no attention to language in the classroom, or language teachers who focus most of their attention on language acquisition, who might be language experts themselves and thus, are insufficient in their content mastery. And thus, it might be the lack of a clear idea of what the CLIL methodology is, and how to fully integrated both the two main ingredients, content and language, which is “distorting the lens of the positive views on CLIL and relabeling CLIL as time consuming, troublesome, challenging, or unrealistic” (idem, 2023, p. 263).

With respect to other stakeholder perception studies in Europe, positive attitudes have been gathered in studies around Europe regarding students and their perceptions of English competence: “most students strongly believe that they have improved their English as a result of their participation in bilingual education” (Lancaster, 2016, p. 155, in concordance with previous studies such as Lorenzo et al., 2009; Madrid & Hughes, 2011). In that same vein, San Isidro and Pérez Cañado (2023) conclude that a recent compilation of studies has found that “learners, as central agents in CLIL programs, have strong faith in the bilingual education system” (p. 279). Referencing research done in Estonia, Poland and Italy, and attesting to evidence amassing CLIL’s success, Lancaster (2016) found “harmonious results derived from questionnaires, interviews and classroom observation involving teachers and students denote CLIL success on almost all counts and “unveil predominantly positive attitudes” from stakeholders (p. 155). More recently, Hidalgo-McCabe (2022) polled stakeholders in the capital of Spain (Madrid) and found students and teachers to be very appreciative of the bilingual program.

Within the past couple of years, related to attention to diversity, several studies have been carried out related to stakeholder perspectives (e.g. Bauer-Marschallinger et al., 2023; Casas Pedrosa & Rascón Moreno, 2023; Coyle et al., 2023; Hofstadler et al., 2020; Nikula et al., 2023; Oxbrow, 2018; Ramón Ramos, 2023; Siepmann et al. 2023; Ting, 2023). Coyle, Bower, Foley, and Hancock carried out a study in the U.K. at Secondary education level, comparing two bilingual schemes. In Italy, Ting used the ADiBE student questionnaires and interview protocol to gauge learner perspectives on CLIL when it came to certain aspects of the bilingual program. From the Austrian perspective, Bauer-Marschallinger, Dalton-Puffer, Heaney, Katzinger, and Smit used the ADiBE questionnaires and interview protocol, also directed at students, to gauge how practices are diversifying activities and assessment to help students in the CLIL classroom. In that same context, Hofstadler, Babic, Lämmerer, Mercer, and Oberdorfer sought to investigate teachers’ wellbeing through the use of interviews to see how teachers are dealing with the workload involved in CLIL. With Finnish students and teachers, Nikula, Skinnari, and Mård-Miettinen (2022) used interviews with these key stakeholders and found equality to be a major theme in the findings, as well as diversity tactics when it comes to students’ needs and learning paces in the process of material adaptation, diversified assessment, and homework. Siepmann, Rumlich, Matz, and Romhild targeted German students and teachers with the help of ADiBE questionnaires, interview protocol and classroom observations, finding great discrepancy between student and teacher perspectives when it comes to attending to diversity. In Spain, Ramón Ramos used ADiBE questionnaires, interviews, and direct observation with all three stakeholders to gauge opinions on different aspects related to ADiBE and CLIL. Also in this country, Casas Pedrosa and Rascón Moreno probed teachers and student opinions, related to the ADiBE questionnaires, factoring in learner variables, finding positive opinions from both stakeholders.

Finally, given the widely held belief, as expressed by San Isidro and Pérez Cañado (2023) that the “opinions, attitudes, and perceptions of students should be fully considered in order to reshape CLIL educational structures and to articulate the necessary reforms to promote more inclusive policies and practices which are aligned with the current challenges in bilingual education” (p. 279), Chaieberras and Rascón Moreno (2018) looked into the perspectives of students in bilingual sections in Madrid, probing the degree of satisfaction with the program via questionnaires and interviews. Overall, the perceptions were widely positive, as the students were quite satisfied with all aspects related to CLIL. This, as the authors note, is due to the recent surge from the Spanish government to innovate teaching methodology and make FLL more enticing. As pertinent to linguistic aspects, the students believed their English had improved; however, they were divided in their perception of L1, as only half of the cohort saw their Spanish language competence to have been improved as a consequence of the bilingual program. The students also fully believe their content knowledge has improved, and they believe they have more understanding of languages, due a connection being made between the L1 and L2. They are more confident and more interested in CLIL as well as valuing their socio-cultural and intercultural awareness as more than satisfactory. When it came to methodology, all of the students greatly appreciated the CLIL program, believing the teachers to be using varied, innovative, and interesting techniques in the classroom. The same was found for materials and resources: the students perceive there to be a rich variety of CLIL resources, as well as adapted and original materials. The CLIL students find the materials to be more innovating. However, there was a lukewarm response about the use of computer mediated communication, which was not seen as being used very much. The assessment and teacher training facets were equally appraised by the students, and find these two aspects to be extremely positive. Overall, the students found that even though there was more work involved, the students have improved and have increased motivation as a direct result of the CLIL methodology.

Regarding across-cohort comparison between the stakeholders, a notable group of investigations have been compiled and compared, detecting important discrepancies as well as congruencies between the teachers, parents, and students (San Isidro & Pérez Cañado, 2023). For the students, they are seemingly very positive and highly appreciate the CLIL schemes in general, in almost all of the facets (linguistic aspects, methodology, groupings, teacher preparation, coordination, and assessment) (idem, 2023). However, this cohort is more critical when it comes to their perception of teacher training, the teacher-led component, use of heterogeneous groupings, and layouts as well as maintaining the conviction that self-assessment is not used. However, as Bauer-Marschallinger et al. (2023) attest, this might be due to the fact that teachers are not explicit in explaining their pedagogical practices, nor are learners sensitive to them, and, therefore, many practices might not be visible to the students. On the other hand, CLIL practitioners are very confident when it comes to their competence and training, especially

regarding how prepared they are linguistically, in addition to their knowledge and use of student-centered methodologies, diversified assessment practices, communicative and innovative materials, and diversification methodologies (linguistic scaffolding, individualized support, heterogeneous groupings, and feedback). Finally, the parental cohort has, by far, the most positive outlook on the entire bilingual program, especially concerning the methodology, support system and teacher training facets (San Isidro & Pérez Cañado, 2023). They generally associate great prestige to the bilingual program and are enthusiastic with almost all aspects. Thus, the three stakeholders are quite satisfied with the CLIL program, although why they disagree on certain points is something that will warrant further research, as delineated by Siepmann et al. (2023). This is reverberated by Nikula et al. (2023), who highlights the inconsistencies between student and teacher perceptions, alluding that success of classroom practices impinges on verifying or determining the root cause for these discrepancies.

3.3. Language studies

The studies related to CLIL and its effect on language investigate both the L1 and FL and are quite numerous, and have been necessary since the beginning of CLIL to determine what effect, if any, CLIL is having on students' FL and mother tongue attainment given the importance of both and the doubts cast of whether CLIL is benefiting the former or hindering the latter. First, we will look at studies related to FL competence, of which, research abounds.

In the early 2000s a few studies are worth mentioning. Admiraal et al. (2006) looked at CLIL's effect on oral production and interaction between students in the Netherlands and found that students' FL knowledge was positively influenced. Dalton-Puffer (2005; 2007b) carried out a study in Austria from 2001-2003 with students and teachers, focusing on two academic language functions: defining and hypothesizing, which sought to understand more about how CALP skills work in the CLIL classroom. The author reasons that her study was based in one country "because it is almost certain that not only individual teaching style but also the general educational culture in which CLIL lessons are set represent important factors for or against the occurrence of hypothesizing episodes" (Dalton-Puffer, 2007b, p. 207). The conclusions show that the two speech functions studied did not transmit the idea that much learning was taking place, and although specific situation and, even though the overall results cannot be assumed for all CLIL environments, she regards her findings "not altogether atypical of the state of affairs in other countries" (p. 208). The author concludes there stands "a clear call for reconsidering the role of language-focused instruction in CLIL classroom, especially in those contexts where conceptual reference is made exclusively to input-based models of language learning" (p. 209). Furthermore, she argues that students need to be versed in CALP, in addition to BICS, if they are to truly flourish in their academic endeavors.

The author concludes up that CALP language functions must be added to the CLIL agenda, and the language used in these classrooms must foment both BICS and CALP if they are to be relied on for graduating competent plurilingual citizens.

In Spain, Llinares et al. (2007) carried out a study focusing on specific genres and subjects based on the linguistic needs of the students, keeping in mind that the majority of CLIL teachers are not English or FL specialists, rather subject teachers with moderately high levels of English competence. The authors are not critical of these types of teachers, but acknowledge that, due to their training in content as opposed to language, they tend to be unable to “identify the linguistic needs of their learners in their subjects” (p. 227). The study aimed to support secondary school CLIL teachers by perusing further into the specific linguistic needs of EFL learners in two particular subjects, History and Geography, and analyzed the first grade of CSE, focusing on students’ written production. The objectives, state the researchers, would allow for them “to identify the linguistic features of the two registers, namely, the learner interlanguage and the language of the expert textbook writer” (p. 228). The authors feel learning a discipline is synonymous with learning the language of that discipline and, whether or not students are successful academically depends mainly on the language proficiency they have in the subject area they are studying.

The study focused on the analysis of transitivity with the overall aim of finding out how learners in CLIL use three language functions (*ideational*, *interpersonal*, and *textual*) to construct texts belonging to particular genres. They examined two classes from two different schools in Madrid, with students from varying SES, and looked at their compositions after being given a popular, motivating topic that had been chosen by the researchers. Based on the findings gathered from the research, Llinares et al. (2007) advise subject teachers to be offered “linguistic support based on a study of the register features in the curriculum, since they are usually unaware of the role of the language in their discipline” (p. 234).

In the 2000s, Lorenzo (2010) found that non-CLIL groups in Spain were outperformed across the board in all four skills of the FL (English) in general language proficiency.

Pérez Cañado and Lancaster (2017) researched the effects of CLIL on oral production skills in southern Spain (Andalusia). Results from the study found that the CLIL classes were mostly communicative, used technology to a satisfactory extent, had bilingual libraries, featured high exposure levels to English inside the classroom and used student-centered methodologies like task-based and collaborative learning. Specifically related to the skills of speaking and listening, the study found productive oral skills to be positively influenced by CLIL as time went on. The data collected by the authors (2017) also found CLIL to be a more efficient via in which to use more complex listening activities.

As for studies that looked at changes over time, Pérez Cañado (2018a) carried out one of the first longitudinal studies on the impact of CLIL on L2 learning which successfully isolated the variables responsible for the differences ascertained between students. The study shows that CLIL programs are more effective in the long term, and thus, their positive effect on students can only be appreciated if the program is sustained over time. Likewise, CLIL has a strong effect on students' language achievement and students are retaining that knowledge over time. As for the cause of the differences between the CLIL and non-CLIL groups, the reason to explain the difference is pinpointed entirely on the CLIL program itself.

Also within Spain, Navarro Pablo (2021) looked to update evidence on the benefits of CLIL on language outcomes in the long term. The conclusions from the study find statistically significant differences between CLIL and non-CLIL groups, in favor of CLIL students in both Primary and Secondary education. Her results show increased proficiency in language "by better overall results regarding lexical and grammatical competence, but also in the type of instruction as indicated by the comparison of results obtained in each exercise of the tests" and, furthermore, "confirms the effectiveness of the CLIL approach as far as students' language outcomes are concerned, providing better results even for the development of vocabulary and grammar, in spite of the importance that is traditionally given to them in FL instructional programs" (p. 136).

For her part, Pérez Cañado (2021b) highlights that studies conducted have confirmed that the quality of exposure to the FL is of the utmost importance when it comes to boosting FL competence gains in students: "recent research has evinced that meaningful, communicative exposure to the foreign language through CLIL (with no extra formal instruction) is a superior instructional option to exclusive EFL teaching with extra formal instruction" (Pérez Cañado, 2021b, p. 35, referencing Lancaster, 2018).

Also investigating language outcomes in Spain, Gálvez-Gómez (2021), researched the effects of CLIL on FL learning in a longitudinal study and confirmed that students in a CLIL program outperformed, linguistically, their non-CLIL peers when it came to English competence: "we can affirm our data point to the general improvement of skills in the FL. Hence, our results support the continuity of CLIL programs in post-Secondary stages, something which would help to consolidate their positive effects among students" (p. 163).

Four other studies, as summarized by Graham et al. (2018), look at CLIL's impact on FL vocabulary acquisition: Agustín-Llach (2017, 2019), Anghel et al. (2016), and Arribas (2016). The first (2017), carried out with students in Primary education, found no differences between CLIL and non-CLIL groups. The second (2019) also studied students in Primary education, looking primarily at students' vocabulary and writing skills, and, again, found no differences between CLIL and non-CLIL students. The second to last (2016) found that CLIL classes in English negatively

impacted learners' achievement in the subjects studied in the FL and students with lower SES suffered the most in this regard. Finally, the last (2016) study was done with students in Secondary education, which focused mainly on vocabulary skills, and concluded that no differences were found between the CLIL and non-CLIL groups.

More recently, Denman et al. (2022) researched inclusive CLIL in the Netherlands and found CLIL students to have higher speaking and more vocabulary in the FL. However, the authors attributed the findings to the fact that these CLIL students were self-selecting themselves and were, from the start, more motivated than their non-CLIL peers.

Turning now to studies related to mother tongue language attainment, Barrios (2021) researched the effect of CLIL on the L1 competence, given previous warnings from some researchers (Baetens Beardsmore, 2002; Halbach, 2009; Wolff, 2006) about the possible negative effect CLIL might have on the L1. Her study focused on investigating if CLIL negatively affected the L1 competence of students in Andalusia with 720 students from 13 public, one private and three charter schools in southern Spain, and found that CLIL programs do not negatively affect students' mother tongue competence, "thus supporting the view that a limited number of subjects taught through the medium of the FL does not adversely impinge on the students' competence in L1" (p. 114).

A study focused on the content acquisition front (Piesche et al., 2016) also heralded important language outcomes in CLIL students. The authors studied non-CLIL and CLIL Science students in Germany and, while they did not find any evidence that CLIL benefits students' L2 writing skills, they did conclude that language outcomes are almost always increased in a CLIL program, attributing Krashen's 1985 *input hypothesis*, which might explain why students do better, even when the content is more complicated, such as Science courses. These authors found that content classes, as opposed to language classes, can use content related language pertinent to multiple units or the subject in general through the span of a year or even years, which allows students to repeatedly see, hear, or listen to content specific vocabulary, allowing for manifold chances to assimilate the vocabulary. However, in a more traditional FL setting, vocabulary might be unit- or chapter-specific, and might only be learned in that one unit, and not repeated again, thus giving students hardly any chance at all to use it or hear it repeatedly. This study was referenced by Graham et al. (2018) as fundamental evidence that CLIL can foment language acquisition.

More findings in Spain on the effects of CLIL on L1 include Pérez Cañado (2018e) and Navarro Pablo and López Gándara (2020). The former (2018e) looked at the effect of CLIL on L1 (in addition to content attainment) and the outcomes from the study are consistent with results from Madrid and Hughes (2011) in that public and private CLIL students outperform non-CLIL

students at the end of Primary and Secondary education cycles (6th of CPE and 4th of CSE). However, non-CLIL charter students were found to perform just as well as public CLIL students. There were differences in the L1 in favor of urban contexts when it came to non-CLIL students; however, CLIL learners performed equally well, despite context differences: “thus when the L1 is considered, the rural-urban divide is significant [...] but CLIL learners perform equally well on the L1 [...] irrespective of the type of setting in which they are studying” (idem, 2018e, p. 24). Equally enlightening results were found as related to SES in parents, in line with Lorenzo’s (2021) findings that reveal SES to play a part in explaining the differences in scores for non-CLIL students; however, SES as a variable is cancelled out in the CLIL stream. The author concludes that this study serves to eliminate any doubts that may exist whether CLIL negatively affects the L1 or not, since it has been proven to not harm the mother tongue development in students. The use of the L1 does not affect content acquisition negatively, as found by Pavón Vázquez and Ramos Ordóñez (2019), who concluded that students who have less L2 competence use the L1 more and the opposite holds true: more L2 competence equals less use of L1 in the classroom. Similarly, results from Ohlsson (2021) found that students were not hindered in their L1 in the least and the authors hope their results might serve to “limit the fear regarding L1 writing skills worsening in CLIL education” (p. 36). While this study was conducted in the Swedish context, it serves as a basis for further evidence that CLIL does not detriment any aspect of a learner’s L1.

Navarro Pablo and López Gándara (2020) also researched the effect of CLIL on students’ L1 attainment in southern Spain, focusing on Primary and Secondary students. The authors’ findings align with Pérez Cañado (2018e) in that CLIL students are advantaged in their L1 learning and this difference between CLIL and non-CLIL students could not be attributed to a rural or urban context difference. The authors note that there could be other factors that come into play which might be responsible for the improved grades in CLIL students, as related to the L1, FL and distribution of hours in students’ schedules. As Morton (2023) draws our attention to, it is recent studies like these that “provide evidence that participating in CLIL may even have a beneficial effect on students’ L1 skills and knowledge” (p. 525).

As for mitigating inequality, Somers (2017) investigated minority students and the effect of CLIL on their L1 and the results were clear: CLIL does not negatively affect the marginalized students’ mother tongue competence nor their overall academic attainment. To boot, this study found CLIL worked as a social lever for some students, and promoted social mobility by giving migrant students access to linguistic capital in the forms of increased L1 and L2 knowledge. Not only were minority students not at all negatively affected by the CLIL methodology; they were able to compete, and in some cases, outperform their non-migrant peers in language development. In the Swedish context, Ohlsson (2021) researched students’ written production, mainly vocabulary production, in the L1 (Swedish) in CLIL students (L2 was English). The findings show

the differences in the scope of instruction in L2 English in the three CLIL schools do not seem to be related to the L1 Swedish in the students' written texts [which] indicates that, regardless of the medium of instruction, a greater focus should be placed on linguistic awareness when writing in school (p. 36).

In the Finnish context, Merisuo-Storm (2006) found, at Primary level, no negative implication on students' L1 when they were placed in bilingual streams.

3.4. Content attainment studies

In addition to language attainment, CLIL research efforts have also been concentrated on, understandably, the other half of the CLIL equation: content acquisition. However, this side of the CLIL equation has not been given as much importance as language, argues Morton (2023), who states "content has been something of a poor relation in CLIL research and practice" something which is "surprising because content is the cornerstone of any planning for teaching and assessment" (p. 523).

Nonetheless, these studies have been traditionally concerned with the teaching of subjects such as Math and Science. Nikula (2023) notes the importance of looking beyond the linguistic effects of CLIL to how it is affecting students' content knowledge, and that lack of research in this area might happen since investigation into CLIL is being undertaken by "language educators rather than subject specialists", and that explains why research efforts up until now have been concentrated almost in their entirety on language outcomes, and content attainment studies have fallen by the wayside. Paran (2013) has been openly critical of this lacuna in CLIL research, and the fact that no one is investigating how these classes are affecting subject knowledge. Other researchers join this call for more exploration into content knowledge acquisition in CLIL schemes include Dallinger et al. (2016); Dalton-Puffer (2011); Lasagabaster and Ruiz de Zarobe (2010); Martínez Agudo (2021); Nikula (2016); Pérez Cañado (2012, 2016c, 2017a). For his part, Martínez Agudo (2021) notes that this area of research has been "neglected" up until now, and past research efforts have been mainly concentrated on CLIL's benefits linguistically, failing to address CLIL's effect on subject matter learning (p. 170). Reverberating again would be Morton (2023), who calls for much more "prominence" when it comes to content learning "processes and outcomes" in CLIL schemes (p. 524).

One of the first studies conducted in this arena, Jäppinen (2005), researched the teaching of Maths and Science in Finland, in a study composed of 669 adolescents between the ages of seven and 15 years old. The author's conclusions were generally positive:

It seems that Finnish CLIL environments support thinking and content learning, in particular, in situations where the learner has to compare different concepts and meaning schemes with each

other. This is assumed to be due to the analogical CLIL reasoning systems that are based on exactly the kinds of situations where the learner makes comparisons between two semantic systems of two languages and two or more underlying cultures (p. 163).

Within the Finnish context, Järvinen (2007), proposed models that are adequate for integrating content and language, as well as strategies for teachers who are willing to adapt their methodologies. The goal was to identify practices that would allow students to receive high-quality instruction that fomented their FL use both in- and outside the classroom. To do this, she suggests keeping the content in CLIL as authentic as possible and presenting it in the target language, scaffolding accordingly by supplementing the content with multi-modal input, or resources such as the internet, texts, images, and videos.

As for Mathematics as a subject matter, both Surmont et al. (2016) and Ouazizi (2016) looked into the effect that CLIL methodology had on secondary students' results in this subject. The former investigated over 100 students, in Belgium, 35 of which were instructed in the CLIL methodology whilst the other 72 students took part in traditional Math classes. The study used pre- and post-tests, focusing on students' results after the three- and 10-month markers. They hypothesized that the CLIL students would have better scores in Mathematics after 10 months, yet the findings showed that students' subject-knowledge improved even after just three months of CLIL instruction. The authors (2016) conclude that "CLIL appears to have a positive impact on the mathematical performance of pupils even after a short period of time" (p. 320). Likewise, it was agreed that these results serve to add to the robust body of research already in existence that affirms CLIL methodology can boost not only LL but also subject-matter acquisition, and non-CLIL students are being outperformed by their CLIL counterparts (idem, 2016).

Also in the Belgium context, Ouazizi (2016) researched the effect of CLIL on attainment in the same subject (Maths). The research involved a total of 31 students, 20 of which formed the non-CLIL control group and 11 of which made up the group which received Math through CLIL methodology. The study included pre- and post-tests, as well as teachers' continuous assessment which, for the author, "represents a far more powerful tool of assessment" (p. 129). The conclusions were the same as heralded by Van de Craen (2007) and Surmont et al. (2016): CLIL results in better language proficiency and increased subject matter knowledge. The author (2016) noted that the subject itself, Math, might be more profitable for CLIL instruction, since it is a subject that requires language comprehension and uses language in a functional way for problem solving. However, this author also concedes that L2 instruction in content subjects did not benefit low-achieving students as much as their higher-achieving peers (as commented on by Graham et al., 2018).

A handful of studies have found CLIL to have a negative effect on content acquisition in bilingual students: Anghel et al. (2016), Dallinger et al. (2016), Fernández Sanjurjo et al. (2019),

Fung and Yip (2014), and Piesche et al. (2016). Drawing upon their results, Fernández et al. (2019) found CLIL students obtained lower content grades than their non-CLIL counterparts in northern Spain (Asturias), while Anghel et al. (2016) found lower-SES students to be particularly disadvantaged in the CLIL classroom, earning lower grades than their non-CLIL peers in the subject matter. Outside of Europe as related to achievement, Fung and Yip (2014) looked into the correlation between Physics given in CLIL versus Physics lectured in the L1 (Chinese). They (2014) found that underachievers in the CLIL class did not perform as well academically as their underachieving peers in the non-CLIL class, while the overachievers in CLIL outperformed their non-CLIL peers.

In Germany, Piesche et al. (2016) carried out a study to remedy problems found in previous research (previous selective CLIL classrooms which rendered the validity in the findings questionable since before only high achievers were participating in the programs; few longitudinal studies; outcomes focused only on linguistic outcomes of the students) and to also increase *internal validity*. The study included 30 Physics classes at Secondary education level and featured schools that did not have any CLIL programs before the study, randomly designating them as monolingual or bilingual classes for research purposes (none of the schools had previously offered bilingual education before this study). To further guarantee the reliability of their study, the research team employed pre-, post- and follow-up tests. Reasoning their choice of subject, "Science was chosen because bilingual science instruction has not received ample research attention yet and its feasibility for CLIL is highly debated" (p. 109). The study included a total of 722 students from 30 sixth grade classes from 10 different German schools with average SES levels. The sample students received German only instruction or German/English depending on their categorization at the beginning of the study. The team did not research language outcomes, but focused solely on content knowledge and successfully controlled for variables and randomized sorting of students.

Via conclusions from the post- and follow-up tests, the researchers (2016) found that in the short-term, the monolingual students outperformed their bilingual counterparts, and six weeks out, this continued to hold true. However, there were some limitations with this study, mainly seen with the post-achievement test, which was administered in German, which could have disadvantaged the bilingual students who received the instruction in English, and would have most likely profited from a test in the English language, given it was the language of instruction and how they had learned the concepts. Mainly this study finds that CLIL can be detrimental to students who have had no prior experience to bilingual instruction and "supports the need for future research on effective CLIL-teaching methods" (p. 115).

Shedding more light on the effect of CLIL on content acquisition, Pérez Cañado (2018e) makes irrefutable conclusions when it comes to CLIL superiority vis-à-vis subject knowledge. The

results found urban contexts and higher SES to play a part in determining better scores in non-CLIL students when it came to content achievement. However, in the CLIL streams, context and SES were cancelled out, meaning CLIL works as a leveller for content knowledge as there were no statistically significant differences found in the long run.

Martínez Agudo (2021) looked into the effects of CLIL on Science as subject knowledge, in both Primary and Secondary students. As for the results, they are positive, and “confirm the educational value and effectiveness of CLIL education in comparison with traditional educational approaches as the experimental group (CLIL) obtains better results in subject matter knowledge than the control group (non-CLIL), especially in the long term” (p. 171).

As for the content subject of Science, Madrid and Hughes (2011) researched the effect of CLIL on Primary students and found them to be disadvantaged in this subject, which, the author argued, was due to insufficient linguistic proficiency, and thus, they were disadvantaged in their subject learning in a way that their monolingual peers were not. However, this was found only to be in the case in Primary students. On a more positive note, the author found CLIL to positively influence the communicative competence. However, authors Hughes and Madrid (2019) later highlight that this study was flawed and did not control for important variables.

Per these findings, the authors (2019) sought to recreate the same study carried out in 2011 but with more solid research protocols. They controlled for variables that were not previously controlled for (verbal intelligence, extramural exposure to English, motivation, interest in studying, anxiety in the face of exams, and personal self-demand). The study took place in the subject of Natural Science in 6th of CPE and 4th of CSE as part of the previously mentioned MON-CLIL project. They found that CLIL was more successful in content attainment in the long-term, and Secondary CLIL students did better than non-CLIL students. Most enlightening, they found public CLIL students to be outperforming their non-CLIL peers.

As it would seem, content-related studies, have not always controlled for important variables, leading to a recent, and important, change in research methodology which ensure learner variables are taken into account.

3.5. CLIL implementation studies

As previously noted, CLIL implementation varies greatly (e.g. Cenoz, 2009; Coyle, 2010; Coyle et al., 2010; Pérez Cañado, 2018e; Somers, 2017). Thus, it has been acknowledged that a number of approaches can fall inside the umbrella term of CLIL (Marsh, 2006; Pérez Cañado, 2016d). For that very reason, researchers around Europe have been attempting to categorically delve into how CLIL is implemented in different contexts, to gain some perspective.

In Italy, Garotti (2007) formed experiments with the help of two Italian universities: The University of Trento and The University of Venice. She proposed five methodological research questions with the aim of answering some questions for all those involved in CLIL. The researchers concluded that simply labelling a program as CLIL is not enough to guarantee quality and success; rather, it is all the background preparations regarding methodology and teaching strategies which ultimately decide if the program is functional or not. Furthermore, the research team found that many of the programs that claimed to be using CLIL were in fact not and were mistaken about what CLIL actually was. After analyzing the data, the author noted that "methodological innovation and particular structural characteristics of the teaching approach" are the most pivotal factors for the subsequent success, or failure, of a CLIL experiment (p. 132).

Her research team found that the type of activities which do constitute as CLIL and which are the most productive for students are activities where the students must master the contents and force them to use critical interpretation, as it is known that the use of any other type of activity is just a return back to the traditional FL teaching method which are outdated and dysfunctional and "it is not sufficient for the students to give back information and knowledge, just as it is not sufficient for them to understand the information and memorize it" (p. 133). The author insists on the need to incorporate CLIL activities which require the content to be mastered by the students, and thus, develop skills from the knowledge obtained. This is why it is so vital that CLIL instructors create and design activities that focus and foment reflection and reasoning.

Another take-away from this study was that teachers must be equipped with various strategies "that support contextualization of the contents and their application in targeted disciplinary contexts" (p. 133). She (2009) verbalizes the need to employ both non-verbal and decentralized use of the textbook in CLIL classrooms in order to ensure success. She also mentions some particularly effective CLIL activities that can be used in the classroom: talk shows, experiments, reconstruction sequences, cause and effect diagrams, deductive learning supported by pictures, working autonomously to reformulate the contents, reconstructing texts, and individual online research.

The teachers in the study expressed surprise after using these methods upon seeing the improvement in their students; however, the author notes that the majority of the teachers were vocal about their uncertainty regarding the employment of these methods, expressing more security with well-known, traditional methods, that, although are knowingly less fruitful, were routine and made the teachers feel more at ease.

The author (2009) also remarks on the material, or rather, lack of material, available in the CLIL environment and the author notes that because of the lack of materials, most CLIL teachers must do the research before class begins, which is, ironically, a positive outcome. She

implores that the innovation of CLIL is the autonomy it gives teachers to choose the skills to focus on and the augmented control they have over their classroom and what goes on inside it. This autonomy in preparing originally designed materials paradoxically is a benefit to the CLIL methodology, since it "helps to avoid one of the most dangerous shortcomings of teaching, i.e. the correspondence between program and textbook. Even in the cases in which the contents are prescriptive, the teacher's work plan should not coincide and end with the textbook" (p. 135). The author highlights the absence of teaching material as an advantage point, since it "represents a sure way towards the discovery and use of authentic material, towards personal selection of the objectives, and towards the choice of procedures and strategies for presenting the contents" (p. 135). It would seem that by having more investment in the creation of classroom materials, teachers are allotted a more satisfactory teaching experience that they personally feel responsible for, and thus, work harder to ensure quality measures are taken.

Another researcher based in Italy, Coonan (2007), focused on classroom activities, the process, and overall performance in a CLIL class. Her research team wanted perspectives from a grassroots CLIL classroom, regarding teacher behavior, work plans, and methodology. They viewed the planning of tasks by taking into account several factors: input, conditions, task type, cognitive processes, and outcome. They reiterate that there are many questions educators must ask themselves before stepping foot in a CLIL classroom about the teaching procedures, participation, and planning. For CLIL to be most successful, tasks should be clearly written out with detailed specifications of what is necessary in order to carry out the task, in addition to carefully describing the objectives, in addition to clear-cut specifications of how thinking skills will be addressed. She refers to the task-based methodology, and describes how tasks must be designed with the student in mind so they will be able to "use the language; learn content; and, acquire and use the competences of that content" (p. 155).

She draws attention to a familiar yet disheartening situation that most teachers encounter yet try desperately to avoid: where questions are posed by the instructor and subsequently met with silence. Therefore, an imperative feature of a CLIL program, so as to avoid this situation altogether, deals with the thinking skills that are utilized by the students when asked to fulfill tasks. She explains: "what cognitive action the student is required to do has repercussions not only on the quality of the learning of the content but also on the development of the skill itself [...] as well as on the language used to carry out such operations" (p. 166).

In Spain, Rascón Moreno and Casas Pedrosa (2021) concur that representative CLIL practices must be given priority in research so that practitioners can know what CLIL looks like in practice, and not just in theory. With their study, they hope to "paint a clearer picture of what it looks like at the grassroots level, and, ultimately, to hone and fine-tune its characterisation" (p. 11). They used a representative sample of 44 observations in Andalusia, with the use of previously

designed and validated observation protocols, regarding "FL use in class, discursive functions, competence development, methodology and types of groupings, materials and resources, coordination and organization, and evaluation" (p. 10), as a way to ultimately negate the ambiguity surrounding CLIL implementation and pedagogy and corroborate if practices at grassroots level are actually concurrent with the theoretical guidelines. In their study, Science was the primary content subject focused on, as well as, to a lesser degree, the subjects of Mathematics and Ethics, as a way to seek out the "linguistic, methodological, and organisational traits of CLIL" that are happening in real classrooms (pp. 10-11). This instance of empirically solid classroom observation was intended to identify if there were any major incongruences in grassroots implementation of CLIL and the results will make it possible to "develop remedial actions against practices deviating from the challenging path of CLIL, a path which we cannot afford to not follow, in light of its results and the many benefits it brings to students" (p. 13).

Results from the study (2021) found that students' English competence levels were adequate and teachers showed correct usage of English in the classroom. Interestingly, the authors found that English tended to be used more in the CLIL classes than the FL classes. Pointedly, they underlined that students' heterogeneous levels of the L2 was cause for concern. As for teachers and their methodology, the results were not entirely optimistic, as teachers did not seem to be fully prepared to foment and organize project work, nor did they foster a range of interactions between different classmates. Furthermore, they were unable to rely on appropriate content textbooks in the FL and, as such, were dealing with an even heavier load when it came to class preparation so as to prepare materials that could take diversity into account. The authors note that interdisciplinary practices are not being used and there is "little attention paid to diversity" when it comes to assessment (p. 28). Finally, the authors ascertain that, per the results, teachers' professional experience proves to be a deciding factor in correct CLIL implementation, as teachers who have been teaching for ten or more years tend to auto-evaluate themselves and their teaching practise more positively, as compared to their less experienced peers. In this same vein, teachers who have been in a bilingual program for five years or more also are awarded more confidence in that they implement solid, quality teaching practices. The authors urge other researchers to reproduce this study in various contexts, under the same sound conditions, as a way to "contribute to honing and fine-tuning the requested characterisation of this beneficial and cutting-edge language learning approach" (p. 28).

Looking at high- versus low-exposure CLIL schemes in the capital of Spain (Madrid), Hidalgo-McCabe (2022) hoped to gain insight from Primary school principals, teachers in Primary and Secondary, as well as parents of the students. The stakeholders revealed high appreciation for and extreme confidence in external measurements of aptitude (e.g. Cambridge language assessments). The stakeholders, mainly parents, viewed these external exams as objective and scientific, placing a high value on them for being able to discern a student's progress in the FL.

Unrelated to implementation, but tied to an important learner variable, the majority of the parents polled in this study said their children suffered from moderate to high levels of exam anxiety.

Many authors resound for the need for more research on CLIL implementation, since, as Rascón Moreno and Casas Pedrosa (2021) declare, it is “vague and ambiguous” (p. 14). Likewise, there stands an urgent need for guidelines on correct CLIL implementation since “there is currently a rift between theory and practice” (Pérez Cañado, 2021b, p. 42). This lacuna of characterizations of quality CLIL can be filled by “extensive classroom observation in diverse CLIL contexts” (Pérez Cañado, 2016c, p. 18).

More recently, Granados and Lorenzo (2022) carried out a *tale of two cities* investigation into two Spanish ‘cities’ to depict the history and evolution of bilingual schemes in Madrid and Andalusia. The authors give a detailed overview of both bilingual programs, implementation, and requirements. As the second ‘city’ is the subject of our study, it has been discussed in more depth in the section related to CLIL in Andalusia.

While limited, the studies we have highlighted have given us insights into CLIL implementation on a grassroots level. However, data ascertained continues to identify attention to diversity as one of the fundamental challenges for CLIL programs. Unfortunately, considering how important it is, the literature regarding the matter is insufficient at best (Pérez Cañado, 2021a). This niche has not been delved into properly and research on how inclusive this pedagogy is must be made a priority. Can it truly cater to all learners, from all backgrounds, in all contexts? The next section will shed light on where we stand with research on inclusion and attention to diversity.

3.6. Research on inclusion and achievement

As previously mentioned in Chapter 2, research and initiatives have been blossoming of late on this topic. Many countries around the world are headlining reforms and updating education laws since, ultimately, the top-down policies are the most sustainable and, as UNESCO (2017) reminds us, “legislation is a vital part of developing a more inclusive and equitable education system” (p. 23). Most recently on the European scene, the Erasmus+ KA201 *CLIL for All* ADiBE (Attention to Diversity in Bilingual Education) brings awareness to diversity in CLIL and what can be done to promote inclusion and make sure CLIL profits all learners, despite any barrier, internal or external, they may face (Pérez Cañado et al., 2019)³⁷.

³⁷ Cf. 3.6.3.1. for recent ADiBE research

With such widespread adoption of CLIL, it becomes pressingly necessary to create a stable, quality framework of CLIL so teaching is upheld to the highest possible standard (Coyle, 2007b). As previously mentioned, one single model of CLIL does not exist, nor is it feasible for just one model of CLIL to be used for different contexts. Notwithstanding, this does not eliminate the need for coherent framework, and “flexible and dynamic interpretation also demand rigor in terms of quality and accountability” (idem, 2007b). Furthermore, given CLIL’s various definitions and interpretations, for it to be functional and reliable, there must be relentless evaluation of this pedagogy in its various contexts.

However, despite progress, studies on attention to diversity and inclusive CLIL education continue to be in desperate need of bolstering and “should figure prominently” in upcoming CLIL research (Pérez Cañado, 2021b, p. 45).

3.6.1. Background

There are many myths surrounding bilingualism, related to age, gender, L1, and, pertinent to this Thesis, the myth that disadvantaged or disenfranchised children should be left out of FLL³⁸. It has been advised for years that these children should be kept in monolingual settings so as to avoid the *burden* of FLL, thought to aggravate unfavorable conditions. Albeit limited, studies in the U.S. and Canada serve to debunk this thought, such as that by Paradis et al. (2003, as cited by Genesee, 2015), who, in one of the first studies of its kind found that bilingual children with specific language impairment ³⁹ (henceforth, SLI) had the same levels of competence and “were not at greater risk” than their monolingual counterparts (p. 11). This research concluded that bilingual children who suffered from language impairment disabilities were no more disadvantaged than their monolingual peers; in fact, the bilingually impaired children demonstrated equal levels of *morphosyntactic* competence as their monolingual peers did. Similar findings were reported by Gutiérrez-Ciellen et al. (2008) with Spanish-speaking minorities in the United States. In that same vein, Paradis and Sorenson (2009) researched children with SLI in Canada, finding that bilingualism does not aggravate language disorders in students with specific language impairments.

³⁸ Cf. section 2.4. for information on inclusive education and diversity.

³⁹ National Institute on Deafness and Other Communication Disorders (NIH) define SLI as a communication disorder that interferes with the development of language skills in children who have no hearing loss or intellectual disabilities. SLI can affect a child’s speaking, listening, reading and writing. It is also called developmental language disorder, language delay, or development dysphasia. It is one of the most common developmental disorders, affecting 7 to 8 of children in kindergarten. For more information: <https://www.nidcd.nih.gov/sites/default/files/Documents/health/voice/Specific-Language-Impairment.pdf>.

These results, along with other similar findings regarding SEN and challenged children (e.g. Bird et al., 2005; Hambly & Fombonne, 2012; Marinova-Todd & Mirenda, 2015; Wolff, 2007a) show that dual-language learning in challenged students “does not exacerbate the language difficulties” for them (Genesee, 2015, p. 11). Thus, keeping these children from bilingual education would only be further handicapping these types of students. As Genesee puts it, “it is difficult to reconcile these diverse findings with the belief that dual language learning puts children with developmental disorders at greater risk for language difficulties than learning only one language” (p. 47), since findings are discovering the opposite to hold true.

Students who once before were regarded as “unsuitable” for bilingual programs due to fear that their disabilities or disenfranchised backgrounds would only be exacerbated, coupled with the notion that additional languages would be “jeopardizing their overall academic success”, are now given the opportunity to participate, especially since it has come to light that, not only is would be ethically wrong to keep them from LL, but it also can have “significant long-term consequences”, particularly for people who live in bilingual or multilingual environments where LL is fundamental for studying and working (Genesee, 2015, p. 11). Particularly important in this respect is the right to social inclusion and full participation in society, coupled with employment opportunities, which nowadays hinge on language capabilities. Thus, excluding any student from BE could come with grave consequences, and instead of closing the gap between learners, it would be augmented.

Likewise, it has also been highlighted that there are serious problems with streaming based on abilities, competences and *neurotypical* vs. *neurodivergent*. Grouping and labelling based on ability is very dangerous and harmful to students, and can impact their beliefs about themselves in a powerful way, argue Fillmore and Snow (2000). Telling students that they are gifted academically can almost have a placebo-like effect on students, making them believe that they are able to do more than expected, and in that same vein, the complete opposite can be true when assuming or categorizing students as less-capable, making students believe they are less intelligent can foment negative thoughts about their abilities and capacities:

Such grouping is pernicious if it sorts children globally into differentiated groups. Once sorted this way, children typically receive substantially different instructional treatment and materials, reinforcing any initial differences among them in speed of learning and eagerness to learn. Later on, students who have been in classes for academically talented children behave like gifted and talented children: They are bright, verbal, and enthusiastic about school. Those who have been in low group classes behave precisely as one would expect low-ability students to behave: They are poorly motivated, low achieving, and less enthusiastic about school than they should be (idem, 2000, p. 8).

Fortunately, inclusion efforts have made significant progress within the past two decades (Cioè-Peña, 2017); however, efforts have mainly been concentrated on aiding the process for students with a certain profile, mainly those with physical disabilities, and has left more invisible disadvantages or disabilities, also in need of inclusion measures, to the wayside:

The identification of ways in which the mainstream education system supports the compartmentalization and exclusion of diverse learners will continue as minoritised groups acquire greater political capital making their demands for inclusion politically relevant. As these incidents of exclusion come to light the hope is that changes can be made to counter them. However, the current discourse around inclusion focuses so heavily on children with disabilities, as well as the benefits and the social strides made that it fails to notice how much further we still need to go. As it stands now inclusion benefits some at the detriment of others – particularly minoritised and linguistically disenfranchised children and their families (idem, 2017, p. 913).

The same author (2017) mentions different factors that come into play regarding whether a student will be incorporated in the mainstream classes such as living setting, race, or class. While these biased based discriminatory practices have decreased and, although “strides have been made in the inclusion movement”, it remains a fact that “great deal of work” has yet to be done (p. 916). As for learner variable, individual circumstances and characteristics are countless. However, certain variables have been isolated to affect learners’ achievement in greater proportion than others, specifically related to language acquisition, variables which will be discussed now. These variables are in desperate need of attention when it comes to CLIL research, as Cross (2022) warns, CLIL has been criticized for increasing the attainment gap between learners “rather than helping redress it” (p. 181).

3.6.2. Individual variables and achievement

Regarding variability within CLIL programs and achievement levels, Madrid and Barrios (2018) researched how contextual variables impacted achievement, finding factors like social environment, family background, SES, and type of school have the greatest influence upon student attainment. As for lower achievement students, it might not be their aptitude, but, rather, their situation which affects them negatively, as the authors (2017) point out: “students’ adverse social conditions can result in serious school problems and may be the cause of their being suspended and repeating grades” (p. 30). Social contexts like income, SES, educational levels of parents, race, gender, and age have major impacts on students, a known fact, which can be positive or negative in a students’ educational career. The authors state the factors which have the greatest influence on achievement are “structural (social class), institutional (type of school) and academic (regular schooling since early years)” (p. 31). However, fueling the research behind diversity in education is the idea of what is inside each individual student, as pertaining to “their special needs and interests, multiple intelligences, and cognitive styles” which are of equal

importance and, in the same way that social contexts impact their education, these factors similarly “influence their academic achievement” (p. 30). Madrid and Barrios (2018) conclude that school performance is a “highly complex construct that depends on various interrelated factors” (p. 31).

In the Asian context, Fung and Yu (2014) noted that underachieving CLIL students suffered compared to their non-CLIL peers and, while this might be due “to a more reasonable cognitive load [and it could seem] that CBI [CLIL] might be more suitable for higher level students”, lower achieving students in the L2 should not be excluded from CLIL courses since this finding has been contradicted and there is no solid evidence that weaker performing students are jeopardized by bilingual content classes.

More promising insight comes from recent research by Pérez Cañado (2021b), who finds that CLIL seems to be the key for inclusion and closing the gap, even in the most impoverished settings: “CLIL programs seem to be cancelling out differences in rural-urban setting, socioeconomic status, and type of school, especially in the long term” (p. 40). The same author concludes that CLIL seems to be the reason the gap, socioeconomically or culturally imposed, is diminishing or disappearing altogether. Further research by Pérez Cañado (2020b), featuring mainly gypsy ethnic students in a rural and low-SES area from a public school, concluded that CLIL has the potential to cancel out any disadvantages these students might be facing due to external factors. As the researcher herself notes, quite simply, CLIL “has the potential to work in even the most deprived settings” (p. 11).

As for achievement levels and exclusion, research by Genesee (1976) in Canada found that students with low achievement levels, or otherwise, underachievers, did not, contrary to popular belief, underperform their bilingual peers when it came to FL classes, but “sometimes performed as well as average immersion students on tests of listening and comprehension and speaking in their second language”, although positive results were not gleaned for reading tests since the students performed “significantly lower” than their monolingual counterparts (p. 12). However, the author contends this may be due to unfavorable conditions in these classes, specifically regarding attention to diversity in addition to failing to give the students personalized teaching strategies.

Other researchers in Canada highlight the advantageous effect of the immersion or dual-language classroom for these types of students. Bruck et al. (1975) and Holobow et al. (1991) found that disadvantaged SES students in Canada performed at equal levels with their non-disadvantaged peers when learning French, and obtained higher French language skills than their disadvantaged peers who were kept from the bilingual settings and only given traditional FL classes.

Undoubtedly, it is true that while “not all children thrive” in bilingual education settings, it is mainly the “quality of the learning environment” which primarily affects SEN and low achievement students, undeniably why this is such an important feature of the CLIL pedagogy (Genesee, 2015, p. 12). This same author argues there are favorable conditions which bolster language competence in these types of students that must be met if LL is to be successful in these bilingual environments; otherwise, we are further jeopardizing these already at-risk children. Hence the importance of research into quality CLIL methodologies and practices for catering to diversity and attending to learner variance in all its forms. The European Commission (2013) highlights how inclusive classrooms can be beneficial for the impaired students and neurotypical students who will benefit from teachers’ enhanced awareness of special needs. In addition to this, it foments social cohesion:

An OECD study found that other pupils may also benefit from the inclusion of children with SEN in their schools: their inclusion necessitates that teachers devote more energy to the curriculum to ensure it is appropriate for the learning needs of all pupils, which increases teachers’ overall teaching skills. Contact with children with a disability in an inclusive setting is also said to increase familiarity and reduce prejudice over the long term (p. 14).

Research, albeit mostly from Canada and the U.S.A. and decades old, has given us insight into inclusive education. All things considered, it can be deduced that the vast majority of students, neurotypical or neurodivergent, linguistically- or socioeconomically-challenged or disenfranchised can benefit from bilingual education (Pérez Cañado, 2021a). The evidence reveals that learning content in another language, in addition to the mother tongue, is “natural” and most children, be them neurotypical or not, “can acquire full competence” in dual languages if they are allowed the opportunity to learn in a quality environment (Genesee, 2015, p. 12). The same author concludes that any differences found between bilingual and monolingual handicapped children can usually be attributed to the classroom setting where they are schooled, and not the actual act of learning a foreign language:

In other words, their learning difficulties do not impair their language abilities beyond that seen in monolingual children with the same learning challenges. Detailed studies of simultaneous bilinguals indicate that they acquire differentiated language systems from the earliest stages of development that are, moreover, the same as those of monolingual children in most important respects. [...] Practically speaking, there is no empirical evidence at present to justify restricting children with developmental disorders from learning two languages (p. 12).

Another condition related to achievement is the denominated “*stereotype threat*” (henceforth, ST), defined by authors Schmader and Johns (2003) as “the phenomenon whereby individuals perform more poorly on a task when a relevant stereotype or stigmatized social identity is made salient in the performance situation” (p. 440). To bring more awareness to this

particular occurrence, authors Drace et al. (2019) refer to a study conducted by Spencer et al. (1999), in which women did worse on a math test when they were told that the test exposed gender differences, which it did not. Thus, perceived to be taking a test in which their gender would perform less competently, poorer scores were obtained due to this belief.

Drawing upon this research, more recently the same authors (Drace et al., 2019) devised a study based in the United States featuring 93 participants “to examine how the anxiety of confirming negative stereotype about a salient group identity may modulate motivational processes, which govern effort mobilization” (p. 2). Their conclusions show that “consciously experienced threat-related feelings could be directly used as diagnostic information for the assessment of situational demands [...]” (p. 16).

In this same vein, Spencer and Castano (2007) research the effect that ST has on academic performance due to the reasoning that “while stereotype threat has been shown to occur on dimensions such as memory among the elderly and athletic abilities amongst European Americans and African Americans, its effect on academic performance is arguably the most detrimental” (p. 422). They ponder: “is it possible, then, that the achievement gap between high- and low-SES students can be partly related to the negative stereotypes associated with low-SES individuals?” (p. 422). Their results showed that confidence levels were affected by ST, which “suggests that students are aware of how they are performing” (p. 428). The authors mention a *snowball effect*, “whereby the initial effect of the stereotype threat causes a lowering in confidence as a consequence of students’ self-monitoring, and this, in turn, could further affect their performance” (idem, p. 428).

The outcomes of the study found that “at least part of the large discrepancy regularly found between high- and low-income groups in American standardized testing may be attributable to factors that have little to do with the actual intellectual skills of the individual taking the test” (p. 429). They conclude that “recognizing economic diversity as a factor that can relate to achievement” is of no insignificant consequence and, furthermore, hope that findings in the future will help lead to a solution that will “combat the stereotyping and prejudice of low-SES individuals and the negative impact that these have on their lives” (p. 429).

It is also believed that students with low academic performance, who might be disadvantaged economically or socially, and might be more likely to struggle in school might be burdened further by enrolling in FL courses or bilingual education. However, many studies (Bruck 1978, 1982; Bruck et al., 1975; Genesee, 1976, 2007; Genesee & Lindholm-Leary, 2013; Holobow et al., 1991) find this reasoning to be erroneous, concluding that low attainment and disadvantaged SES students do just as well as their peers in bilingual courses. Findings conclude

there is no added stress placed on these students when it comes to learning a second language and FLL does not, in most cases, exacerbate any existing negative conditions or circumstances.

Furthermore, as Cross (2022) points out, CLIL cannot be made the scapegoat for what are flaws overall with our modern education system:

the widening achievement gap between students happens irrespective of the medium of instruction. It is now well-established that some students have a greater likelihood of failing in school simply, and tragically, based on their social background. These students fail, even in the mainstream – not because of CLIL (p. 195).

3.6.2.1. SES and attainment

Another pervading and debated topic in bilingual education is socioeconomic-status, or SES, appropriated by Lorenzo et al. (2021) as an “adequate measurable proxy for class” (p. 395), and the influence it has on achievement, since conclusions regarding this have been conflicting. As these authors (2021) point out, there is confusion and incoherency regarding the degree to which social standing effects academia, specifically, language, “due to the shortcomings of class as an operational variable”, in addition to the fact that “applied linguistics do not have a coherent theory of class” (referencing Butler & Le, 2018, p. 2), since, understandably, most of the specialists carrying out the research on language competences are applied linguists.

The unfortunately reality is that the family and economic circumstances a child is born into is one of the main determining factors for how successful, or not, they will be in their educational endeavors. Many children are not given enriching opportunities at home, do not speak the same L1 at home as their peers, and might not be given the quality upbringing that foments resilience and confidence in kids. This comes from Bordieau’s 1986 *cultural capital* argument, in which he claims a student is given, or not, depending on their social status and education system in which he or she is involved, a certain advantage in life and academia by having a certain intellectual capital passed down to them by their teachers and parents, “contributing to persistent, long-term patterns of generational disadvantage among marginalized social groups” (Cross, 2022, p. 181).

The place where students are born, the language they speak at home, or their parents’ occupations are often strong predictors of achievement in school. In many instances, girls’ and boys’ aspirations are limited by a lack of role models. These individual circumstances, over which students have no control, too often affect the quality of the schooling provided, the educational path students choose, and even the shape of the students’ dreams for their future (OECDa, 2019, p. 42). Most concisely, as put forth by Cross (2022), “social inequality has many causes” (p. 181).

The OECDa (2019) report shows that education systems that reduce inequalities and bridge the gap between learners are also the systems that show the most improvement on their citizens' school outcomes. The report argues that if education systems are to be successful and functional, all children in any given country must be given the same opportunities to succeed and attain high levels of achievement, instead of streaming more capable and competent students, or high-SES students, "while leaving the weakest behind" (p. 43). As previously mentioned, students' home lives are almost the number one predictors of students' future lives, but, promisingly, schools are the lever for change, and can be a stepping stone to allow for social mobility: "schools can help students become more resilient in the face of adversity, feel more connected with the people around them, and aim higher in their aspirations for their future. In other words, what happens in school is crucial for students' well-being" (idem, 2019, p. 43). And, as Cross (2022) argues, CLIL is an opportunity we as a society have to improve modern education and "achieve a more level playing field for learners" (p. 196).

As for defining SES, Lorenzo et al. (2021) denote, it "is an aggregate of indicators relating to material possessions, income, occupation, neighborhood character, spatial relations, cultural capital, and family reduction modes" (p. 395). For their part, Butler and Le (2018) encapsulate SES as impinging almost entirely on parental characteristics: their education, occupation, household income, race, child-rearing notions, parenting-styles, expectations held for their offspring's academic performance, perception of offspring's ability, and their behaviors (i.e. how much time they spend at home with their children, how they teach their children, and how many books they own). Lorenzo et al. (2021) divulge on how SES for students, and thus the schools in which they attend, are calculated, based on a four-point system (p. 400):

- use of information resources (books, press, encyclopaedias, computers, tablets, and the Internet) by household members;
- number of information and communication technology (ICT) devices (computers, tablets, smartphones, smart televisions, e-readers, etc.) at home;
- number of household members;
- number of books at home;
- parents' highest qualification; and
- parents' occupation.

This information is compiled for all students that attend a particular school and subsequently, schools are assigned a *quartile* of SES: the lowest being one, "corresponding to the schools with the least favorable socioeconomic conditions", and the highest being four (p. 400). While other *contextual variables* are included (such as students' gender, grade repetition, commencement age of schooling, absences tally, nationality, time devoted to homework,

satisfaction level with schooling, and school-related use of ICT), they are not formally used to calculate an SES index.

Other definitions of SES include the “measure of students’ access to family resources (financial capital, social capital, cultural capital, and human capital) and the social position of the student’s family/household” (OECDa, 2019, p. 52). On a positive note, main findings show that “in spite of socio-economic disadvantage, some students attain high levels of academic proficiency” and students there show “that disadvantage is not destiny” (idem, 2019, p. 15, referencing PISA, 2018). These disadvantaged and advantaged students are found in in schools across Spain, as the report highlights the reality that “disadvantaged students have at least a one-in-five chance of having high-achieving schoolmates” (idem, 2019, p. 15). However, it would seem that SES is a main factor that contributes to high or low achievement in school, based on ambitions and beliefs: “many students, especially disadvantaged students, hold lower ambitions than would be expected given their academic achievement” (idem, 2019, p. 15).

Madrid and Barrios (2018) highlight a study focused on equal opportunities and carried out by Coleman et al. (1966), in which it was concluded that SES was “[...] a strong indicator of student performance” (p. 31). These authors (idem, 1966) established that students’ backgrounds had the greatest influence on achievement and results at school. However, Carabaña (1988) found SES influence on achievement in students played only a minor role at the end of Primary education and had almost no effect on achievement by the end of Secondary, almost vanishing completely at tertiary level. He (1988) concludes that parents’ occupations greatly influence their children’s’ outcomes at school. Comparing private versus public schooling, Madrid and Barrios (2018) argue that private education does not, in itself, benefit the students, but, in fact, is the other way around. Private education

does not add anything to what is already provided at home. It simply requires or maintains it [...] private schools and state schools with students coming from socioeconomically advantageous backgrounds benefit from the students who attend their centres. There is, however, no evidence suggesting that private schools help raise achievement in the education system as a whole (p. 34).

On the other side of the coin, Madrid (2010) found no link “between students’ social class and their academic performance in the foreign language [...]” (p. 32), meaning that students are capable of outperforming their peers despite coming from lower social classes. Parents’ beliefs and behaviors ultimately play a fundamental part in how children perform academically, and their thoughts influence their “children’s attitudes towards the foreign language” (Madrid & Barrios, 2018, p. 32). The authors maintain students are mainly influenced by their parents, followed by their teachers, and finally, by their peers (idem, 2017). Thus, the question proposed by Llinares and Cross (2022) remains to be answered: is CLIL closing the gap between learners? This issue remains to be resolved clearly.

Of course, to properly understand the correlation between low achievement and SES, Florian et al. (2016) argue that future research must also divulge how prior experiences and personalities affect children, since studies relating low achievement and SES have been leaving this key question out of the equation:

Many decades of research have consistently documented the relationship between variables such as SES, ability, and educational attainment. Because students from poor families are less likely to do well in school, there is a tendency to interpret lower standards of attainment in schools that serve these catchment areas as poor-quality schools. Schools that serve children from different family backgrounds appear to be good or better schools because the academic attainment of students is generally higher. What is missing from this comparison is an understanding of how the prior experiences children bring to school create different starting points, in terms of both advantage and disadvantage, that not only obscure achievement but influence performance expectations (p. 8)

By the same token, Schleicher (2018) found CLIL to have a levelling effect in students and worked to even the playing field for lower-SES strata CLIL students. When controlling for all variables, the author can affirm that it was the CLIL program, and not any other variable, that was responsible for the differences in the improvement in the grades from CLIL students.

In Norway, Bakken and Brevik (2022) looked to see if CLIL was really fomenting elitism in Secondary students. The researchers focused on qualitative data to understand students' reasons for choosing to enroll in a CLIL program. They found that lower-SES students had more input from their families, and those closest to them had an influence in their decision to enroll, or not, in a bilingual scheme. In line with Somers (2017), these authors (2022) found that immigrant families are most likely to push their offspring to sign up for CLIL courses, seeing it as a way to promote social mobility. Higher-SES students, found the authors (2022) were not as influenced by their parents in their decision, and are more likely to be persuaded or convinced by friends or more distant family members. Therefore, the authors conclude that CLIL is not generating elitism, as students that might choose to enroll in the bilingual course are already motivated from the beginning. Most of the students join the program because they want to learn English; however, most of the CLIL students were from higher-SES backgrounds and had more involved parents. Per the results of their study, the authors believe that CLIL can contribute to social mobility, but to achieve this, it must be offered in all contexts and a wide variety of subjects, especially in lower-SES areas and rural contexts. CLIL should be promoted and advertised to parents as the key for social mobility for their offspring. The authors (2022) warn that although elitism is not inherent to CLIL, it might be a result of it if these programs continue to be offered in high-SES locations with mainly urban learners. Even though the authors found differences between CLIL and non-CLIL students, the authors believe this can be changed if CLIL is marketed

and presented differently, and lower-SES and rural learners are given a chance and motivated to participate.

Successively, three studies in Spain focused on SES and content attainment at the primary level gleaned a negative correlation between SES academic attainment. Anghel et al. (2016), in Madrid, studied subject-content knowledge in Primary education, specifically in Natural Science. After factoring in parents' educational levels, they found "the negative effects are concentrated on the children of less educated parents" (p. 122), which showed an unfortunate reality that the most disenfranchised students, whose parents had the least amount of education, were the most disadvantaged by CLIL schemes and suffered academically. In another study that focused on Natural Science in Primary Education, Fernández Sanjurjo et al. (2019) factored in SES as a co-variate in the north of Spain (Asturias). They concluded that students who learn content in the L1 obtain higher scores than those who do so through CLIL, albeit only slightly so. Additionally, statistically significant differences were found in favor of those students with higher SES and unfortunately, the only students that did not meet the base standards in Primary education were the students from the lowest-SES marker. These findings proved to be quite revealing, since it was correlated to early school abandonment, a serious problem in the country. Finally, in the monolingual community of Extremadura, Alejo and Piquer (2016) found social environments (urban vs. rural) to be strongly related to academic achievement in the FL and SES to be responsible for differences in attainment across students. However, several recent studies (Admiraal et al., 2006; Pavón Vázquez, 2018; Rascón Moreno & Callejas Bretones, 2018; Shepherd & Ainsworth, 2017), found SES to have no significant impact on students' academic results, although the studies were based in Secondary education in different contexts.

Research in Spain within the last seven years (e.g. Halbach & Iwaniec, 2022; Lorenzo, 2019; Pavón Vázquez, 2018; Rascón Moreno & Bretones Callejas, 2018; Shepherd & Ainsworth, 2017) has found SES and the rural-urban context to have no bearing on CLIL students and all have concluded that CLIL has the potential to work as an equalizer against previously discriminatory variables. For their part, Shepherd and Ainsworth (2017) carried out a quantitative study, and determined that CLIL did in fact lessen the gap between socially-economical diverse students. By taking into account students' L2 grades and factoring in the variables of motivation and SES, they found that CLIL students were more motivated and had higher L2 proficiency, and concluded that CLIL can make education more inclusive and level the playing field between learners, regardless of social standing. However, being a quantitative study, the authors were unable to explain the reason for this.

In line with these findings, Rascón Moreno and Bretones Callejas (2018) found that higher SES students are at an academic advantage to their lower SES peers and generally have better L2 (English) outcomes, which shows the impact SES can have on attainment in traditional

classroom. However, the results from the CLIL students do not share the same results: their study found SES does not play a role in students' attainment in the CLIL classroom, thus cancelling out students' social backgrounds.

In the capital (Madrid), Halbach and Iwaniec (2022) interviewed teachers as a way to gain insight on whether CLIL programs really do lessen the gap between learners from high- to low-SES backgrounds. They chose to focus on teachers since this would give them more insight into the grassroots workings of CLIL programs and teachers can provide information that might not be perceivable to an outsider. In effect, this study served to complement investigations such as the one previously mentioned (Shepherd & Ainsworth, 2017) that, while concluded CLIL can lessen the gap, was unable to provide concrete details as to why this might be happening. Thus, this was a purely qualitative study to be able to find out why CLIL might cancel out SES-related attainment differences between students. The teachers took part in semi-structured interviews and they believed that the students were more motivated from the start. They also believed that the teachers held the CLIL students to a higher standard, regardless of background, since they saw them as being truly committed to their studies, having joined the bilingual program in the first place. Thus, the teachers expressed the belief that any mistreatment or discriminatory practices that might have happened in the mainstream classroom by a teacher will have been eliminated, since they see the students as self-demanding by choice. A sense of belonging was also brought up as a possible reason to explain the SES-levegger effect of CLIL, arguing that participation in a CLIL program might give the students a feeling that they belong to something bigger, and even though they are mixed with students outside their social strata, they are equals inside the CLIL classroom.

Another point touched upon was autonomous learning, since the teachers believed that many of these children from lower-SES families are unable to rely on help from their parents or outside help such as a tutor, language academy, or extracurricular classes. Thus, these children are more autonomous, take even more control of their learning and are even more motivated: "therefore, what could have been a handicap for students from less privileged backgrounds may actually turn into a positive factor precisely for the students who cannot count on extra support, as it is likely to make them more responsible for their own studies" (idem, 2020, pp. 1619-1620). Finally, the FL could also be a leveller in itself, since in the monolingual content class, differences in L1 competence are glaringly apparent, and students from less privileged backgrounds might be penalized more since they have had, since Primary education, less enriching L1 experience at home. However, when it comes to the CLIL classroom, since the subject is lectured in the L2, all of the students are more or less on the same page when it comes to proficiency, and students' starting points might be extremely similar, and if there are gaps, teachers are more likely to control for these, unlike teachers who might regard poor L1 proficiency as irreversible and not be willing to help children out in this area. The final takeaway from Halbach and Iwaniec (2022) is

that there are three factors that could be contributing to, or determining entirely, the weakening effect CLIL has on the influence of a student's SES when it comes to their attainment: "autonomy, competence, and relatedness" (p. 1620).

The latest studies from the past half a decade are consistently unveiling that SES has a marked difference in achievement in traditional education schemes but differences are being cancelled out in CLIL schemes. This means that CLIL has the potential to work in all settings, with all learners, genders, achievers, and students from diverse backgrounds related to parental income and education level (Pérez Cañado, 2018e).

Unfortunately, when it comes to Spain, a study completed by Mediavilla et al. (2019) found that streaming practices are still occurring in Madrid (as referenced by Lorenzo et al., 2021):

their findings suggest that CLIL enhances the social stratification of the state education system, on one hand, and confirm cream-skimming of a social nature in bilingual tracks, on the other. In fact, they identified some SES-related variables that correlated with participation in the bilingual strands: fewer immigrant students, the higher educational and occupational level of the parents, and a greater availability of cultural items in the household (pp. 396-367).

In addition, in the capital, students must now demonstrate at least a B1 proficiency in the target language to be granted access to a CLIL scheme. As such, "this language filter may exclude less competent second language students who are likely to come from more disadvantaged social backgrounds" (idem, 2021, p. 397). In a recent study carried out by Evnitskaya and Linares (2022), it was found that segregation practices in the capital of Spain (Madrid) were the cause of inequality concerning students. As Granados and Lorenzo (2022) highlight, it is this type of perilous streaming that will lead to inequality in CLIL.

More recently, Lorenzo et al. (2021) have updated evidence on SES and its effect on achievement in a study conducted with close to 4,000 students from four SES levels to gauge how students in CLIL and non-CLIL schools are performing in the L1, L2 and content subject (History). The authors reason it necessary to investigate CLIL in this new century, since CLIL has been plagued by criticisms, labelled frequently as *segregative* and elitist: "as these legitimate critiques have mostly take the form of argumentations based on anecdotal evidence, it is now urgent to test the actual egalitarianism (or lack thereof) of the new multilingual model in empirical studies" (p. 394). They hoped to add to the dialogue regarding CLIL and inclusion by studying heterogeneously different students in terms of SES and how this affects them academically in the content-subject and linguistically in the mother tongue and target language. It was also deemed to be vitally necessary due to the fact that the bilingual network of Andalusia was assessed over a decade ago (idem, 2021). The educational context in this particular region in Spain is unique

also for its journey with bilingual education. Although at first these programs were voluntary and students could opt either in or out of the CLIL classes, some featured discriminatory streaming. However, as the authors (2021) point out, this system has been totally eradicated and schools in Andalusia are either entirely bilingual or monolingual, with the former enrolling all of their students in CLIL subjects “with no screening procedures whatsoever”, a change which occurred “because of the regional concern that social disadvantages might be transferred to the education system, which features a high social inclusion index”, several points above the average of Spain (p. 397).

The results are very telling, and reveal again and again that CLIL is a lever for change. While the results confirm the typical “staircase” pattern in the performance of all non-CLIL students (lower SES students have poorer results, with results gradually increasing as SES level increases), albeit there is a most fascinating take-away from the study: the staircase effect essential falls apart with the CLIL students and these students, regardless of SES, are found “to obtain equally high results” in all three variables accounted for, the L1, L2 and content-subject (idem, 2021, p. 393).

Regarding these specific variables, the impact of SES on the L1 in non-bilingual students is clear: SES has a clear positive correlation and those with the highest SES level have higher L1 competence levels. For the bilingual students “yet again, CLIL environments seem to cut across them and to be more resilient to social determinants” and no statistically significant differences were seen in quartiles one to four (p. 405), noting that this proved to hold true for all skills tested. A salient finding was that the CLIL students from the lowest SES quartile were found to be able to outperform their CLIL-peers with higher SES. Another remarkable conclusion is the effect that bilingual education seems to have on L1 proficiency for disadvantaged students, “thus proving that CLIL not only facilitates the L1 competence of students but also may reinforce it” (idem, 2021, p. 407).

As for the effect that SES has on the L2, obviously significant differences were found between the CLIL and non-CLIL students (the former having more competence level across the board) for obvious reasons related to exposure. However, L2 competence levels are significantly higher for non-bilingual students from SES quartiles three and four, the authors infer (since the study did not permit solid evidence explaining why the more socioeconomically advantaged students have increased target language proficiency) could possibly be due to the fact that:

the upper classes might have benefitted from a very solid network of private extracurricular language schools and study abroad programs, for which high-income families have been a loyal customer base [...] This may account for the fact that non-bilingual SES 4 students usually perfect their L2 skills elsewhere (idem, 2021, p. 405).

Finally, the significance that SES plays in academic content performance, in this particular instance, the subject of History, revealed the lower-class CLIL-students were in no way disadvantaged in their subject-competence acquisition: "in this study, CLIL did not affect content leaning [...] This goes to show that even when a substantial proportion of the course is taught in an L2, students assimilate advanced history content [...]" (p. 406). The staircase effect holds true for the non-CLIL students, with the lowest SES quartile showing the lowest proficiency in History, increasing as SES increases. However, again, this pattern is broken with the bilingual students and the results were much more linear. The authors highlight that in this particular case of subject knowledge, the bilingual students from SES quartile two outperformed the higher quartiles. Unfortunately, the research was not all good news for CLIL, since the bilingual students in CLIL from the highest SES level had significantly lower overall results than their non-bilingual counterparts, "thus suggesting that the bilingual program may not have the same effects on students from the higher social orders, especially in content courses", something that obviously warrants, insist the authors, further research (p. 408).

This ground-breaking study confirms that monolingual schools continue to be extremely disadvantageous to the lower, more disenfranchised students, as proved by the outcomes in L1, L2, and subject knowledge attainment, which saw the higher social orders outperforming the lower social orders in all three variables, confirming that "in ordinary monolingual schools, performance tends to replicate tiered social structures in a very noticeable manner" (p. 409). Moreover, the results gleaned from this study "give credence to the assertion in the critical sociology of language that language structures mirror social structures and point to the social origin of language capital distribution" (p. 408). This distribution of *language capital* (referencing Bernstein, 1973; Blommaert, 2010; Bourdieu, 1992) is what leads the public to label CLIL as hindering and detrimental for the lower social classes, with the general public believing (falsely) that higher SES students will be able to flourish and take advantage of the education provided, whilst the lowest SES students will be even further deterred in their academia. Surprisingly, this belief proves true for monolingual schools and the inclination pattern applies across the board for both linguistic and non-linguistic aspects. Humbling, the fact that this pattern is broken in bilingual schools points that something in CLIL is working, most likely due to the enhanced teaching and awareness that takes place when educators and school directives take on the CLIL challenge:

No language theory would support, however, that the changes reported may occur solely as a result of the language regime at bilingual schools, that is, due to the fact that two vehicular languages, instead of one, are used. The results point to organizational features that may be distinctive in bilingual schools and which give rise to quality schooling (p. 409).

For their part, the authors argue that the very implementation of CLIL seems to be transforming schools in many ways (i.e. the way students and teachers view learning, how the

curriculum is organized, collaboration and organization between teachers and classroom practices) and profiting the most disenfranchised students the most:

This lesson has been learned from the literature: changing the language regime implies changes across the board. Even if admission bias persists, the results seem to show that CLIL creates a liveable atmosphere for lower-class students who, in fact, are the ones who benefit most from the program. Of particular note is the inclusion of language-across-the-curriculum tools on which the administration insists as a prerequisite for bilingual implementation and which involve a language focus on all courses. These are genre maps, integrated language units and school language projects, among other tools, which relate to integration, a keystone in CLIL and further bilingual education (p. 409).

Quite simply, the innovation and methodological functionality of this pedagogy bring about more awareness when it comes to language, directly affecting, positively, students who are less likely to have linguistic support (either in the L1 or L2) at home. The most unforeseen conclusion that can be drawn is the positive effect that CLIL is having on the L1 in the most disadvantaged social groups, which is in direct contrast to the popular falsehood that any benefit in an L2 will be done "at the expense of the mother tongue" (p. 409). Not only is the L1 in no way penalized for these students; it actually directly strengthens it since "the intervention of an L2 generates pedagogical dynamics that ultimately benefit overall literacy levels" (p. 409). This is truly a defining moment for CLIL since now it has been proven that bilingual education can help boost *biliteracy* levels across all SES quartiles, directly in line with EU policy (referencing Council of Europe, 2011).

These outcomes, the authors say, only reinforce the idea that bilingual education is a solution for reducing social differences, or closing the gap between the most- and least-benefitted members of society: "Egalitarianism is a holy grail in contemporary education and the fact that language innovation of the sort described above disrupts conventional social determinants would meet two essential language policy targets" (p. 410). The authors state that they personally object to any screening procedures for CLIL schools since these results prove bilingual education to profit the disenfranchised students. However, they also reason that CLIL programs must be flexible and allow factors to determine the exact specifics of a CLIL scheme in a school, in a grade, or for any individuals: "we espouse flexible arrangements in all-bilingual schools where a number of factors determine the courses, the amount of L2 contact, and the methods used. Many classroom-based decisions need to be made in order to achieve more ecological CLIL programmes" (p. 411). It is vital that SES and achievement continue to be researched, since even though there have been encouraging results, some recent research conducted (e.g. Rascón Moreno & Callejas Bretones, 2018) has pointed out that SES and English language competence are positively correlated in monolingual settings. Lorenzo et al. (2021) are insistent that flexibility is key to the future of CLIL, arguing the "one-size-fits-all" model is not what should be prioritized

nor advertised, alluding to previous findings (e.g. Dalton-Puffer et al., 2014) which indicate that when CLIL is implemented uniformly and not flexibly, is when it can be potentially detrimental to the disenfranchised students. However, as recently questioned by Llinares and Cross (2022) the jury is still out on whether CLIL can truly close the gap between all students, both linguistically and academically.

Summarizing research done on CLIL as related to social inequality, they conclude this can be remedied through the use of bilingual education models in line with the CLIL methodology: “[...] one of the strongest conclusions of all is that social inequity may be best addressed by facilitating as wide as possible access for all CLIL, as a priority for education systems” (p. 196). However, it stands true, as cautioned by Granados and Lorenzo (2022) “we do not have a full picture of who falls along the wayside and who succeeds in the bilingual program” (p. 222).

3.6.2.2. L1 influence on L2 achievement

Touching more upon linguistically disadvantaged and disenfranchised students, Bruck (1978) researched language and academic performance of immersion students with learning issues related to language skills compared to their monolingual peers in Canada, concluding that there were no statistically significant differences to be found. Moreover, the researcher found that the “impaired” students who were receiving immersion instruction “had acquired significantly superior French language proficiency” compared to their impaired peers who were taught French in traditional L2 classrooms (pp. 111-112). Alluding to what is known as subtractive bilingualism, Granados and Lorenzo (2022) attest that many who are still concerned about bilingual education believe that education in an L2 “may slow down the development of the academic tongue in individuals who do not reach a proper plateau in their L1” (p. 221). This concept, the authors put forth, has been present in discussions and arguments surrounding bilingualism for decades now. Now, the concept of word poverty is joining these discussions, since many students are now more disenfranchised in the L1 due to their upbringing and home life:

When words are not heard in the early ages, vocabularies are poor and concepts are not learned; when syntax is basic in conversation, there is less knowledge of logical relations in stories. This led to the conceptualisation of word poverty, a language dimension strongly determined by sociological factors like the number of books at home or the amount of conversation at dinner time (idem, 2022, p. 103).

This has led the authors (2022) to discuss what they entitled the *Matthew Effect*⁴⁰: those who have more, receive more, while those who have less, end up with less. This argument is confirmed from studies such as Lorenzo et al. (2021) in which Andalusian students who came from the lower strata of society underperform in the L1, as compared to their higher strata peers who outperformed them in L1 time and again in the mainstream content classes. On a positive note, this 'Matthew Effect' is all but made obsolete in the CLIL classroom (idem, 2022).

As for immigrants and or non-native students and the impact these classes have on them, empirical evidence points out that CLIL does not harm minority students nor their L1 when included in CLIL courses, per Somers' (2017, 2018) research on immigrant students. The studies "uniformly point towards the conclusion that these students are not disadvantaged in their minority and additional language development, or in their overall academic achievement in comparison to majority-language students" (p. 508). His research shows that these students are satisfactorily receiving CLIL lessons in which scaffolding accounts for a large part of the methodology, coupled with language-sensitive instruction.

Important research has been done in the U.S.A. on the interconnectedness of languages, including Pimsleur (1968), who studied underachievers in FLL. His conclusions suggested that most of the underachievers in language classes were affected by "auditory ability", or the ability to deal and work with sounds, which was the reason for their low competence in the FL, and low motivation or intelligence reasons were not responsible for the poor results (Ganschow et al., 1998, p. 248). A few years after, Dinklage (1971) researched students at Harvard University (also in the U.S.A.) who were overachievers in all subjects save their language courses and found that these students all had problems completing their language courses despite the fact that they had no difficulties in any other courses. The researcher made sure to rule out motivation as a factor, and determined that it did not play a part in their subpar performance in the FL course, since the study was careful to measure the desire of the participants in the study regarding their performance in the FL. The conclusions (1971) found that a majority of the students had a history of LL struggles such as with reading, spelling, or mixing up letters.

Per the conclusions from these studies, Ganschow et al. (1998) propose students who face challenges in learning a FL are most likely to be mirroring the same or similar challenges they had or have with their native language. The authors cite various other researchers who agree with this "native language learning problem" and the detrimental effects it can have on second language acquisition or "pendulum effect" it has on FLL: Cohen (1983), Fisher (1986),

⁴⁰ A biblical reference to the book of Matthew.

and Lefebvre (1984) (p. 250). The previously mentioned authors (1998) argue that students' low levels of motivation and poor attitudes do not lead to mediocre results in the FL, suggesting the opposite to be true, and that students' frustration in FLL and poor results is what leads to their low motivation and attitude problems. For this reason, the authors conclude that individuals' language skills in their mother tongues should be considered when it comes to FLL and that "basic language aptitude is a residue of first language skill" (idem, 1998, p. 249). The authors mention the *Linguistic Code Differences Hypothesis* (Sparks & Ganschow, 1989), which suggests that "skills in the native language competences- phonological/orthographic, syntactic, and semantic- provide the basic foundation for FL learning" (p. 249). Thus, it is undeniably true that a student who has or has had problems in their native tongue will almost certainly have troubles in FLL. The authors' research suggests that the "majority of FL underachievers have the most difficulty with the phonological/orthographic aspects of FL learning", in contrast to students who are more prone to excel at LL, who are more likely to have strong oral and written skills in the native language (idem, 1998, p. 249).

As a solution, the authors devised the *Orton-Gillingham Method* to help struggling FLL who are challenged with the phonological or orthographic parts of a language as a way to help FLL in these problematic areas (referencing Gillingham & Stillman, 1960). The method "emphasizes 'cracking' the language code via a structured, multisensory approach in which the students simultaneously hear, see and write sounds/symbols" and "involves careful sequencing of materials, controlled pacing, board drills, flash cards, and integration of reading, spelling, and writing" (p. 252). A longitudinal study proved the *Orton-Gillingham Method* to be successful in helping FLL with poor results to increase proficiency (idem, 1998).

3.6.2.3. Influence of gender on achievement

Another variable related to achievement and inclusion is gender, mainly related to stereotypes and misconceptions, tied in with the previously explained stereotype threat (ST, cf. 3.6.2.). Findings have evinced that girls tend to outperform boys when it comes to reading (OECDa, 2019) and tend to pinpoint better outcomes in Maths and Science related subjects on boys. Moreover, when it comes to ICT and gender, in general, a significantly smaller percentage of girls or women tend to show interest in this field (idem, 2019), compared to their male counterparts: "[...] in no PISA-participating country or economy did more than 3% of girls report [wanting to work in ICT-related occupations]" (p. 16). As Fernández Fontecha and Canga Alonso (2013) evince: "gender [is] recognized as relevant in FLL" (p. 23). Many of the studies related to gender and performance have been tied to motivational factors, seeking to determine if one sex is more motivated than the other (e.g. Gardner, 2007; Kissau, 2006).

Looking into the influences of variables on motivation in students when it comes to FLL, Kissau (2006) focused mainly on the societal influence in Canada on learning French as a FL as pertinent to gender. The author attempted to delineate why some male students were less motivated to learning a FL, and found there was quite a sexist view when it came to LL in Canada. Students were primed by their teachers and peers and there was an overarching societal perception of LL as a female activity, a sentiment that was conveyed in the questionnaires and reinforced in the interviews conducted with the students and teachers. It became apparent that LL was not deemed appropriate for males, and thus, as a group, they were less motivated to learn French.

For her part, in the U.S.A., Dweck (2007b) researched gender and Mathematical attainment, with an aim to understand why girls tend to be outperformed in Math and Science subjects. She found that academically smart females do not deal well with confusion in a subject, particularly in subjects like Math and Science where confusion is the norm. This phenomenon did not happen with the boys; on the contrary, the boys seemed to gain more energy from confusing exercises and did better. The findings show that this difference is not due to ability between the genders but can be attributed to "a difference in how students cope with experiences that may call their ability into question – whether they feel challenged by them or demoralized by them" (pp. 2-3). For their part, the author explains, girls have been found to be "vulnerable to a loss of confidence and a loss in effectiveness when they run into difficulty" (p. 3). Touching upon the previously mentioned growth mindset⁴¹, the author concludes that students who have an open mindset, or believe their intelligence is something that can be changed or improved, were more interested and dedicated to learning and also were more likely to "earn significantly higher grades than their peers who viewed intelligence as a gift" (p. 4). Thus, the author draws upon the idea that females are no less able or competent than their male counterparts, but a growth mindset is fundamental for them to be able to believe in themselves and their abilities if they are to align, achievement-wise, with the other gender. The *vulnerability*, stresses the author, is due to females with a fixed mindset and who believe their intelligence is something marked from birth, which leads to less pliability and resilience in learning, or a belief that if something is difficult it is because you are inherently unable to do it, related mainly to "gifts" or abilities in intelligence that are beyond our control. Finally, the author determines that the answer does not lie in simply praising females for hard work, which hardly leads to high, sustainable confidence levels, but requires a more profound analysis into their psyche and "addressing students' beliefs about the nature of

⁴¹ Cf. section 2.3. for definition and information on growth mindset

ability” (p. 5), by conveying the idea that skills are something that must learned and developed by all.

Fernández Fontecha and Canga Alonso (2013) researched motivation and gender as pertinent to FLL by comparing CLIL and non-CLIL students. They highlight that when it comes to gender, most studies confirm that females outperform their male counterparts in language education settings, but this is a trend that tends to disappear with age (*idem*, 2013). The same authors also put forth the consensus that girls seem to be more motivated when it comes to FLL than boys. The authors attribute this to “gender-role stereotyped socialization according to which boys and girls would opt for different sets of academic fields or subjects” (p. 24), which would explain the reason for boys outperforming their girl peers in the subjects previously mentioned such as Maths and Sciences, which have been traditionally viewed as “male”. Previous studies (Lasagabaster, 2008; Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2009) found females outstripped their male counterparts in CLIL subjects. However, their conclusions (2013) find that all the learners, males and females, CLIL and non-CLIL, performed equally well and all were equally motivated to learn the subject in CLIL. However, this study failed to control for previous levels of motivation. These authors call for more research into studies on gender performance in CLIL, as well as the effect the actual subject of CLIL has on students’ attitudes towards learning.

As for more recent studies related to gender and CLIL, there have been many in the past decade: Fernández Fontecha and Canga Alonso (2014), Graham et al. (2021); Lasagabaster (2018), Martínez Agudo (2022), Nieto Moreno de Diezmas and Hill (2019), Oxbrow (2018), and San Isidro (2018) have conducted studies considering this variable. One qualitative study found that female students had better opinions of CLIL (Oxbrow, 2018). The other studies all found CLIL could act as a leveller when it came to gender-based differences in subjects that were typically denominated as “male” subjects (Sciences, Mathematics) and when these subjects were taught in the CLIL methodology, females and males did equally well (Graham et al., 2021; Martinez Agudo, 2022; Nieto Moreno de Diezmas & Hill, 2019).

Gender-related differences such as girls being more academic or boys having less motivation have been found to be erased in CLIL settings (e.g. Merisuo-Storm, 2007; San Isidro, 2010). As Heras and Lasagabaster (2015) claim, this might be because CLIL contexts allow both males and females to be motivated, and males can see their motivation compensated for when it comes to FLL since it is a subject taught in the FL. Schmidt et al. (1996, as referenced by Heras & Lasagabaster, 2015) found that females possess greater intrinsic motivation than their male counterparts, who are more extrinsically motivated, which might explain why they learn languages better. And Lasagabaster (2008) found that gender differences in CLIL programs might not be as sharp because male students might have more motivation to learn the subject, and in passing, the language.

3.6.2.4. Motivation and CLIL

Another important contextual variable includes motivation, given the recent evidence that points out motivation as being critical to the learning process. While only recently having gained importance in CLIL studies, the influence of motivation on educational outcomes, and LL outcomes, has been studied relatively extensively. It holds true that motivation, extrinsic and intrinsic, and interest in academia are closely related to “parents’ educational background and their classmates’ aspirations and values, which are much higher in private and semiprivate schools” (Madrid & Barrios, 2018, p. 30).

Put forth precisely by Doiz et al. (2014), “motivation is one of the CLIL-related aspects that demands further attention” (p. 118). These same authors conclude that FL teachers have a hard time getting their students motivated, and their classes seem boring and either too easy or too challenging. However, several researchers (e.g. Doiz et al., 2014; Lasagabaster, 2011; Lorenzo et al., 2010; Seikkula-Leino, 2007) have observed CLIL students to be more motivated than their non-CLIL peers. Thus, as Doiz et al. (2014) argue, research must be conducted so as to decipher where this increase in motivation lies and why it happens with CLIL students. All in all,

the available evidence from CLIL experiences indicates that the use of the L2 as a means of communication for content learning boosts motivation among all students, creates an atmosphere that facilitates L2 use, and allows students to make progress according to their learning styles and different learning rhythms (idem, 2014, p. 119).

As for what motivation is exactly, Navarro Pablo & García Jiménez (2018) clarify that there is no single definition nor dimensions that have been agreed upon. Dörnyei (2001) and Lasagabaster (2011) attest that motivation is not something that can be easily defined, as it includes many facets. That said, to put it simply: motivation is why people choose to do what they do (Dörnyei, 2001). As Navarro Pablo and García Jiménez (2018) underline, the reason we cannot entirely constrain the definition of motivation into a less abstract notion is most likely due to the variance of motivation within humans, and how each person, or student, is likely to be affected by motivation differently and respond differently when it comes to learning. As put forth by Heras and Lasagabaster (2015), motivation is not stable, but something that changes continually in a person and interacts with their environment and biological factors. Gardner (2007) adds to the conversation, noting that even through the use of questionnaires and interviews, determining motivation in students is hard, or almost impossible to do, given the complicated nature of trying to measure it. Simply asking students why they think LL is important will not get to the root of their motivation, which is a series of complex scales and measurements. One of the more popular publications on motivation, as pertinent to the now famous state of *flow*, is Csikszentmihalyi (1990). For their part, Dörnyei et al. (2014) explain their *Directed Motivational*

Current, or DMC, “an intense motivational drive which is capable of both stimulating and supporting long-term behavior, such as learning a foreign/second language” (p. 9). Marsh et al. (2020) add to the literature on motivation by explaining the ZPD, referencing Vygotsky: “the Flow of Learning is a psychological state in which learners concentrate on a challenging task that is within their Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD), the affective filters are open, and the learning experience results in positive levels of personal satisfaction. An outcome can be deep learning” (p. 6).

Motivation, as a variable made up of various *dimensions*, is critical to study when looking at education and achievement, as highlighted by Marsh et al. (2020):

there are affective dimensions which can reduce a person’s ability to learn a language. These include low motivation, negative attitudes, poor self-esteem, and anxiety. If one or more of these are active, even if teaching is high quality, the filter is said to rise and reduce the potential for successful learning performance. Feelings and emotional aspects of learning and being a learner that can trigger the affective filter and reduce the capacity to successfully learn which include self-direction, lack of purpose, anxiety, lack of confidence, low self-esteem, and negative thinking (p. 5).

Some well-known references for motivation can be found in Maslow’s (1970) Hierarchy of Needs, Gardner and Lambert’s (1972) Motivation Theory, followed by Deci and Ryan’s (1985) Self-determination Theory, pertaining to human behavior as related to intrinsic and extrinsic motivation (theories summarized by Navarro Pablo & García Jiménez, 2018). As authors Navarro Pablo & García Jiménez (2018) explain, the literature on FLL has, since it began, found concrete and solid evidence that motivation is a crucial factor when it comes to FL outcomes (referencing Doiz et al., 2014; Dörnyei, 2009; Gardner, 2015; Lasagabaster, 2011).

Gardner (2007) looked at motivation in language acquisition and found that bilingual children are more motivated to learn a FL when it is being used and spoken in their house since it is part of their background and upbringing. This can be explained since language is necessary for any human to be able to participate in their community or environment and, thus, motivation is provided on this basis (idem, 2007). In his study, the author distinguishes between LL motivation in general and classroom learning motivation. The former is not a “trait” but a “general characteristic of the individual that applies to any opportunity to learn the language” (p. 10), while the latter refers to “the motivation that a student has to learn the language while at school and depends widely on task motivation, and, hence, can fluctuate greatly” (idem, 2007, p. 10). This author argues that motivation is one of the most important factors that comes into play when determining the success an individual will have in FL achievement.

Navarro Pablo and García Jiménez (2018) detail Gardner and Lambert's (1972) Motivation Theory, a proposal which arose from the curiosity of the authors related to the ability of some students being apt to learn a FL while others failed at the same objective. In the 1990s, motivation regarding the ability and motivation to learn a FL became more mainstream and "questions were raised about the gap between general motivation theories and L2 motivational ones", which explains the explosion of studies related to how affective factors influence students' FL attainment (Navarro Pablo & García Jiménez, 2018, p. 72).

Studies that have been carried out on motivation within the past two decades are quite robust. One of the first studies to specifically look at motivation in CLIL students was Seikkula-Leino (2007) in Finland. The author found a slightly positive correlation between motivation levels and language achievement in the subject of Mathematics. She found CLIL students were more motivated to learn the FL and were most positive in their overall appraisal of LL in general. However, the CLIL students in her study had less self-esteem when it came to appraising their FL skills, opposed to higher confidence levels in the non-CLIL students. In a similar finding, Lasagabaster and Sierra (2009) concluded the same from CLIL students: they had increased motivation to learn the FL and were more optimistic about LL. Findings from Lasagabaster (2011) were congruent: CLIL students are more motivated than their non-CLIL peers when it comes to FLL. Another study concreted the literature on motivation, consolidating the evidence that motivation is a key element to FLL (Lasagabaster et al. 2014).

Within Spain, in the Basque Country, Doiz et al. (2014) carried out an investigation to see if CLIL programs really were responsible for the increased motivation seen in some students, given the importance of this variable when it comes to FL attainment (e.g. Gardner, 2007). The authors found that both CLIL and non-CLIL students have generally moderate levels of anxiety when it comes to speaking the FL (English). However, the CLIL students seemed to have increased levels of motivation as related to the importance of English in the world and their future. For the CLIL students, English was more appealing; despite being more challenging, it was seen as more rewarding. The authors conclude that "use of the L2 as a means of communication for content learning boosts motivation among all students, creates an atmosphere that facilitates L2 use, and allows students to make progress according to their learning styles and different learning rhythms" (p. 119).

Heras and Lasagabaster (2015) researched the effects of CLIL on motivation and self-esteem and if gender played a role in northern Spain (Navarra) in the subject of P.E. in English. The results found that CLIL can help diminish the gap between motivation levels pertaining to FLL between boys and girls (the latter found to have more motivation when it comes to FLL), as both of the genders have equal levels of motivation and self-esteem. As the authors (2015) point out, CLIL is most likely decreasing the motivation gap between genders due to the inclusion of

content. Thus, it is not just language the students are learning, which, before, might have been a subject seen more for females, and now male students have sustained levels of motivation in the CLIL classroom.

CLIL was shown to have a positive effect on student language achievement as found by Pfenninger (2016) when researching the link between the FL (English), starting age of FLL, and motivation. The author attempted to determine if beginning FLL earlier in life gave students an advantage in their FL competence over time. However, results found that the age at which one begins to learn a language is unable to stand alone as having an impact on FL attainment, as type of instruction (CLIL) and motivation levels are crucial to predicting FL achievement, more so than the starting age.

When it comes to the content-subject, it has been argued that this might have an effect on motivation in CLIL related to learning (Pladevall-Ballester, 2019). This means schools and governments need to conduct more research on what subjects are being implemented in CLIL. Pladevall-Ballester (2019) found that CLIL students' motivation for learning in Primary school increased as the students got older and through interviews with students, parents and teachers, concluded that students joined because they wanted to learn English, and the parents liked CLIL because they thought it would have a positive influence on their children's academic future. As for the teachers, they enjoyed the updated methodology and practical classes.

However, when it comes to motivation in the long-term, several recent studies have shown that motivation in CLIL students, while tending to start out higher than average, drops as time goes on (Arribas, 2016; Lasagabaster & Doiz, 2017; San Isidro & Lasagabaster, 2020). While this might be attributed to age, there is a more heightened decrease in CLIL learners (Halbach & Iwaniec, 2022). However, as Halbach and Iwaniec (2022) delineate, many studies previously carried out on motivation in a longitudinal format have failed to make sure motivation levels at the beginning of the studies were included in the investigation. Thus, without having controlled for baseline motivation, the studies cannot be entirely reliable, as each student might have had varying levels of motivation prior to the studies (idem, 2020). Lasagabaster and Doiz (2017) found that motivation declined in CLIL students while their anxiety increased over time. Motivation is maintained in non-CLIL students, but there is a motivational decline in some younger CLIL students (idem, 2017). Anxiety seems to be the dimension that increases the most: more mature CLIL students outstrip their non-CLIL peers in all dimensions except interest and anxiety (idem, 2017).

Arribas (2016) found that CLIL students did better in the FL due to higher motivation levels, but since the study did not control for baseline motivation levels, there is no way this can be attributed to the CLIL program. As well, the CLIL methodology itself was not controlled for,

and there was a wide discrepancy between teachers' pedagogical strategies that might have also been responsible for the increase in FL attainment and might have led to higher motivation. As reverberated by Navarro Pablo and García Jiménez (2018):

both motivation and language attainment are recognized as relevant variables in foreign language learning. As has been shown, it is possible to identify a positive link between affective factors and scores in language attainment. However, many questions remain unanswered due to the fact that motivational variables were not controlled in those studies (p. 78).

To remedy the issues with previous studies, the authors (2018) sought to analyze the impact of CLIL methodology and the influence of certain affective factors on students' FL attainment. The objective was to determine how CLIL is affecting students' FL competence and the relation between CLIL and motivation in students in a study carried out with approximately 350 learners. To be able to honestly associate any differences to the CLIL program, initial intelligence levels were determined at the beginning of the study as well as the inclusion of both CLIL and non-CLIL sections. The authors used Pelechano's (1994) MA test, which includes the four motivational aspects related to achievement and anxiety. The findings revealed statistically significant differences in the FL, in favor of the CLIL students. The link between motivation and FL was also solidified to being real, as evidenced by previous studies. As a variable, lack of interest had the greatest effect on students' achievement and is a very important factor to take into consideration, argue the authors (2018). In line with other findings related to a decrease in motivation over time (Arribas, 2016; Lasagabaster & Doiz, 2017; San Isidro & Lasagabaster, 2020), Navarro Pablo and García Jiménez (2018) also agree that students' motivation decreases as they get older, and the results give all the reason to think this decrease in motivation is more exaggerated in CLIL students. The CLIL program was also deemed to be a main deciding factor in results.

Thus, the motivational decline documented in CLIL students might be due to a diminishing of the novelty factor as students get used to the methodology or simply because after a certain number of years, students begin to take the classes for granted, as hypothesized by San Isidro and Pérez Cañado (2023). Therefore, the same authors (2023) ask what is leading to the discrepancy in findings related to motivation, but there are other factors that come into play such as the subject content itself, which will warrant further investigation as pertinent to "whether some subjects are more suitable than others for CLIL implementation" (p. 279). Gardner (2007) points out the many factors can influence a student's motivation when it comes to school: "the teacher, the class atmosphere, the course content, materials and facilities, as well as personal characteristics of the student" (p. 10). And, as San Isidro and Pérez Cañado (2023) suggest, due to findings from a study comparing students' attitudes and motivations concerning two distinct L2s (Dutch and English in this case), affective variables in students might be less likely to decline

when English is the language of instruction in the CLIL class. Finally, as Coyle (2014) notes, although there has been increased motivation in CLIL students evidenced in previous studies, there are a multitude of factors that might influence a learner's outcomes, including teaching styles, methodology used, individual personality traits, the subject, and the FL, which is why, adverts the author: "there is a need for caution when generalizing from these studies" (p. 52).

3.6.2.5. Extramural exposure studies

Regarding this important variable, much attention has not been given to it in CLIL studies. One important study therefore will be highlighted, as related to the variable and the location of the study (Spain), as pertinent to this Thesis.

In southern Spain, Lancaster (2018) researched extramural exposure to the FL (English) as to how much of an influence this had on learners' attainment. Findings showed that extramural exposure to an FL should be fomented as much as possible, to as high of a degree as possible, so that students are given access and exposure to the FL outside of the classroom. The author (2018) found that CLIL students were outperforming their non-CLIL counterparts in all four of the FL skills, and they were also partaking in more activities outside of school that involved English (reading materials, music, videos, videogames, etc.). As for differences in students' ages, Secondary students reported more extramural exposure than their younger peers in Primary school. Thus, the author concludes that older students are dedicating more time outside of school to using the FL. In line with previous research (e.g. Pérez Cañado, 2018e), the author (2018) found that CLIL is more effective in the long-term, thus the reason "to favor exposure to the foreign language through CLIL in school and further extramural exposure to it beyond the confines of the classroom in order to boost the language attainment of students in monolingual context" (p. 108). However, in the case of after-school private academies, the author does not find these to be particularly discriminatory, and highlights that a student who does not have access to these private institutions might be reassured that "research implies CLIL students perform better without this extra FL exposure" in form of a private academy (p. 111).

In summary, the author (2018) concludes that parents should keep in mind that CLIL classes are better options for their children than paid-for afterschool classes, since CLIL classes have been shown to improve FL scores more so than private academies. CLIL students with traditional FLL and CLIL content classes are more proficient in their English use, grammatically as well, than their non-CLIL peers. This study is important for paving the way for equality in CLIL, especially since students might continue to be jeopardized academically if their SES does not afford them with private language classes afterschool. As put forth by Granados and Lorenzo (2022), most parents in the Spanish context cannot afford for private language lessons, thus the children are being discriminated for, especially if CLIL instruction is not offered at their school, as

their more-endowed peers are receiving extramural exposure to the FL and they are not. More research needs to be done, but this particular study gleans positive reviews for CLIL: it is helping lessen the gap.

3.6.2.6. Urban and rural context findings

Context has always been pinpointed as a particularly important variable when it comes to inequality in education. As highlighted by Oxbrow (2018) and Pérez Cañado (2018b), it has been held that urban learners have greater access to new technologies, they are generally more motivated, have greater levels of self-confidence, and are more eager to use and learn the FL (English in both cases), whereas rural learners have less or no extramural exposure to the FL outside of the classroom, nor do they have access to authentic materials. When it comes to the appraisal of the bilingual program itself, rural learners are not as appreciative of it as their urban counterparts (Oxbrow, 2018). From this viewpoint, “the potential disenfranchisement of students in rural areas and public schools” must be given much more emphasis in research efforts (San Isidro & Pérez Cañado, 2023, p. 278). Furthermore, as a way to make sure rural learners are not disadvantaged due to where they live and go to school, “measures should be set in place to safeguard equitable access to materials and enhanced extramural exposure to the target language, adequate implementation of CLIL related methodologies and evaluation procedures, and teacher development options in these comparatively underequipped settings” (idem, 2023, p. 278).

Findings from Pérez Cañado (2018e) highlight the important job CLIL can do to help students from disenfranchised settings, or in other words, a rural context. It has been noted that urban contexts are more profitable for students academically. However, while her research (2018e) found significant differences in L1 in favor of urban contexts when it came to non-CLIL students, CLIL learners on the other hand performed equally well, despite context differences. This leads the author to conclude that while the staircase effect holds true in non-CLIL education settings, and urban learners continue to outperform their rural peers, in CLIL settings, rural learners have the same opportunity to improve their L1 competence.

For their part, Cordero et al. (2013) argue the type of school does not have as significant an impact as previously thought on attainment, and claim school type is not what accounts for the variability, but that it is mostly due to individual differences within the students.

3.6.3. Findings related to diversity

At present, there have been very few studies related to achievement levels and ability in the CLIL classroom. Indeed, this “exploration of pedagogical practices and teacher development options [...] has hitherto received little scholarly attention and uncertainty still surrounds the

suitability of this approach for all types of achievers” (Pérez Cañado, 2023, p. 1132). Most all of the research in the past decade has been geared towards theory in practice regarding guidelines or prior research featuring qualitative research based on stakeholders’ perceptions (idem, 2023). It is only in the past two years or so that research explicitly related to diversity has been carried out.

CLIL is increasingly being found mainstreamed in school-wide programs (Junta D. A., 2017) and yet, “[...] there is a consensus that one of the greatest problems plaguing CLIL implementation at present is catering for diversity, as there is conspicuous lack of materials, resources, methodological and evaluative guidelines, and teacher education endeavors to step up to it successfully” (Pérez Cañado, 2023, p. 1130). As Barrios Espinosa (2019) draws attention to, “bilingual education has officially been advocated as an instrument of social cohesion since it is aimed to facilitate the whole population access to quality education in foreign languages that was formerly the prerogative of the elite” (p. 5), and thus, it is now obligatory that its effect on all types of students be rigorously evaluated. Furthermore, “[...], prior investigation documents the urgent need for a study on attention to diversity within CLIL in order to shed light on the issue of whether and how CLIL works across different levels of attainment and what types of curricular and organizational practices can be implemented to cater for it” (Pérez Cañado, 2023, p. 1130). Studies probing catering to diversity are, according to Madrid Fernández and Pérez Cañado (2018), “at an embryonic stage” (p. 242).

Recent research, notes Pérez Cañado et al. (2023), has found three salient findings: firstly, that CLIL and non-CLIL students are now mainly homogeneous; secondly, CLIL is working in very disadvantaged settings (rural, public school, low SES, minorities); and finally, that CLIL seems to be closing the gap in achievement between these disadvantaged settings and more privileged settings. As Halbach and Iwaniec (2022) allude, these gains cannot be pinpointed solely on CLIL methodology. These authors sought to determine what was causing the levelling effect in CLIL, through the help of teacher perspectives, about why this might be happening via a qualitative study. The results showed that the CLIL teachers assumed their students were more motivated from the start, as they had voluntarily joined the CLIL scheme, and thus, only highly motivated students might be signing up. The teachers also believed they were holding their CLIL students to a higher standard, and had higher expectations for them, regardless of their background or SES, which most likely would eliminate any mistreatment or discrimination the students may have received in the non-CLIL scheme, implicitly or explicitly. The teachers also believed that the CLIL course itself was motivating and might work as a leveller because both students and teachers felt they belonged.

This is not the first time this sentiment has been alluded to. And it carries a lot of weight with it. Thus, it would seem that the “stronger sense of belongingness to a group with a

clear-cut identity” helps solidify learners’ competencies as well as fomenting more responsible and autonomous students that are able to access the FL in high quality learning environments (Pérez Cañado et al., 2023, p. 1023). That being said, the research proving CLIL is levelling the playing field means

[...] the hotly debated assumption that CLIL is elitist needs to be dismantled on the basis of the most recent empirical evidence and a shift in focus need to be operated towards catering for diversity; that is, setting in place measures that will allow CLIL to be accessible for over- and under-achievers alike (idem, 2021, p. 1023).

3.6.3.1. Theoretical studies

Various authors (Barrios, 2010; Madrid & Hughes, 2011; Madrid & Pérez Cañado, 2018) have undertaken studies that focus on more theoretical notions of CLIL by mapping out measures that are taken in the programs as a way to attend to mixed-ability students or neurodivergences, including adapting curriculums, flexibility within groupings, or tailored programs. However, all of these measures essentially mimic the same organizational methods employed in general learning environments and are not the ultimate solution nor believed to be entirely sustainable.

In Spain, Martín-Pastor and Durán Martínez (2018) looked to assess the measures that Primary schools were taking, or not, related to diversity guidelines. The results were not optimistic: widely used measures to cope with mixed-ability learners were found to be disheartening strategies that are not in line with inclusive education. These included having students with problems leave the program, separating the students by ability (advanced vs. weak) or not using the L2 hardly at all during the classes. To boot, many schools included in the study did not mention any type of plan aimed at catering to diversity nor were any actions being taken. Indubitably, this research only consolidates the fact that a rift is occurring “between the policy reflected in documents and actual grassroots practices” (Pérez Cañado, 2023, p. 1134).

3.6.3.2. Qualitative studies

From a qualitative perspective, the topic of diversity has come to light in European research, for example, in Estonia, where LL is propelled by voluntary CLIL programs. There, Mehisto and Asser (2007) studied stakeholders’ views of the programs, mainly focused on teacher training needs. The goal of said study was to figure out what factors contribute to the success of the CLIL programs and to determine what conditions were needed to maintain the program or if any steps needed to be taken to develop it further. They interviewed teachers, parents, and headmasters, and although the study did not primarily focus on attention to diversity, its findings did shed some light on the problem at hand, concluding that “addressing the needs of students who lack motivation, pose discipline problems or are academically weak is a challenge for the

program at large and requires an organizational response both to help ensure students' needs are met and that teachers build their repertoire of related skills" (p. 693).

The CLIL programs in Estonia, as are the CLIL programs in Spain, are open and advertised as being "suitable for students with different levels of ability", which makes all the more reason that schools and instructors should "have clearly defined strategies for meeting all the needs of those ability groups" (p. 696). Almost 100% of the teachers surveyed (idem, 2007) deemed training opportunities to be of the utmost importance when considering the success and longevity of the CLIL schemes. The authors (2007) are concise when they determine it is fundamental that teachers are educated in strategies aimed at helping underachieving or unmotivated students, as well as those that behave inappropriately.

Similarly, in northern Europe, Roiha (2014) carried out a study in Finland related to diversity as experienced by Finnish teachers and students and the degree to which diversity was understood and dealt with. As for the students themselves, they do not seem to have a grasp on the idea of what diversity or mixed-abilities are, as the researcher found that many students voiced concern, or even protested, when it came to allowing some students more time on tests or giving them different evaluation criteria. He (2014) found that differences in academic level were acknowledged by educators but only perceived this to be relevant for new students. Language was also an important topic discussed and teachers' perceptions of L1 and L2 use and the three teachers present in the study used Finnish, the L1, to support the underachievers. On the topic of grouping, some teachers involved in the study voiced their concern about grouping students together by ability, in fear of increasing the gap between achievement levels. For personalized attention or support in day-to-day class, the teachers admitted that in large classes they found personalized attention to be hard to carry out in practice and tended to do a general walk around the class as a way to check progress of students, mentioning it was usually done in the L1. As for differentiation strategies, the teachers said they usually sent out different amounts of homework or even different work as a way to address diversity.

Overall, the researcher (2014) concluded that the three greatest challenges for teachers were "lack of time and resources, the material, and the large class size" (p. 9). The inconvenient layout of the classroom was also highlighted as a major setback. The researcher did note the importance of mindset when it comes to inclusive education, correlating an inclusive mindset with heightened use of differentiation practices. He found the educators who were using differentiation methods in their CLIL classes "do it in a fairly wide manner and use a variety of practical methods for both dimensions of differentiation" (p. 11). It was also found that teachers who had SEN or challenged students in their class carried out differentiation methods more often, seemingly more aware of diverse needs present which showed through in their day-to-day assistance strategies,

in line with the European Commission (2013), who note that the presence of SEN students improves teacher methodology.

In Spain, Pena Díaz and Porto Requejo (2008) focused on studying the needs of teachers involved in CLIL programs in the capital through the use of questionnaires. They found that students with learning disabilities are not well attended to and their needs are not being met academically. Regarding teacher perceptions, only about a fourth of the teachers polled thought that their English level was sufficient to teach bilingual classes and almost half of the teachers did not have any specific training in bilingual teaching or methodology. For their part, authors Casas Pedrosa and Rascón Moreno (2021) make note of a qualitative batch of research, referencing certain variables that are fundamental for CLIL understanding: L2 competence, SES, social milieu, and type of institution.

Likewise, in 2011, Fernández and Halbach surveyed teachers also through the use of questionnaires, whose results reverberate those of the previous studies: there are insufficient resources to adequately cater to mixed ability groups, special needs students, and latecomers to the bilingual programs. In this same vein, the NALTT Project (EA2010-0087), led by Pérez, worked with pre- and in-service teachers, teacher trainers, and coordinators across Europe, and determined that teacher training, material design, and methodology guidelines were critically in need of being addressed in order for CLIL programs to be able to cater to diversity successfully (Pérez Cañado, 2016b).

More recently, Evnitskaya and Llinares (2022) conducted research into the bilingual program in Madrid to see if the selection process for CLIL students continues to be discriminatory. Unfortunately, the findings show that the CLIL program continues to discriminate students on the basis of language accreditations and previous participation in a bilingual program. Also in the capital, Hidalgo-McCabe (2022) looked into CLIL implementation, specifically comparing high- and low-exposure bilingual schemes since, as the author herself reports, “attitudes or stances on CLIL implementation have been and still are relatively scarce” (p. 22). The main conclusion from this author (2022) found that parents are highly invested in external examinations for their offspring, and welcome the use of standardized tests when it comes to language proficiency. The author concludes that the parents ask for and positively appraise these types of tests since, quoting Baker (2012): “[the parents] are not sure teachers know how to teach them [their children]” (p. 6) and, thus, believe these assessments can gauge how well their children are performing. Outside of Spain, Banegas (2022) focused on how CLIL was attending to equality and diversity as perceived by the important stakeholders involved. In this South American context, CLIL was heralded to be used to enhance knowledge about equality, especially for more rural, disenfranchised members of society, while also being a tool to maintain and increase minority languages in the area.

3.6.3.3. Quantitative studies

Regarding quantitative evaluation of CILL, several studies have been carried out in Spain which have sought to quantitatively gauge the impact of variability in CLIL programs. For their part, Julius and Madrid (2017) carried out an empirical-descriptive study at the tertiary level. The authors suggest that professors at the university who teach CLIL courses are more concerned with content acquisition than language acquisition. Their study also found that the professors believe students should be required to prove they possess a certain level of foreign language competence before being allowed to enroll in CLIL degrees. This study demonstrates the great variability within CLIL students at tertiary level and how important attention to diversity is, due to the varying factors that can impact students' linguistic levels in English, including bilingual degrees, private language classes, studying/traveling abroad, and motivation levels.

Moving across continents, authors de Valenzuela et al. (2016) investigated the participation of children with learning disabilities in language programs in Canada, The U.S.A., England, and The Netherlands. Disapprovingly, their results found that challenged learners, in general, "have limited access to some L2 education programs and services, which reduces their opportunities to become bilingual" (p. 41). Lack of time was mentioned as a major obstacle to successful LL programs and "informants discussed the challenges involved with juggling multiple, and often complex, needs of children with DD (developmental disorders) within a limited time period" (p. 42). The authors concluded that SEN were prioritized over language services and noted that "language education and special education seemed to be competing rather than integrated services, provided by different people, at different times and in different physical locations" (p. 42). Ultimately the authors pose several questions regarding language and special education, and which one should be prioritized, and if they can be taught simultaneously: "it is important for us as a society to grapple with how best to support bilingualism in all children with DD, regardless of severity" (p. 42).

For their part, Madrid and Pérez Cañado (2018) present a summary of the adaptations that have stemmed from diversity research. There are a series of measures that are advisable, such as mixed-ability groupings, linguistic and academic scaffolding; curricular adaptations; use of student-centered methodologies; flexible classroom organizations; use of multimodal materials; fomenting ICT use; increasing the student-teacher connection; and the presence of a supplementary teacher in the classroom. All of these, the authors (2018) point out, are ways that teachers can successfully begin to differentiate their teaching for diverse students.

3.6.3.4. ADiBE findings

The previously mentioned ADiBE (Pérez Cañado et al., 2019) project has also recently gleaned insight into CLIL implementation regarding diversity around Europe. These studies, relays

Pérez Cañado (2023), are of the utmost importance for CLIL when moving further in the 21st century, since there is “extremely meager – verging on non-existent amount of research” that has been entirely based on attention to diversity (p. 1135). Thus, at the moment there is insufficient concrete *evidence* that the measures put forth by inclusive CLIL guidelines are actually taking place in grassroots classrooms on the continent, and this justifies the use of ADiBE protocol to ascertain how diversity is being dealt with by probing those directly involved in the CLIL schemes. The ADiBE protocol lists identification (subject) variables for the three different stakeholders. For the teachers’ behalf: age, gender, type of teacher, employment situation, competence level in the FL, overall teaching experience, and years’ experience in a bilingual school. For the students: age, gender, language(s) spoken at home, and years in a bilingual school. And finally, for the parents: age, gender, language(s) spoken at home, and level of education. The instruments used come from the ADiBE project and use self- and group-administered questionnaires to evaluate CLIL programs in various contexts⁴².

Using ADiBE protocol, Pérez Cañado (2023) looked to fill in the gaps in the CLIL agenda, most importantly, the stakeholders’ perceptions of CLIL and its ability to attend to the diverse learners in the classroom, filling in one of the major needs of investigation, per Barrios Espinosa (2019). The study also sought to compare the strategies and methodologies that researchers say in their theoretical accounts are happening by looking at real CLIL classrooms to gain true evidence of what is happening in the CLIL classrooms in one particular region of Spain: Andalusia. Her study used multiple triangulation and across- and within-cohort comparisons. The goal was to gain insight into three stakeholders involved (teacher, parent, and student) regarding specific CLIL characteristics such as the methodology, types of groupings, materials, resources, evaluation, and teacher training and collaboration. It sought to validate if these are being, or not, used to cater to diversity with European CLIL students by factoring in stakeholders’ self-reported perceptions by comparing the responses across-cohort to determine if there are any statistically significant differences in the previously mentioned characteristics among the perceptions of the teachers, parents, and students.

The results found that as for catering to diversity, teachers, in general, find this a feat when there are mixed-ability levels in both the target language and content-subject. The most widely used coping mechanism for the teachers is scaffolding, in line with Somers (2017, 2018). The best practices that teachers say they are using are scaffolding and student-centered methodologies and they are not reporting a need to resort to the L1 in a majority of the cases.

⁴² cf. Pérez Cañado et al. (2023) for design and validation of the questionnaires, Chapter 4 for further explanation, and Appendices II, III and IV for the questionnaires in their original versions).

The teachers show confidence in BICS but do not have as much confidence in CALP. Overall, the teachers feel like they are capable of attending to the diverse abilities and achievers in the classroom. As for the students' perceptions related to linguistics aspects, they are positive, in line with the teachers'. This cohort believes the teachers are capable of providing them with sufficient support for the difficult language and content aspects in their CLIL classes and they also have much faith in teachers' specialized knowledge and language proficiency. However, this cohort does see more L1 use taking place as a way to cater to diversity, which is inconsistent with what teachers' reporting. Finally, the parents shared the same positive views as the teachers and students regarding the teachers' linguistic capabilities and scaffolding procedures.

Teachers' perceptions about methodology and groupings regard classroom practices to be mainly student-centered, as opposed to teacher-led. As for specific strategies, some are being routinely employed (e.g. cooperative or task- and project-based learning, personalized attention, peer-mentoring, and assistance strategies); others are not given nearly as much consideration (e.g. mixed-ability grouping and multiple intelligences); and some (e.g. newcomer classes) are hardly ever used or not even in existence. The teachers in the study express difficulties when it comes to planning lessons for mixed-ability students and a desire for further education regarding this specific issue. For their part, students do not see as much variety taking place in teachers' methodology or classroom layouts. The perceptions on students' behalf are in line with the teachers regarding multiple intelligences and newcomer classes, which they say are rarely or never used. The students report student-centered methodologies taking place; however, they do not see peer assistance nor personalized attention strategies. The students maintain that the classroom does tend to be teacher-led at times. The parents, for their part, are the least satisfied with the methodological aspects of diversity: they see student-centered learning, cooperative strategies and personalized attention taking place. However, they do not find the textbook to be functional, they do not see different class layouts being used, and newcomer classes are not taking place.

Related to materials and resources, these outcomes are directly in line with the conclusions of prior studies on the same issue (e.g. Fernández & Halbach, 2011; Pena Díaz & Porto Requejo, 2008; Pérez Cañado, 2016a, 2016b, 2018; Roiha, 2014): one of the major obstacles when it comes to proper CLIL implementation is the lack of materials. However, on a positive note, varied input and ICTs are routinely used as a way to cater to diversity and varying achievement levels. For their part, students are not satisfied with the materials, in line with teachers' perceptions. They do not think the textbook is adequate for these CLIL classrooms but do say that ICTs are being used. Siepmann and Pérez Cañado (2022) sought to make learning environments more inclusive by tailoring and including digital materials in line with the ADiBE curriculum. The principles for a CLIL-based curriculum were constructed between the six participating countries in Europe by using input and feedback from all to implement coordinated,

cohesive plan. These principles were six-fold: “teachers as designers; dialogic classroom; explicitness; learner centeredness; multimodality; multi-literacies; and, scaffolding” (pp. 208-209).

As for assessment, the teachers say they are using formative strategies, in line with previous findings (e.g. Roiha, 2014) and concur that these types of assessment strategies are useful as a bid to cater to diversity, such as personalized feedback, self-assessment tools, differentiated activities and use of guidelines as a support measure. However, summative assessment seems to be lacking and teachers are in need of more education on this front, also concurrent with Roiha’s (2014) findings. Several important assessment tools are not being utilized, such as differentiated tests (more time allowed on such, highlighted key words, adapted vocabulary) or homework according to ability-level. Overall, assessment is, for the teachers, the main challenge they report when it comes to catering to diversity. As for the students, evaluation is not perceived in a very positive light. Students do not think that assessment is being used to cater to diversity. They do not agree with the fact that grading criteria, homework, or activities are being differentiated for ability. The exams, according to this cohort, are also not being differentiated; however, students do respond positively to feeling like their performance has improved as a result of teachers’ ability to attend to diverse abilities. The parents’ perceptions, for their part, are in complete alignment with the students: they do not see either formative or summative assessment using differentiation to cater to mixed-ability and there are no differentiated exams or homework. However, as the students reported, the parents do see personalized feedback and extra guidelines being used as a measure for diversity. These congruent findings between parents and students led Pérez Cañado (2023) to infer that this is real data since parents seem to know what they are talking about.

The teachers were collaborating and coordinating, but not to a very high degree. An unfortunate take-away is the fact that teachers find multi-professional teams and guidance counselors to be essential in order to be able to cater to diversity properly; however, the presence of these is not always relied upon. Another negative result is that of parent-teacher coordination, which the study found was not happening very often. As for students’ perceptions regarding the preparation of their teachers, students believe that language teachers are better equipped to deal with diversity, followed by the language assistants, and finally, the content teachers. Overall, in line with the teachers’ perceptions, this cohort is not satisfied with school support teams, in the form of multi-professional teams, guidance counselor and newcomer classes. As for the parents, they have great belief in the teachers’ training and parents think the teachers are more than capable of catering to diversity. Inconsistent with the teachers’ testimonies, the parents did say they positively view their engagement with the teachers, and overall, the parents are quite satisfied with the support system they are being offered.

Finally, for teacher training needs, these are very high, in line with other findings regarding teacher training (e.g. Cioè-Peña, 2017; Scanlan, 2011). The main teacher development needs areas include access, design, and adaptation of materials; language scaffolding techniques; and student-centered methodologies. The teachers confirmed that they are using the very methods they desire more training in, so it would seem that they are hoping to get more guidance on how to carry out their classes in a more structured way, with theoretical guidelines.

The author (2023) concludes that given the overwhelmingly consistency between the three stakeholders' perceptions, this is undeniably a real representation of grassroots CLIL implementation. All of the participants agree there is an increased demand across the board when it comes to catering to diversity in CLIL, and all (more so parents and students) show great confidence in teachers' knowledge of BICS and CALP and ability to cater to diverse abilities. The classroom methodology also seems to be generally following theoretical guidelines since scaffolding and student-centered methodologies are taking place. Assessment and materials stick out as the major problem areas, along with high teacher training needs. On the whole, the student and parent perspectives are more allied than teachers', and by far the most satisfied cohort are parents. Overall, the author advises that findings such as these "necessitate new pedagogical considerations regarding the ways in which educational systems across Europe should accommodate learner diversity" (p. 15). She says there are four main conclusions that must be addressed presently: CLIL is not working seamlessly and is in need of updating in order to "fit the bill in the new mainstreaming scenario: it needs to be reinforced, reengineered, and reshaped to respond to the new methodological, evaluative, collaborative, and training needs posed by educational differentiation in school-wide implementations" (p. 16). Secondly, CLIL cannot be implemented across all regional and educational contexts, but needs to be broken down into region-specific models. Thirdly, best practices across CLIL schemes or "key areas of expertise to favor integration in CLIL programs from a broader transnational perspective" must be included in teacher training schemes" (p. 16). And lastly, all those implicated in keeping CLIL sustainable must look to the perceptions of the very parents themselves, who have almost a blind faith in CLIL and its methodologies, and thus, "it is incumbent upon gatekeepers, practitioners, and frontline stakeholders to ensure the necessary measures are set in place to ensure CLIL programs continue to live up to the expectations they have created in the new scenario of diversity" (p. 16).

More ADiBE research comes from Casas Pedrosa and Rascón Moreno (2023) who focused on stakeholder perspectives in CLIL, regarding catering to diversity in Spain. It involved the

questionnaires from the previously mentioned ADiBE project⁴³ and featured a total of over 900 (students and teachers) at Secondary level in Andalusia and Aragon.

Linguistically, the students say they are receiving scaffolding in both linguistic and content concepts (in line with Pérez Cañado, 2023), but they only slightly agree with the statement that teachers are using BICS and CALP to help facilitate learning. The students say that the teacher is repeating the lessons in the L1 (also in congruency with Pérez Cañado, 2023). On behalf of the teachers, they agree that it is challenging to teach diverse learners in CLIL classrooms and do not agree that it is as equally challenging to cater to diversity in non-CLIL classes. The teachers show confidence that they are providing scaffolding in both content and language, as well as knowledge about BICS and CALP. The teachers do not report much use of L1 as a way to cater to diversity.

Methodologically, the students mostly agree with a majority of the statements: the lessons are diversity-sensitive and the teachers do have a wide variety of methods that they employ to help learners: student-centered work, cooperative learning, task- and project-based learning strategies, different types of groupings, personalized attention and use of peer mentoring and assistance strategies. However, the students also see teacher-led methodology taking place and do not see multiple intelligences or varied classroom layouts, nor do they have newcomer classes available to them (findings in line with Pérez Cañado, 2023). For the teachers' behalf, they are not all that confident that they have enough methods to be able to properly attend to mixed-ability learners. The teachers report more student-centered work happening than teacher-led. The teachers testify they are using cooperative learning, multiple intelligences, task- and project-based learning, personalized attention, as well as peer mentoring strategies, and vary the classroom layout to meet their students' needs. They do not agree that there are newcomer classes in existence.

As for the materials and resources, the students disagree that they have differentiated materials, are not happy with the textbooks, and do not appreciate if the teacher is taking time to create and adapt materials for the class. They do report a reasonable use of ICT and there is some use of varied input so as to cater to diversity. For their behalf, the teachers' perspectives gleaned are overall positive regarding materials and resources. They report having access to resources that cater to diversity, they also state having to adapt and create materials to differentiate content and language concepts, and use ICT and a variety of input. However, the teachers do find it difficult to adapt and create materials for academically diverse learners.

⁴³ cf. Pérez Cañado et al. (2023)

The most negatively perceived aspect on behalf of the students is evaluation, as they do not all agree with fact that catering to diversity is happening in the form of detailed guidelines, personalized and regular feedback, self-assessment, or varying grading criteria, nor do they see the use of differentiated tests, activities, or homework. The students do not agree that their performance has increased due to measures taken for diversity. Contrasting to these perceptions, teachers have a much more positive outlook on assessment. They agree that they are attending to diversity in continuous and final assessment, they differentiate homework and the exams and adapt all activities for the students based on ability. These are in stark contrast to the students' perceptions, since the teachers agree with all of the statements to some degree whilst the students disagree with all the statements in this block.

As for teacher collaboration, the students do view this block more positively: they support the presence of multi-professional teams, support with their parents, a solid support system at school, and guidance counselor. In this same line, the teachers view their collaboration and coordination positively. They are coordinating and are well-supported, and report having the support of multi-professional teams, guidance counsellors, and parents. When it comes to specific teacher development needs, the cohort desires more training in scaffolding, student-centered methodologies and use of classroom organizations. They also would like a plethora of information on how to design and adapt materials, as well as more direct access to readily-made materials that differentiate.

The authors (Casas Pedrosa & Rascón Moreno, 2023) note that this is another exemplary representation of grassroots CLIL implementation: "Harmony between the information derived from the interview protocols and the opinions witnessed in the surveys is prevalent" (p. 11). Furthermore, the authors deduce that given the findings, Spain is continuing well on its journey to satisfactorily executed CLIL schemes when it comes to inclusive measures that attend to diversity and studies like this should be repeated in the future and more headway must be made in the problematic areas, especially pertaining to resources and teacher education.

Outside of Spain, research in the Austrian educational context into diversity on behalf of students and teachers was carried out by Bauer-Marschallinger et al. (2023). Their study was of vast importance given the fact that CLIL in Austria "is well-established" but there has been scarce investigation into grassroots practices taking place in the classrooms (p. 1). The researchers make note that CLIL in this country is usually purported as CEIL (Content and English Integrated Learning), referencing Dalton-Puffer et al. (2010). The study included a total of 132 students, with the ADiBE questionnaires translated into German.

Concerning the understanding of diversity, a data point that emerged post-data recollection and was included was that the students did not seem to appreciate what this actually

meant. The students believed that, generally, all class members were fairly homogeneous in ability and most of them ascertained "a low degree of perceived diversity" or "ethos of equality" (p. 5). The students did not report differentiation to be necessary, although a few of the students did make mention of SEN such as anxiety and dyslexia. However, even though on the surface the students did not note a precise perception of diversity, they did seem to be unknowingly aware of it: "While rejecting the idea of having different ability levels, the students seemed aware that they possessed different weaknesses and strengths that could also complement one another, implicitly foregrounding solidarity" (p. 6). The study included two types of institutions, one in which CLIL students were selected for the programs, in which teachers did not perceive as much difference in ability level related to the L2; whereas in the other institutions which featured CLIL-compulsory classrooms, the target language (English) "was presumed to widen the gap between stronger and weaker students" (p. 7). In the latter institutions, 40% of the teachers reported they never used language nor content support in their classrooms. Despite the fact that legislation in the country all but forbids differentiated grading, and students have unanimously internalized homogeneity in their abilities and grassroots practices in CLIL are catering to the diverse students in the classroom, even within the CLIL-selected programs, where students and teachers tend to see more of a balance in students' FL competence.

When it came to support for learning on behalf of the teachers, students view this happening more strongly than the teachers themselves in terms of language, whereas when it comes to content support, teachers are more positive about this happening than the students. It should be noted that most of the teachers in this study were native speakers of English. Interestingly, the teachers themselves do not see any language scaffolding techniques being employed, which can be explained by the fact that most of the teachers involved in the study saw themselves as content rather than language teachers; thus, they tended to focus more on scaffolding content concepts as opposed to language concepts.

Interestingly though, the teachers were seen during observations providing a wide variety of language scaffolding, through the use of translations, clarifications, and modelling. The teachers said they use a wide variety of materials aimed at combining "a healthy mix of learner styles, modalities, levels of difficulty and social formats" (p. 8). The teachers were also adamant in prioritizing quality task-design so as to create "clear, purposeful tasks, allowing all learners to contribute to something" (p. 8). Personalized and individual attention strategies were widely used by the teachers, who mentioned giving "spontaneous" help throughout lessons to cater to individual needs by use of explaining, repeating, peer-mentoring, or supplemental video clips. However, even though students mentioned that these strategies happened routinely in their classes, they "did not interpret the different modalities and task types found on worksheets and in activities as addressing learner diversity" (p. 8). This clearly can be explained by the fact that,

for the most part, students do not “have a highly reflective approach to questions of teaching methodologies, their rationales and purposes” (p. 8).

For scaffolding related to content, the teachers and students both confirm that this is happening. Students mentioned that although “no explicit attention was paid to learners with different academic strengths”, the teachers did attempt to remedy any issues by combining “CLIL units with less demanding contents” and more descriptive, dedicated time to explaining technical vocabulary in class using a combination of input. Unfortunately, the teachers did not seem to be completely differentiating for mixed-ability levels in the L2 in the same grade; instead, they only mentioned differentiating for grade level based on more advanced communication skills as the students moved into higher levels: “Their CLIL lessons in [lower Secondary levels] aim at receptive skills combined with non-language output, while by the [higher Secondary levels], students also engage in role plays, discussions and stage meetings” (p. 9).

As for the use of the L1 (German) to cater to diversity in the CLIL classrooms, teachers agreed they used it more so than students said it happened. All of the teachers from the institutions that individually select CLIL students said they used the L1 at least occasionally and a few teachers mentioned using German “purposefully to ensure comprehension by all learners, especially weaker students” (p. 9). There were more reasons for employing the L1, which included explaining vocabulary, revising technical content concepts, or giving a new perspective to the subject. One of the teachers said they gave new content in the L1 and then switched to the L2. Other teachers routinely combined L1 and L2: “teachers also mentioned that they would switch to either language in order to keep up interest but code-switching could also happen randomly and students were always allowed to do so” (p. 9). In general, “the use of German was seen as making CLIL lessons more accessible in general, especially when dealing with topics that are already considered difficult in German” (p. 9) and in almost the entirety of the teachers, the L1 was “seen as decisive for content scaffolding mostly, independently of learner differences” (p. 10). Mainly, teachers are using their pedagogical tact and best notions to decide when the L1 is needed, and “the extent of L1 use is contingent upon the difficulty of the content presented” (p. 11). However, referring back to the students’ inability or neglect to see teachers’ practices as being methodological and reflective, the teachers “see their use of German as purposeful at all times”, while the students do not see it being used in such a systematic manner (p. 11). Moreover, the authors mention that the CLIL classes in this particular context benefit from a systematic use of the L1 (German) and L2 (English).

Peer-mentoring strategies and assistance given to the students were also remarked on during the study. The students regarded pair- and group-work as much more attractive than teacher-led learning, relying heavily on peer-mentoring for clarification purposes. As for the teachers, they also believe that peer-work is fundamental in the CLIL classrooms, as it is

"considered a viable way to support students in fulfilling tasks" (p. 9). However, the groups are not given particularly detailed attention and they are not formed "following a specific pedagogical aim", but are mostly grouped according to "circumstantial factors like seating arrangements or student preferences" (p. 10). However, some of the teachers did mention they make use of mixed-ability groups on specific occasions, mostly on a language competence-based need. Overall, these pair-and group-organizations were used to help cater to mixed-ability, paces, and strengths in the classroom.

As for specific practices that are being used to cater to diversity, the teachers say their practices are student-centered for the most part, although the students did not fully support this statement. The majority of the teachers from the CLIL-selected institutions said their lessons are completely student-based and very communicative in nature, and make use of many innovative tasks such as gamification and task-based learning. The teachers expressed feeling very satisfied with this part of the CLIL classes they teach, since it involves the students to such a high level and they are really part of the learning process.

Another study into the workings of CLIL via the ADiBE protocol was carried out in Germany by Siepmann et al. (2023), with 31 teachers and just shy of 600 students. The study used the previously mentioned questionnaires, focusing on the subject of History, and was furthered enriched by a focus group of six students. All of the teachers featured in the study had a C1 or C2 proficiency level in the target language, with the majority (80%) holding the latter. Interestingly, almost the entirety of the teacher cohort had studied English formally (over 95%) in addition to their CLIL content-subject (over 90%).

With regards to how content and language learning is taking place, responses regarding diversity-sensitive methodologies are positive. As for unity between the stakeholders, teachers and students agree that linguistic support is happening for all learners; scaffolding is taking place. There is slight disagreement between the two cohorts when it comes to L1 use: teachers see the L1 being used to a lesser degree than the students, who report more German being used. Finally, there is also disagreement when it comes to the teachers' communication skills, since teachers agree that they are equipped to cater to diversity but the students do not show such enthusiasm. The focus group and classroom observations served to confirm the questionnaire results: diverse learners, linguistically and academically, are observed to be in the same classroom; however, no German was used in the particular lesson observed, scaffolding was used extensively and the teachers showed high levels of BICS and CALP and were confidently using both throughout the lessons. The teacher observed noted that for them it was more demanding to cater to students who were diverse linguistically in the L2 since it was easier to differentiate content in the subject of Geography. Another mention of the teacher was the inability or lack of confidence to teach the CLIL class when they had little to no experience; however, years of experience had led to a more

routine and systematized implementation. As for newcomer students, this was noted to be a serious hurdle for both teachers and students based on the linguistic challenges they faced. Translations were found to be the main source of help for these types of students. Finally, for L1 use (German), it was done systematically and *purposefully*, usually used for more advanced or difficult concepts. Finally, the teachers' content knowledge is not as positively viewed by the students, which might be due to the fact that teachers have not studied the contents in the L2 and are learning about this subject in the L2 themselves.

Concerning findings related to the methodology and groupings, both teachers and students expressed harmony in the fact that the classes catered to mixed-ability students. However, teachers were more confident that they had a wide variety of methods and frequently used them, but students did not see as much variety happening. Teachers believed they are employing cooperative learning strategies, mixed-ability groupings, and individualized attention, but students did not confirm the presence of these to such a high degree. This is quite possibly in line with Bauer-Marschallinger et al.'s (2023) findings that students generally lack a reflective view of teachers' methodologies and classroom practices, and the authors themselves made mention that this study quite possibly has its limitations due to the fact that students might not be entirely reliable subjects since they have no real knowledge of teacher training nor are they aware of specific methodologies and reflective learning. The teachers and students also both agreed that the classroom was student-centered and both disagreed that classroom layouts were varied as a diversity measure. The students, for their part, were very adamant that their success or failure in the classroom was independent of many other variables, but heavily dependent on the personalized and individualized attention they received from the teachers.

Findings on materials and resources are in line with the previous findings (e.g. Bauer-Marschallinger et al., 2023; Pérez Cañado, 2023; Rascón Moreno & Casas Pedrosa, 2023): teachers have to adapt and create their own materials and students still show a dissatisfaction with the prepared materials they are using and are unaware that teachers are creating the materials. While teachers say they are using ICT to support mixed-ability students, students do not agree as much; however, the opposite was found in regard to multimodal input: students say it is being used to higher degree than the teachers. Direct observation confirmed the data: the resources in class were limited and bland; most were black and white print-outs. Students furthermore did not have personal digital devices and most of the input was visually presented via PowerPoint. A bit of differentiation was seen in that extra tasks were provided for those students who finished an activity early. The teacher observed said they often adapt or design their own materials as a way to maintain a consistent layout, by combining texts from German textbooks and authentic sources like the BBC, tapping, say the authors, into the idea of *pluriliteracies* (e.g. Meyer et al., 2015) by presenting data with differentiated outcomes and showing different uses of data, as well as styles and modes of communication. There was a

confirmed lack of textbooks and students worked primarily with the print-outs, although this particular class had a digital projector which was used frequently. However, it was noted that, in general, the CLIL classes do not make frequent use of ICT and it was an anomaly to have a projector in the class. Again, the students confirmed the use of language and content scaffolding such as in the form of vocabulary lists; however, they insisted on the fact that the most important strategy in the classroom was teacher support in the form of personalized attention. Teachers are still dedicating quite a bit of energy in class preparation due to the scarcity of materials. In addition, the lack of ICT is seen to be very hindering to this pedagogy, especially considering the importance of these skills in today's society. On a positive note, the authors note that this lack of materials might actually turn out to be an advantage for the future of CLIL, since educators and researchers can now *critically reflect* on the best way to go forth with diversity-sensitive teaching. Students can also be utilized by the teachers and help in the design of materials using authentic resources and creating their own products.

When it came to assessment, it should be noted that, on the whole, assessment in German CLIL is predominantly formative and final grades are based on in-class performance and, in this particular study, no summative observation was dealt with. Regarding this block, the students and teachers are in the most disagreement and in general, it was overall the most negatively viewed block. Teachers believe they are adapting and varying assessment criteria, but students disagree. Similarly, the teachers are confident they are offering more detailed guidelines as a way to cater to diversity but the students do not agree. And, finally, teachers see more personalized and regular feedback taking place but students do not agree. However, the perceptions of the students and teachers align on two points: no differentiated homework is assigned and self-assessment is used in the CLIL classroom. The latter was noted by both to be used routinely and contribute positively to students' performances. The teacher observed also mentioned that they regularly personally assessed the students and gave continual feedback on how they were doing and how to improve, all with a view to foment more autonomy in the students. The researchers note that there is copious research to be done in this area, especially considering the unity of content and language and the simultaneous evaluation of this, which at the moment is not completely explained.

The main take-aways from the study are five-fold: first, language and content scaffolding is affirmed to the highest degree by both cohorts as being used the most; student-centered learning is taking place, although teachers believe they are using a more diverse repertoire of methods than students see taking place; there is a conspicuous lack of differentiated materials and resources and teachers are dedicating a significant amount of time to the preparation of materials; the use of ICT and availability of ICT-related materials is a point of complication to quality implementation of CLIL in this context, in line with Siepmann and Pérez Cañado (2022), digital resources are how many teachers across Europe are catering to diversity, and their use in

the classroom “greatly enhances the opportunities for individualized, differentiated learning processes that make CLIL more accessible to learners of all abilities” (p. 219). Finally, in this particular context, assessment is in needs of bolstering, especially considering measures that must be taken to fully and correctly cater to diverse students. The authors (2023) consider this to be a reliable and valid grassroots characterization of CLIL in the German context, and although students’ responses are questioned for their validity, due to possibly distorted perceptions, they are mostly uniform, as are the teachers’, which has led to a multi-perspective view on CLIL in this country.

Moving north, Nikula et al. (2023) present findings from the ADiBE study in Finland, to discover how diversity is viewed and experienced by students and teachers, in a bid to get factual, practical evidence from the stakeholders. The researchers found that as a recurrent theme, equality was favored over equity. The practitioners expressed a sentiment of CLIL being self-selecting, in that most of their CLIL students were homogeneous, and therefore, there was not much diversity within the CLIL classroom, as the students who had opted to join were highly motivated, academic students. The main point of differentiation and diversity that came to light was regarding the L1 (Finnish), which was taken into account and differentiated for in the classroom, mainly when it came to assessment procedures. The teachers in this study did not have a very inherent understanding of scaffolding and differentiation, and did not attest to using diversity measures in the classroom if they had not been fully planned for beforehand; thus, spontaneous or sporadic help in the classroom was not accounted for. Similarly, some of the strategies were not seen by the teachers as differentiation, such as individualized help.

Regarding the equality over equity sentiment, the teachers in this study were very concerned with making sure all students were being treated the same, and assessing the students with the same criteria, as dictated by Finnish education regulations. The teachers in the study used the principle of equality, and felt it constituted part of Finland’s “educational culture, its overarching ethos of equality being clearly familiar discourse to the participants” (idem, 2023, p. 11). As for inclusive education practices, the teachers in the study were deemed to be very knowledgeable and well-versed in this topic; however, it was such “an inherent part of their pedagogical work” (p. 11) that the teachers did not always explicitly acknowledge it. In short, teachers “did not readily topicalize student diversity, at least not in terms of practices of overt differentiation that would highlight differences between students” (p. 11).

As for the CLIL program working to self-select, the teachers believed that CLIL worked to give students a feeling of prestige, and those that chose to enroll in the CLIL course were held to higher standards: “there thus seem to be expectations among teachers and students that homogenize natural student diversity towards an ideal CLIL student who is smart, independent and has good self-regulation skills” (idem, 2023, p. 12).

As for the students, they held the same sentiment as the teachers regarding diversity. The students saw that adaptation and support systems were offered to mainstream students, and even though CLIL students had access to different types of support, they were generally not proactively offered this nor informed of how to gain access to such, since, as CLIL students, they were seen as being more homogeneous in their needs. The only exception was the L1, for which students did see adaptation taking place, as confirmed by the teachers. The students themselves thought the CLIL classes were harder, and believed they were being held to a higher standard, expressing the sentiment that they might have been able to achieve a higher grade with lower effort in the non-CLIL classroom.

Linguistically, the teachers and students saw diversity as a challenge, for both learning and teaching, as there was a reasonable deal of linguistic heterogeneity in the classroom, with various L1s being present in the CLIL classroom, which was readily acknowledged by both teachers and students. This type of diversity was recognized as being taken into account for mainly in the non-CLIL classrooms, with individualized tests being administered to learners with little to no Finnish knowledge.

Content-wise, the teachers were not as quick to acknowledge different levels of students' knowledge in the content-subject. The interviews conducted with the teachers "communicate quite strongly an overall ethos of there being no or only little diversity in CLI students' academic skills" (idem, 2023, p. 6). As for the students, they explicitly accepted the existence of different learning styles and pacts. However, they also resonated with the fact that some learners overall did better than others. When it came to remedial or adaptation practices, while the CLIL-stream students were entitled to remedial teaching and support services, it was revealed that they did not usually capitalize on this, due to the overall belief that CLIL students seem to be academically well-off students. The CLIL students "were rather portrayed as a selected group and their needs for support as minor in comparison to students in the more heterogeneous mainstream classes" (idem, 2023, p. 6). This was credited to the fact that the support system is not a familiar topic for CLIL teachers and students, and the "limited special education resources" were destined for non-CLIL students. Perhaps due to this overall view of diversity not being featured among CLIL students in academic skills, the teachers emphasized treating all students in the same way in order not to draw attention to possible differences". As one teacher commented, "I don't want that gap appearing in my classroom" (idem, 2023, p. 7).

For differentiation methodology, the equality-over-equity was a recurring theme, as all homework, teaching materials, tasks and assessment were the same for all students, except for those with mother tongues other than Finnish. The students seemed to believe disparity in content knowledge "might be greater and more common than the teachers think" (idem, 2023, p. 7). When it came to practices in the classroom, the students did not see these as taking place

as often, which the author says might be related to a desire not to draw emphasis or attention to students in need. Also relevant was the understanding, or misunderstanding, of what constituted remedial strategies or differentiation practices, as teachers did not recognize spontaneous or “naturally occurring emergent” support as differentiation, and only saw it for its delineated definition as “pre-planned, documented and organized according to the three-tiered support system in Finnish education” (idem, 2023, p. 12). However, homework was determined to be used to differentiation; even though all students were given the same tasks, basic ones were given to all, whereas the more challenging tasks were optional, for students who were willing and able to do them. This is seen by the authors to be a point of inflection, as homework can be used in this way as a differentiation strategy, involving “student agency in the form of choice: giving the same core tasks for everybody leaves an option for students to decide which ones to complete” (idem, 2023, p. 11, in line with Roiha, 2014). However, it is important to note that the authors (Nikula et al., 2023) point out that this differentiation seems to be working only in one direction, with the overachievers, and not with the underachievers, as it was determined by both teachers and students that the teachers were more overtly aware of the overachievers, and catered to students in an upward fashion. Heterogeneous groupings and individual support were widely used to avoid gaps between learners. As for the groupings, there were some issues: students did not see this as being potentially effective for them nor did they enjoy the unequal distribution of work, as well as “distinct negative perceptions of ability-level groupings from social and emotional perspectives as this kind of categorization makes ability differences visible for others” (idem, 2023, p. 9).

The authors (2023) found important discrepancies between stakeholder perceptions, mainly the identification of what constitutes as attention to diversity. The authors noted that there were practices taking place that attended to diversity without a doubt “even if the participants do not necessarily frame it in those terms and not as CLIL-specific. The findings also reveal some tensions between teachers’ and students’ perceptions on the success of classroom practices for the needs of diverse learners” (p. 9). The most common differentiation strategy relied on by teachers was individualized support during group work.

In Italy, Ting (2023) carried out a study aimed to gauge stakeholder perceptions embedded within the ADiBE “CLIL for All” project regarding certain aspects of the bilingual program such as linguistic aspects, groupings, teacher training and curriculum through the use of questionnaires and interviews. Students in this particular environment were aware of their advantageous position in being able to afford CLIL courses, as the classes implicated in the study were private and thus, quite exclusive. The students were critical of their teachers’ preparation, notably, there were no native-speaking English content teachers, which is what the students said they would have preferred. The students also believed the teachers were not aware of the diversity within the classroom, and were not taking advantage of students’ particular skill sets.

The author herself (2023) was critical of the study since she alludes to the fact that *one-off* interviews are not sufficient to paint a true representation of methodological practices.

Within Spain, Ramón Ramos (2023) looked into stakeholder perceptions by issuing the ADiBE questionnaires to teachers, students, and parents in Valencia for a large qualitative study featuring over 300 participants. The questionnaires, as pertinent to the ADiBE scheme, dealt with the six critical aspects of the bilingual program, which gleaned interesting perspectives from the three stakeholders. For the first block, linguistic aspects, the three stakeholders believed it to be a challenge to teach or learn in classes with both linguistic and content diversity present. As for the use of the L1, the students saw this being used while the parents and teachers did not. As for the communicative competence of the teacher, all three stakeholders were confident in their teachers' L2 use. When it came to methodology and groupings, the three cohorts were also very aligned in their responses, seeing varied methodologies, student-centered methodologies, individualized attention, and peer assistance strategies, although teachers were the most positive in this sense. A few of these aspects, such as the use of multiple intelligences theory, task-based approaches, varied classroom layouts, and newcomer classes are not agreed upon, and perspectives vary.

The materials used in class is another point of inflection from this study (idem, 2023) as the teachers are the most positive in this respect, seeing the use of authentic, adapted, or unique materials created by themselves being used in their CLIL classes. However, the parents and students did not see these being used as much, although all three agreed that visual textual support was being utilized. As for the inclusion of ICTs, all three cohorts agree this to be capitalized on in the classroom.

Assessment was a point of dissimilarity between the cohorts: the students were much more pessimistic in their perception of this aspect of the CLIL program, whereas the parents were more positive and the teachers were the most positive. The only items that were completely negated by the three cohorts affected the adaptation of vocabulary on exams (not seen to take place) and the use of different versions of tests (also not seen to be present). For the students, only two points were reflected upon positively: that their results in the subject had improved through the use of CLIL methodology, and the fact that teachers were tracking their individual progress in the subject. Parents and teachers agreed on almost all items in this block, positively evaluating them all, except for the adaptation of classroom activities and homework (parents did not see these curricular modifications happening, but teachers affirmed they did).

Finally, regarding teacher training and preparation, the students were once again the most cynical, although they did judge positively their teachers' preparation in language and content-subject. However, they saw no coordination taking place, little collaboration with their

parents and no support system accessible to them. This diverges from the parents and teachers, who did see collaboration on many levels taking place, although the parents did not see parental involvement taking place as much as the teachers did. The teachers and parents are quite satisfied with their level of preparation, and the teachers themselves do not deem it necessary for them to receive further training in all areas, although linguistic scaffolding, classroom arrangements, student-centered approaches, and how to access materials were seen by the teachers as needing bolstering.

The researcher (2023) also discovered within-cohort differences as related to the students, based on the variable of SES. The lower-SES students valued more positively many aspects on the questionnaire than their higher-SES counterparts: they saw more strategies taking place in the classroom, more adapted activities, more differentiated and inclusive assessment practices, as well as more positively valuing the existence of multi-professional teams and the support they receive in the CLIL program. The only item that was more positively reflected upon by the higher-SES students was related to parental involvement: they saw this happening more so than their lower-SES peers. Thus, the author (2023) contends that we can infer that the more disadvantaged a student is related to SES and social standing, the "more acutely aware of the different measures set in place to cater for diversity in CLIL", since the author proposes "schools in these contexts make an extra effort to ensure bilingual education works equally well with diverse types of students" (idem, 2023, p. 1104). However, the author, like others (e.g. Siepmann et al. 2023) cautions that students and parents might not be entirely objective in their responses, as they might be biased and subjective.

Major takeaways from the ADiBE project thus far include nation-to-nation perspectives from the six participating countries, as summarized by San Isidro and Pérez Cañado (2023). As for being teacher-led, four of the countries have more of a tendency to see the teachers take a leading role: Spain, Italy, Finland, and the UK. Focusing on more specific country particulars, education in Spain is, in general, more teacher-led, has more instances of scaffolding, varies classroom layouts quite a bit, offers newcomer classes to students, and counts on the support of guidance counsellors and multi-professional teams, more positive findings than when compared to the German and Austrian contexts, which, in general, sees less scaffolding taking place, less classroom layout variety and fewer instances of newcomer classes being offered. Thus, the previously mentioned authors (2023) conclude that, from the research done on students' perspectives thus far,

it appears that Spain is more invested in diversity-sensitive teaching, perhaps precisely because mainstreaming of bilingual education is increasingly the norm in this country and, consequently, setting in place techniques to ensure CLIL works with over- and under- achievers alike becomes a *sine qua non* for bilingual education to prosper (p. 277).

3.6.4. Future research needs

Although abundant, most of the completed studies that have been carried out have been geared towards a relatively limited scope, mainly featuring the effects of CLIL and target LL, leaving considerable research to be done in several areas: efficiency in the integration of language and content (Cenoz et al., 2014; Morton, 2023); assessment in CLIL (Cenoz et al., 2014; Morton, 2023; Otto, 2018); teacher training schemes (Pérez Cañado, 2016b; Wolff, 2002); studies at the tertiary level (Fortanet-Gómez & Ruiz-Garrido, 2009; Julius & Madrid, 2017; Pérez Cañado, 2012); innovative CLIL methodologies and pedagogies (Coyle, 2007a, 2007b, 2010; Marsh & Wolff, 2007); how the affective factor is affected (Nikula et al., 2013); LL process and use in the classroom (Nikula et al., 2013); duality in CLIL (Nikula et al., 2013); singling out individual learner variables that affect learning (Cenoz et al., 2014; Dalton-Puffer et al., 2014; Oxbrow, 2018; Pérez Cañado, 2018a); repetition (Van de Craen et al., 2007); language functions, i.e. BICS and CALP (Dalton-Puffer, 2007b); levels of attainment (Madrid & Pérez Cañado, 2018); school pedagogies for teaching heterogeneous groups (Mikola, 2011); how learner grouping strategies can increase or hinder achievement (Faubert, 2012); multi-contextual studies in diverse settings (Cenoz et al., 2014); how task types and structures are connected with language development (Coonan, 2007), and culture within the CLIL framework (Banegas, 2022; Cross, 2022).

Indisputably, consolidation is needed concerning CLIL research, as emphasized by Nikula et al. (2013), who insist that many researchers have been spending their time investigating the same topic and are simply creating redundant research, when efforts should be focused on how to make CLIL better, and should not be wasted trying to prove what has already been proven. Furthermore, Pérez Cañado (2021b) expounds that materials and resources are in grave need of updating, together with guidelines for Spanish parents.

Undeniably, there stands a rift between theory and practice, as highlighted by Pérez Cañado (2021b), since theoretically CLIL is well-defined, but

These traits have as yet had little practical take-up and what they should look like in practice is still a major niche to be filled. In this sense, as CLIL continue to develop over the next decade, its linguistic, methodological, and organisational traits will also need to be honed, sharpened, and fine-tuned in line with the demands of the contexts where it is being applied (p. 45).

For their part, Bergillos et al. (2007) lament the lack of quality training materials and how this is becoming more of an issue as implementation of CLIL becomes more widespread, stating that materials need to cover theory, putting CLIL into practice, as well as using the L1 for scaffolding linguistic and content points. Several authors (e.g. Cenoz, 2009; Cenoz et al., 2014) agree that a guide of the different formats and variations of CLIL would help in the understanding and implementation. Resounding on this sentiment, Pérez Cañado (2017b) insists these are

needed for an inclusive CLIL implementation: “greater guidelines on CLIL implementation and assistance in the L1 within bilingual materials” are needed “in order to bridge the well-documented gap in socio-economic level” (p. 10). In this same vein, there is an “urgent need for research collaboration between educational linguists and subject educational specialists” (Dalton-Puffer et al. 2014, p. 216, referencing Cenoz et al., 2014). As exposed by recent ADiBE studies, more high-quality materials are needed to cater for diversity properly (Siepmann & Pérez Cañado, 2022).

Teacher training is undeniably another of the most essential areas in need of further research and development. Shepherd and Ainsworth (2017) looked into teacher practices and call for more research in the diversification of methodologies as well as how to facilitate more collaboration between LA and NLA teachers, as well as coordination between L1 and L2 teachers. Under the auspices of training, more research must be done on how multicultural training is taking place, since this, as highlighted by Eurydice (2023), is not a common practice in Europe. The publication (2023) notes that only a little over a fourth of teachers investigated were formally trained in multicultural training during their teacher training studies.

Another major area of research in need of bolstering is the L1 piece of the puzzle (Morton, 2023). In that same vein, research on how L1 competence influences L2 acquisition should become a priority. Regarding mother tongue aptitude, Ganschow et al. (1998) recommend “a comprehensive evaluation procedure” as a way to evaluate students who demonstrate LL problems with the L1, since this has been proven to lead to problems with FLL. The method is four-fold and includes “review of the student’s developmental history; review of his or her academic (native language) learning history; review of the student’s FL learning history; and administration of standardized measures of native language skills (i.e. reading, phonological/orthographic processing, grammar, spelling, writing, vocabulary, oral language) and FL aptitude” (p. 253). This type of research has been scarce, or even non-existent, when comparing a student’s L2 needs based on their L1 ability. And the authors (1998) are adamant that L1 competence has a direct influence on L2 acquisition:

Empirical evidence has been generated to support the positions that FL learning performance is related to native language learning, that poorest FL learners have overt or subtle problems with the phonological/orthographic (and syntactic) components of language, that affective differences are likely to be a consequence of successful or unsuccessful FL learning [...] (pp. 253-254).

Furthermore, there has been, since the beginning of CLIL, a need for more research on how CLIL works with diverse learners. Wolff (2007a) harmonizes on this point, highlighting the scant research done on mixed-abilities in the classroom and the need to investigate how diverse learners assimilate content and language together. Despite lack of empirical evidence, many authors promoted CLIL, in its beginnings, based on its inclusive nature. In Marsh (2002), there

are various mentions of CLIL being an inclusive method that can benefit all learners by exposure to the FL; however, none of these claims had, at the time, solid evidence supporting their validity and, as Mehisto (2007) points out, it would be “helpful to work actively to dispel the misconception that the program is not suitable for the average student” (p. 63); delusions fuelled by myths and falsehoods about the CLIL methodology (e.g. lack of clear guidelines) (Marsh, 2002).

However, scepticism and doubts are still present, and numerous authors have warned about attention to diversity in CLIL, or lack thereof, given past findings (Cenoz et al., 2014; Dalton-Puffer et al., 2014; Hughes, 2010; Lorenzo et al., 2009) and, given where research stands, it is clear that many more studies must be conducted in order to fully move forward with a truly inclusive CLIL. UNESCO (2017) sheds light on the fact that, although great strides have been made, “further efforts are needed to minimize barriers to learning and to ensure that all learners in schools and other learning settings experience a genuine inclusive environment” (p. 17). For her part, Oxbrow (2018) expresses the undeniable “need for research into the effectiveness of CLIL programs which attends to diversity and singles out individual learner variables which might have a bearing on successful learning as bilingual programs continue to expand to all types of students” (p. 140). Regarding the assumption that CLIL is only for the academically bright, parents, teachers and students who believe this are under false impressions of what CLIL is. This notion has been dispelled by scientific, research-based evidence, consolidating the truth of what has been researched for the past two decades: CLIL is for all academic levels and social strata.

Most pertinent to this thesis is the topic of diversity, and it is becoming more evident that research must divulge further on this (e.g. Hüttner & Smit, 2014; Julius & Madrid, 2017; Madrid & Pérez Cañado, 2018). As Madrid and Pérez Cañado (2018) acknowledge, more schools are converting their bilingual sections into entire bilingual centers. As such, “catering to diversity, inclusion, and integration must receive greater priority within bilingual education scenarios” (p. 246), and research efforts must be bolstered and geared towards making this a reality. The so-identified *gap* (Pérez Cañado, 2021b) between theory and practice is in desperate need of investigating since the move to fully bilingual schools means the presence of ever diverse students: “it consequently becomes incumbent on practitioners to cater to diversity and to ensure CLIL enhances language and content learning in over- and underachievers alike” (Madrid & Pérez Cañado, 2018, p. 242).

Thus, solid empirical evidence is needed that proves CLIL is a sustainable bilingual education program for all students, including those who are in need to extra attention or tailored measures for whatever reason, intrinsic or extrinsic. Research done up until now has not been done always in sound conditions and has really only scratched the surface:

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED
LEARNING: A QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE STUDY. CHAPTER 3:
RESEARCH IN BILINGUAL EDUCATION

The move to completely bilingual schools means that SEN children, less motivated children, children with varying levels of English and levels of achievement are going to find themselves together in the CLIL classroom. Given pertinent and extensive research, we know that CLIL works, we recognize the advantages and evidence points us to believe that it can close the gap between learners, albeit a statement not yet fully supported by research, but nevertheless, a very promising hypothesis. CLIL can provide students who deserve a quality education, complete with FL provision and the best way to do this is in the content classroom (Marsh, 2013, p. 73).

Madrid and Pérez Cañado (2018) highlight where we need to go with diversity and inclusion research, since “studies are still very much in their infancy and the effects of the pedagogical strategies deployed have not as yet been examined” (p. 246). They maintain that research efforts in the future must determine how CLIL is working with the different achievers in the class, as well as how to create and adapt differentiated materials, implement more sound methodologies, and use evaluation as a quality measure for a more inclusive classroom.

Frankly, catering to diversity is an area of research that has only been shallowly inspected and is in dire need of being investigated more profoundly if CLIL is to be successful especially in Spain, where CLIL programs are opening up to the general student population. In the future, Pérez Cañado (2017b) insists:

Further, fine-grained analyses should be conducted with contextual, cognitive, and affective variation in CLIL. Setting, type of school, SES, motivation, extramural exposure, educational level, or teacher preparation should all be factored in order to glean a deeper insight into whether, how and under what conditions CLIL is truly effective, and which variables need to be addressed in the very near future to keep CLIL implementation on track (p. 10).

After reviewing the preceding research, it can be deduced that what we know about attention to diversity is inadequate, especially since no research conducted has put diversity at the forefront; and no study has examined profoundly the resources, materials, classroom organization, methodologies, or evaluation. From a qualitative standpoint, studies concerned with stakeholders’ perspectives have given rise to attention to diversity being in dire need of addressing. However, the qualitative research aforementioned has only indirectly explored how CLIL is working in diverse social contexts, socioeconomic levels, and types of schools. In addition, quantitatively, no study to date has investigated how CLIL is working with different levels of achievers (over, normal, low) (Pérez Cañado, 2020b), which is precisely the niche this study intends to fill. As Bakken and Brevik (2022) add, it is important that the role that CLIL can play to eliminate SES discrepancies and foment social mobility be given priority:

there is a need to look beyond elitism and conduct more research to better understand the role(s) that CLIL programs can play in the education of secondary school students of diverse backgrounds as well as the role of linguistic diversity for individual students (p. 20).

All learner variables must be properly investigated, especially motivation, since, as San Isidro and Pérez Cañado (2023) propose, it is still unknown if it is CLIL that foments students' motivation, and if it is CLIL, what specifically: is it the target language (does the target language also make a difference?), is it the updated methodology, or is it a "combination of factors?" (p. 279). This is in line with thinking from Bakken and Brevik (2022), who state clearly that motivation as a learner variable must be given careful attention to: are students motivated before the join the programs or due to the them? Attention to diversity as the main topic of study must be reinforced since data is needed to properly deduce if all learners are being attended to equally in the CLIL classroom and, if not, what can be done to remedy this. Fernández Sanjurjo et al. (2019) resound on this and call for research specifically regarding CLIL and students with diverse needs. Lastly, educational policies need to be reinforced following evidence from sound research: "leaders at all levels need to establish the conditions within their organizations for challenging non-inclusive, discriminatory, and inequitable educational practices" (UNESCO, 2017, p. 26).

Finally, Morton (2023) draws our attention to deficit CLIL areas of research that have been looked at only superficially, including "the growing strength of the L1 lineage"; how CLIL is affecting literacy in students; the effect of CLIL on content acquisition including "new conceptual tools and rich theories of practice"; and finally, assessment, an area that "has suffered from neglect until recently" (p. 528). As the author proposes, CLIL has "transcended" the traditional FL "lineage" and this new way of seeing CLIL:

broadens its purview to see it as framework for understanding and developing multilingual and multi-semiotic practices to engage students in deeper learning of curriculum content while affirming their multilingual identities. It is a fairly safe prediction that such work will continue to be developed, and any remaining vestiges of CLIL as 'diehard monolingualism' will hopefully fade into the distant past (p. 528).

The next section will examine a particular country Spain, figuring as the location of this study, including a background on FLL in the country, education laws, government policies, the curious makeup of the country (bilingual and monolingual regions), and finally, an in-depth scrutiny of CLIL in Andalusia alongside the regional legislation for FLL will be presented.

3.7. Spain

3.7.1. Introduction

As previously explained, FLT fluctuates greatly from country to country, given that each nation a unique history and makeup of students. Therefore, one country in Europe may be doing something that works for its citizens, but which might prove to be ineffective for citizens elsewhere (Coyle, 2007b; Lasagabaster, 2008; Pérez Cañado, 2012). Regarding LL in Spain, this

country has been widely imposing CLIL after regularly receiving insufficient marks on the Eurobarometer (Lancaster, 2016).

This country, per data taken from the EPI (2020), sees the large majority (86%) of its population having direct access to internet, an average of just below 10 years of schooling per citizen, and a population slightly above 50,000,000. Structurally speaking, Spain uses a decentralized state system which gives power to each Autonomous Community and allows them to self-govern. Thus, analyzing Spain as a country pedagogically poses challenges due to this process of decentralization (INEE, 2016):

The Spanish education system, based on a deeply decentralized structure, and having the ultimate responsibility of good practice in the use and effectiveness of resources focusing on the schools themselves, exhibits a certain level of complexity in terms of obtaining a set of detailed data (p. 16).

Educationally, management of these territories is carried out on two levels: *nationally*, through the Ministry of Education, Culture and Sport (which focuses mainly on legal regulations, standardization of academic qualifications, state inspections and is responsible for public education funding); and *regionally*, whereby the Autonomous Communities have their own governments, the Education Authorities, which are responsible for the management of education in their own community, although they must adhere to the framework of the legal regulations established by the Ministry of Education, Culture and Sport at the national level, but may adapt them as they see fit for their own community (INEE, 2016). More recently, Granados and Lorenzo (2022) compared the policies of two monolingual regions, Madrid and Andalusia, finding that screening procedures such as language requirements or enrollment in previous CLIL programs exist in the former, whereas selection criteria in the latter are based on parental decision, making the programs in this autonomous community self-selective, due to judgement on behalf of the parents, and there are no requirements related to language proficiency or previous experience in a bilingual program.

Furthering CLIL's uniqueness in Spain is the fact that the country is made up of 17 distinct regions, plus the two autonomous cities of Ceuta and Melilla, each with the power to manipulate the education system based on regional needs. That being said, no two regional education guidelines in the country are the same. Another peculiar feature of the country is the existence, or not, of co-official or regional languages, a conspicuous contrast gleaned when comparing autonomous regions, and paving the way for an extremely diverse FLT environment, stemming from a complex and long history with languages in some regions and a complete lack thereof in others: some communities enjoy co-official languages and generally score higher in language proficiency rankings, whereas others suffer from a completely monolingual environment and are notorious for poor LL outcomes. Specifically, in Spain, Eurydice (2023) points out that this country

uses CLIL to teach the native language of Spanish through its literature subject entitled Castilian Spanish Language and Literature (in Spanish, entitled *Lengua Castellana y Literatura*). Within the country, there are also CLIL programs that involve two languages, some of which feature regional languages.

Expanding more on language homogeneity in the country, Spain has one official language, Castilian Spanish, and five regional languages with official status in their particular autonomous communities: Catalan, Valencian, Basque, Galician, and Occitan (Eurydice, 2023). In this country:

The Spanish [language] coexists with other languages in some autonomous communities and shares with them the status of official language. The co-official languages are also languages of schooling. In addition to the languages listed, Asturian, a language that does not have official status, is protected by law. It is taught in primary and general secondary education in the autonomous community of Asturias (Eurydice, 2023, p. 32).

Along those same lines, a little less than half (41%) of the Spanish population live in officially bilingual regions, and, as Lasagabaster (2017) brings to our attention, after the Spanish transition to democracy in the mid- to late- 1970s, the 1978 Spanish Constitution, by which the nation is regulated currently,

stipulates that Spanish is the only official language for the State as whole, it also recognizes the right of regional languages to be co-official in their respective autonomous communities (or regions), that is, six of the 17 that make up Spain: Catalonia, Galicia, the Balearic Islands, Navarre, the Basque Autonomous Community, and the Valencian Community (p. 583).

Due to language diversity in the country, regarding languages other than Spanish and the various regional languages previously mentioned, Spain's population is much more heterogeneous than that of Europe (Eurydice, 2023). Whereas almost 90% of 15-year-olds in Europe speak the language of schooling (the L1 of schooling), Spain sees nearly double the number of its 15-year-old students speaking a different language at home than the language they are schooled in: 20.6% (idem, 2023). Compared with the rest of Europe, this the third highest percentage, only preceded by Belgium (24.1%) and Cyprus (22.3%). As heralded by Halbach and Iwaniec (2022), "CLIL can be considered a mainstream educational approach" in Spain since it is so widespread (p. 1610).

Pérez Cañado (2021a) confirms that this pedagogy is unique in this country for two reasons: the diversity of models pertaining to the different regions where it is used (owing to the decentralization policy of Spain) and the disparity between monolingual and bilingual application of CLIL. She (2021a) expands on this:

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED
LEARNING: A QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE STUDY. CHAPTER 3:
RESEARCH IN BILINGUAL EDUCATION

Dual-focused education has been developed in Spain with both second (co-official) and foreign (other European) languages, and in both bilingual communities where English is the third language taught in CLIL (The Basque Country, Catalonia, Valencia, the Balearic Islands, Galicia) and in monolingual communities conspicuous for their lack of tradition in foreign language teaching (e.g. Extremadura, Castile-La Mancha, or Andalusia) (p. 5).

Remarkably, Spain is cashing in on its peculiarities and is quickly becoming one of the primary frontrunners in CLIL investigation (Coyle, 2010) due to the lush cultural and linguistic environment, coupled with unique government policies, setting the scene for a “wide variety of CLIL policies and practices which provide us with many examples of CLIL in different stages of development that are applicable to contexts both within and beyond Spain” (p. viii). Touching upon this, Pérez Cañado (2021a) argues Spain is on its way to becoming a model country for CLIL implementation (Pérez Cañado, 2021a). As for the reasons, Ruiz de Zarobe & Lasagabaster (2010) argue that it is the very atypical makeup of Spain that “can serve as a dynamic and realistic model for other countries wanting to foster foreign language learning” (p. ix). Adding to the conversation are Casas Pedrosa and Rascón Moreno (2023), who delineate that Spain is well on its journey to a satisfactory implementation of CLIL, in all aspects, including diversity and inclusive measures. Graham et al. (2018) also highlight that most of the studies done on measuring the students’ achievement and results (e.g. Lorenzo et al., 2021; Madrid and Barrios, 2018; Pavón Vázquez, 2018; Rascón Moreno & Bretones Callejas, 2018; Shepherd & Ainsworth, 2017) have taken place on Spanish soil.

Other countries look to Spain as a model for bilingual education because of its diverse settings, explain various researchers (e.g. Cinganotto, 2016; Coyle, 2010; Ruiz de Zarobe & Lasagabaster, 2010). Government-funded research in the country is also prevalent, in concrete, two research projects (R&D projects FFI2012-32221 and P12-HUM-2348, the former funded by the Spanish *Ministerio de Economía y Competitividad* and the latter by the *Junta de Andalucía*). The findings of three other research projects have also been synthesized: 2018-ES01-KA201-050356 (funded by the European Union), RTI2018-093390-B-I00 (funded by the Ministerio de Ciencia, Innovación y Universidades), and FFI2014-54179-C2-2-P (funded by the Ministerio de Economía, Industria y Competitividad), which only highlight the previously mentioned interest and investment in CLIL in this country. Finally, the *Erasmus+ KA201 CLIL for All: Attention to Diversity in Bilingual Education* (funded by the European Commission) also features Spain as a prominent country of interest when it comes to CLIL implementation.

As previously fleshed out by the statistics shown on the EPI⁴⁴ (cf. section 3.1.) Spain is in desperate need of FLT and CLIL research, mainly concerning methodology and implementation guidelines, given the fact that, generally speaking, LL has been slower than its other neighboring European counterparts. In a study carried out by the European Commission in 2012, Spain came in at the very bottom, but has been moving its way up, albeit at a slow pace. Regarding LL, there has been widespread implementation of CLIL programs within each autonomous country as a way to try to combat the fact that only a little more than half of the Spanish population can speak another language in addition to their mother tongue and, even worse, less than 20% can converse casually in another language (Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2009).

Spain does not have as much uniform experience with bilingual education as other European countries do; however, both its early incorporation in the Spanish education system (in the 2000s) and early implementation in Spanish classrooms (Primary education) show the positive direction in which bilingual education is headed here. Furthermore, Spain has spent a particularly great deal of time and money on CLIL research and development within the European context, as noted by Lasagabaster and Ruiz de Zarobe (2010) and Nikula et al. (2013). However, as Eurydice (2023) notes, in this country, "learning two foreign languages is never a requirement for all students" (p. 21). Spain allots many hours to LL, topping the charts with six other countries at over 69 hours in the Primary education cycle (along with Belgium, Greece, Italy, Luxembourg, and Malta). Foreign language teaching instruction has doubled in these past few years, jumping from 10 to 20% (Eurydice, 2023).

Per Pérez Cañado (2021a), LL in Spain, or deficiency thereof in some communities "can be traced back to the lack of teaching tradition and social concern for language education", which she says, is visible in official legislation regulating FLT (p. 4). In its beginnings in Spain, FLL was mostly found in the optional levels of Secondary (Baccalaureate) and French, as the L2 was the norm, taught with traditional methodology. However, since the General Education Law of 1970 (LGE acronym in Spanish: *Ley General de Educación*), FLT has been increasingly gaining momentum and importance, as well as slowly but steadily becoming implemented on a nationwide level in lower grades. The author notes that with the LGE, FLL was introduced at the beginning of Secondary education (11-12 years of age) and in 1990, with the Organic Law of The General Education System (LOGSE acronym in Spanish: *Ley Organica General del Sistema Educativo*), FLs were introduced to students at the age of six (the commencement of Primary compulsory education). Twelve years later in 2002, the Organic Law of Quality Education (LOCE acronym in Spanish: *Ley Orgánica de Calidad de la Educación*) moved FL instruction to the second cycle of

⁴⁴ English Proficiency Index (<https://www.ef.com/wwen/epi/regions/europe/spain/>).

Infant education and, in 2006, the Organic Law of Education (LOE acronym in Spanish: *Ley Orgánica de Educación*) gave students access to a second, optional, FL in the third cycle of Primary education. Moreover, the author (2021a) notes: “under the auspices of the 2006 LOE, which rewards instruction in the foreign language in bilingual centres, an increasing number of CLIL projects and programs fostering innovative education methods have been incorporated across the country” (p. 4). Most recently, the creation of the Organic Law for Improved Quality Education (LOMCE acronym in Spanish: *Ley Orgánica para la Mejora de la Calidad Educativa*) in 2013 and the Organic Law for the Modification of the Law of Education of 2006 (LOMLOE Spanish acronym: *Ley Orgánica por la que se modifica la Ley Orgánica 2006*) in 2021 prove that bilingual education is moving in the right direction in the country and “all regional educational authorities are now endorsing plurilingual policies” (idem, p. 4). Eurydice (2023) waxes more on the pace of LL in Spain, referring to it as fast paced and “relatively stable”, given the government’s decision to consistently enroll large numbers of Primary education students in CLIL courses year after year (p. 21).

According to Pérez Cañado (2021a) there are nine official CLIL initiatives worth mentioning when it comes to looking at the history of BE in Spain and the trajectory of CLIL:

- The Spanish Ministry and British Council Project
- Linguistic Immersion Program
- Support Program for the Teaching and Learning of FLs (PALE)
- European Classrooms
- Innovative Linguistic Projects in Schools (PILC)
- English Through Content (ETC)
- European Sections / Bilingual Sections
- Bilingual Project
- Strategy Plan for the Development of Languages.

3.7.2. Education in Spain

There are four basic stages in the Spanish education system: compulsory Primary education (CPE) for students aged six to 11 or 12 years of age followed by Compulsory Secondary education (12 through 16 years of age), followed by optional upper Secondary, which includes Baccalaureate or professional training, finalizing with tertiary education (INEE, 2016). Due to the fact that mandatory schooling begins at age six and finishes at 16 years of age, in recent years the government has been pushing for initiatives to help increase enrollment levels for children at the Pre-Primary level, starting at the age of three, by guaranteeing all children have placements in schools, free of charge (idem, 2016). Similarly, to increase enrollment levels past the compulsory age with a view to foment tertiary education participation rates, the government has

increased the Baccalaureate offerings as well as allowing students to continue their bilingual education past secondary schooling.

Like Germany and Belgium, Spain's autonomous communities are "either wholly responsible or share responsibilities with the national level for all or most areas relating to education". As such, the autonomous communities are considered the "top-level authority", as they usually have the final word on education policies and this explains why there is such diversity in the education system within the country (Eurydice, 2023, p. 151). The facets in which CLIL methodology can vary are numerous, but to name a few, Arribas (2016) delineates teachers' FL competence level requirement; teachers' educational training requirements; language learning objectives for the students; and number of hours in CLIL.

As previously mentioned, CLIL in Spain is distinct for four different reasons, according to Cinganotto (2016): the diverse models and regions; the decentralization of the education system; wide variation in program implementation; and the fact that there are no national education initiatives, only regional policies. Lasagabaster and Ruiz de Zarobe (2010) highlight that differences in the CLIL programs throughout the nation outnumber the similarities, which can vary according to hours taught in the FL, amount of content taught, language level established for teachers/students, and experience with bilingual/CLIL programs, given the contrasts between the bilingual and monolingual communities. This is precisely why "drawing an uncomplicated, homogeneous picture of CLIL policy in Spain is an impossibility" (idem, 2010, p. 284).

For their part, Fernández Sanjurjo et al. (2019) comment how Spanish schools have flourished under CLIL implementation, crediting the large amount of research that has been accrued: CLIL schemes "[...] have proliferated in the last two decades on the basis of the language, cultural, and cognitive benefits reported by research" (p. 1, referencing several well-known studies e.g. Casal & Moore 2009; Cenoz, 2015; Coyle, 2002; Halbach, 2008; Lasagabaster & Ruiz de Zarobe, 2010; Madrid & Hughes, 2011). The same authors (2019) note that CLIL usually arises from both "reactive" and "proactive" situations, the former being environments with poor FL competence and the latter being "situations that reinforce plurilingualism" (p. 1). Both of these happen in Spain, for example in the bilingual communities where CLIL is utilized "for the promotion of trilingualism", a *proactive* situation, as contrasted with the general FL competence level in the Spanish population, a *reactive* situation (idem, p. 1).

The authors (2019) suggest there is, at present, a "social need" to better LL in Spain, after consistently being branded as one of Spain's major flaws when it comes to the education of its citizens: "Spain consistently lags behind other European member states in the command of foreign languages" (p. 2, referencing Eurydice, 2012). In that same vein, only a handful of

autonomous community require English LL as a compulsory subject: Valencia, La Rioja, and Castile-La Mancha (Eurydice, 2023).

3.7.3. Government policies

When it comes to policy-making in Spain, the education system is subject to various bodies of authority. Put forth by Ruiz de Zarobe and Lasagabaster (2010), each autonomous region regulates the nation-wide Law of Education, adapting it to meet the needs of their particular community. This allows them to have almost absolute power to control the education system as they see fit for the people of their community. Thus, it can be easily deduced why “no single blueprint exists” (p. ix) and the reality is no two CLIL programs are the same and the only common denominator between them is the target language, which in the vast majority is English (Pérez Cañado, 2012).

In 2013, the Constitutional Law for the Improvement of Quality in Education (LOMCE) was created as an attempt to update the Spanish educational system, following the LOE and previous LOGSE. In this law, several measures are put forth, as well as problems in need of addressing (INEE, 2016, p. 17):

- To rationally develop an inclusive education model that is able to individually address each child with difficulties.
- Increase the low levels of qualification for Spanish students at the compulsory levels
- Reduce excessive early school abandonment.
- Improve the educational use of ICT.
- Increase school funding.
- Adapt professional qualifications to the production system.
- Improve the training of the adult population.
- The adaptation of teacher training to new educational demands.
- Reduce educational programmes in a restrictive general framework in terms of resources.

The LOMCE was created with a view to address major issues in education with the provision of four solutions (INEE, 2016):

- Improve the choice of educational paths so as to reduce school failure and early school dropout rates which were markedly high.
- Include dual school-business training so as to modernize Professional Training.
- Introduce new national assessments both during and at the end of Primary Education.
- Foment teacher training schemes and prioritize them as essential to any education system.

Most recently, the new national education law LOMLOE, which came into practice in 2021, goes a step further and gives specific steps that will be taken in the span of a decade to close the gap between students that are usually marginalized, discriminated and at risk of receiving a lower quality education⁴⁵. In Spain, students begin learning a FL at a young age, which is becoming the norm across Europe (Eurydice, 2023). Compulsory FLL has also increased drastically, and the majority of education systems in Europe have jumped from one to seven years of mandatory FLL for their citizens, by beginning FLL at an earlier age, thus, responding positively to the request that EU countries begin “teaching at least two foreign languages from a very early age” (Eurydice, 2023, p. 20). CLIL teachers in Spain have progressively been demanded more of, when it comes to demonstrating, formally, language competence in the FL (e.g. the capital Madrid, which has recently increased the requirement for teachers to participate in the bilingual program from a B2 to a C1), and now, it is becoming more likely to see some autonomous communities beginning to require formal training in CLIL pedagogy (Eurydice, 2023), a practice which is also becoming routine in other European countries (already a requirement in France, for example) (idem, 2023).

As previously mentioned, within Spain, there is variance between CLIL methodology and implementation, as Navarro Pablo and García Jiménez (2018) put forth, mainly concerning entry requirements into the program via FL accreditation minimums or overall academic performance cut-offs. Arribas (2016) also chimes in, adding several other points where CLIL differentiates around Spain: teachers’ FL competence level requirement; teachers’ educational training requirements; language learning objectives for the students; and number of hours of CLIL embedded in the curriculum.

Albeit different, government policies in Spain are similarly conducive towards including CLIL in all schools and for all students. As Madrid and Pérez Cañado (2018) highlight, there is a new milieu regarding CLIL gaining traction in Spain, which is currently seeing schools changing from offering optional CLIL sections, to becoming complete bilingual centers. As a result of these policies, the number of students in CLIL classrooms is augmenting drastically every year and shows that FLT in Spain is moving in the right direction, by giving more students the opportunity to experience quality language education in the form of CLIL.

⁴⁵ Cf. section 2.3.3 for current legislation in Spain.

A closer look will now be given to the distinct make-up of Spain as a country, including the two types of different regions (bilingual and monolingual) followed by a more detailed account of one Autonomous Community in particular, Andalusia, where this study is based.

3.7.4. Communities in Spain

The makeup of Spain is diverse and disparities abound regarding LL on the peninsula, as previously distinguished. For example, there are communities where English is the L3 and is taught through CLIL, juxtaposed with other communities which are just beginning to get acclimated to bilingual education (Cinganotto, 2016).

Another cause for concern regarding bilingual education, or CLIL, implementation in Spain is the disparity between streaming and non-streaming in certain communities, which can lead to misconceptions and falsehoods since some regions do still promote streaming and exclusivity in CLIL programs. As previously mentioned, in two monolingual regions for example, researched by Granados and Lorenzo (2022) streaming practices were found to be in place in Madrid, whereas Andalusia's CLIL programs were found to be open to all students at the discretion of the parents.

As for Spain, in some cases, both segregation and attention to diversity issues are sometimes closely associated with the establishment of different admission criteria in the various regions. The reason for this is that, although there are specific legal documents dealing with these topics published by the central government, the regions in Spain are (to a certain extent) in charge of certain education matters, including not only attention to diversity, but also CLIL, among many others (Casas Pedrosa & Rascón Moreno, 2023, p. 5).

It is in the beginnings of CLIL, when limited resources and funding led to exclusive CLIL practices and streaming, when criticism from Bruton (2013, 2015) or Paran (2013) stems and where misconceptions have arisen concerning the notion that bilingual education is only for academically gifted children (Casas Pedrosa & Rascón Moreno, 2023) and not apt for children with problems or neurodivergences (e.g. Marinova-Todd et al., 2016).

As previously mentioned, this culturally-rich country is made up of 17 communities (Andalusia, Aragon, Asturias, Balearic Islands, The Basque Country, Canary Islands, Catalonia, Cantabria, Castile and Leon, Castile-La Mancha, Extremadura, Galicia, La Rioja, Community of Madrid, Murcia, Navarre, and Valencia) some of which are bilingual/multilingual or completely monolingual. In the former, students are taught Spanish in addition to the region's native language (i.e. Catalan in Catalonia), as well as an additional one or two FLs such as French, German, or English. Palpably, these types of communities have more honed experience in FLT, benefitting from clearer guidelines on instruction policies, regarding the number of subjects taught in a FL, the number of hours of exposure, and language levels for both instructors and

students. Fortunately, these years of experience have given researchers much insight into how bilingual education functions.

On the contrary, the latter (monolingual communities) have much less experience with FLT and FLL, owing to the history of LL and nonexistence of extramural exposure to the target language (Lancaster, 2016). Consequently, FL instruction in these communities has been slower to get off the ground.

The introduction of FLs in students' education is another point of divergence in the type of autonomous community, as there is also a discrepancy in the age when students are first introduced to a FL: in some parts of the country, students begin studying two FLs at age six, at which point the L2 and L3 become compulsory. However, Andalusia and Canary Islands for example, have increased this to age 10 and other autonomous communities, Galicia and the Basque country, do not require two FLs in students' studies until the beginning of Secondary education, around age 12 (Eurydice, 2023).

3.7.4.1. Bilingual communities

There are five communities in Spain with tradition in FLT, mainly due to the fact that these regions have a separate dialect of Spanish in addition to Castilian Spanish: The Balearic Islands, The Basque Country, Catalonia, Galicia, and Valencia. The history of these communities' languages is rich, with localism and nationalism playing a big role in keeping their regional identities intact with the national identity. In addition, most of these communities' borders share a close proximity with another country, a particularity which undoubtedly lends itself to the enhancement of language skills in the community.

Tracing back the beginnings of CLIL in Spain, they can be found in the bilingual communities. Arnau and Artigal (1997) reveal important research from Catalan schools which exhibited that language programs were "successful in order to demand to real command of the language", as opposed to when the language was simply a subject given three hours a week (p. 5). The results showed that bilingual programs were needed and, successful. These bilingual regions have been using this methodology and have supported CLIL, "substantiating their potential in light of encouraging research outcomes stemming from over 20 years of investigation on related issues" (Lancaster, 2016, p. 146).

Focusing on the Basque Country and Catalonia, two communities which have a long history with complicated and controversial LL, they have been attempting for decades to pass new Statutes of Autonomy as related the teaching and learning of their regional languages, which have been a constant point of strain between the central and regional governments: "The enduring and unresolved tensions have generated heated conflict at both the State and the

autonomous community level, a thorny political situation that has undoubtedly had a bearing on language attitudes and language learning motivation” (Lasagabaster, 2017, p. 583). This heightened pressure on minority languages is what makes the bilingual communities unique and the “linguistic repression” throughout the years, in a bid to supersede the regional languages with the national language of Castilian Spanish as part of the “nation-building project in order to maintain national unity and strengthen the sense of being veritably Spanish” (p. 583), referring to the dictatorship that spanned close to four decades which has, ultimately,

fuelled a sense of resistance and a close tie between language and identity, which has led to a situation in which language issues still spark spirited and acrimonious social debates. With the advent of democracy, normalization processes were stimulated with a view to revitalizing Basque, Catalan, and Galician in their respective communities after centuries of decline (idem, 2017, p. 583).

Thus, the bilingual regions have given close attention to their bilingual education methodologies in the past few decades, to keep their regional and/or minority languages alive, in a way that allows that particular population of the community to live in a very natural bilingual environment from an early age (Lasagabaster, 2017, p. 585). This is summarized by the same author, who concludes: “minority languages have traditionally been valued for their role concerning identity and solidarity issues, but for many years their status has been upstaged by Spanish” (idem, 2017, p. 585).

The bilingual communities have made strides in their trailblazing research on bilingual education. Within the past decade, important research has given us important insights that have helped shed light on the interworking of the CLIL program. Lasagabaster (2015) looked into the various educational approaches in bilingual regions and their effect on language learner attitudes. The same author (2017) also investigated students’ use of the L1 and L2 in CLIL classrooms. Lasagabaster and Doiz (2017) carried out a study on the impact of CLIL on affect filters whereas Lasagabaster et al. (2014) researched the variable of motivation on FLL. Ruiz de Zarobe (2017) looked into language awareness within the CLIL program. San Isidro has researched CLIL programs in Galicia (e.g. San Isidro, 2009, 2010) and recently, Ramón Ramos (2023) has looked into stakeholder perspectives in Valencia.

3.7.4.2. Monolingual communities

Contrasted with the bilingual communities, the remaining 12 regions are considered to be monolingual (Andalusia, Aragon, Asturias, Cantabria, Castile-La Mancha, Castile-Leon, Canary Islands, Extremadura, La Rioja, Madrid, Murcia, and Navarre) and feature Spanish as the only official language. Of these, only five are implementing CLIL on a wide scale: Andalusia, Castile-La Mancha, Extremadura, La Rioja, and the autonomous region of Madrid. The fact stands that

in these communities, in stark contrast to the bilingual communities, it is more of a challenge to learn a FL given scarce extramural exposure, and, furthermore, as Lancaster (2016) underlines, the monolingual communities do not have nearly as much tradition in LL.

Regarding the key researchers and their findings in the monolingual autonomous communities there are quite a few: Alejo and Piquer (Extremadura), Fernández Sanjurjo (Asturias), Oxbrow (Canary Islands), Nieto Moreno de Diezmas (Castile-La Mancha), and several from Andalusia: Lancaster, Pérez Cañado, Pavón Vázquez, and Navarro Pablo.

In Andalusia, pioneering research has been carried out by Lancaster (2016, 2018) related to student perspectives related to CLIL and researching the influence of input-related variables, specifically extramural exposure to English and its effect on language attainment. Pérez Cañado has been spearheading research projects and studies into the workings of CLIL in this region, including (2016a) preparation and perspectives of teachers in Spain and Europe, (2016b), teacher training needs, (2018a) a longitudinal study on the impact of CLIL on language and subject attainment, (2018b) pedagogical aspects of the CLIL program, (2018e), the effects of CLIL on L1 and content mastery, and (2023) a study comparing inclusive practices within European CLIL programs. Recently, Granados and Lorenzo (2022) carried out an investigative study into the history and current standing of LL in two monolingual regions: Madrid and Andalusia, as a way to compare the two and how they compare in their offering and maintenance of the bilingual program. Pavón Vázquez (2018) has researched outcomes between rural and urban contexts, whereas Pavón Vázquez and Ramos Ordóñez (2019) have analyzed L1 language use in the classroom. Navarro Pablo (2021) has investigated the impact of CLIL on grammar and vocabulary in the FL, as well as looking into the variable of motivation in CLIL students (Navarro Pablo & García Jiménez, 2018), and the effect of CLIL on the L1 (Navarro Pablo & López Gándara, 2019).

Recently, the publication of *Content and Language Integrated Learning in Monolingual Settings: New Insights from the Spanish Context* focuses specifically on studies carried out in the monolingual regions of Andalusia and Extremadura, including Barrios (2021); Gálvez-Gómez (2021); Madrid Fernández, Bueno González, and Ráez Padilla (2021); Martínez Agudo (2021); Navarro Pablo (2021); Pérez Cañado (2023); and Rascón Moreno and Casas Pedrosa (2023). As Pérez Cañado (2021a) notes: "The foreign language teaching situation in Spain is currently under change and CLIL is sparking increased interest and attention in our educational panorama" (p. 5).

Outside of Andalusia, Alejo and Piquer (2010) focused on teacher training in Extremadura, to gauge what were the main teacher training needs at the time as well as comparing urban vs. rural contexts of CLIL programs and analyzing the influence of input-related variables and motivation on language attainment (idem, 2016). In Asturias, Fernández Sanjurjo et al. (2019)

analyzed students' content mastery in the subject of Science by comparing CLIL and non-CLIL students. In the Canary Islands, Oxbrow (2018) carried out some of the only research aimed at gauging student perspectives from this monolingual region, factoring in learner variables. Finally, in Castile-La Mancha, Nieto Moreno de Diezmas (2016) investigated the impact of CLIL on the L2 competence in Primary students as well as researching the variable of gender in the subject of Social Science (Nieto Moreno de Diezmas & Hill, 2019).

Following, the next section will focus on one monolingual community in particular, given the location of the study detailed in Chapter Four: Andalusia.

3.7.4.2.1. CLIL in Andalusia

Andalusia is a denominated CLIL hotspot and is very prominent on the CLIL docket. This community has been regularly touted as being in desperate need of more research when it comes to bilingual education (Lancaster, 2016; Madrid & Hughes, 2011). Reverberating this sentiment, Fernández Fontecha (2009) underscored that there was "a shortage of research on CLIL" in Andalusia, a sentiment which, fortunately, is no longer true, as within the past decade, research has prospered in this autonomous community. Madrid and Hughes (2011) set forth one defining characteristic of Andalusia and what makes it so unique in terms of bilingual education: the complete lack of opportunities for students to come into contact with the FL outside of the classroom, in the vast majority of the cases, English. As emphasized by Lorenzo et al. (2021), Andalusia, notorious for poor FL knowledge, currently has "the second lowest language competence in the European Union" (p. 398). As previously stated, the population of this community have been deemed to have *moderate* FL skills. This is confirmed in Granados and Lorenzo (2022) overview of two *cities*, in which both bilingual programs are heavily reviewed.

To make up for the noteworthy language deficiencies,

major domestic investment has tried to make up for this deficit, mainly through a solid network of costly private extracurricular language schools beyond the means of the more disadvantaged. In regions with a low average domestic income, the state bilingual network was supposed to bridge income gaps, for which reason the first bilingual schools were established in rural areas and less affluent urban districts. Very tellingly, charter schools were not permitted at first to offer bilingual schemes in order to prevent them from attracting affluent students and thus widening educational divides (Lorenzo et al. 2021, p. 398).

When first offered, students (or their parents) were allowed to choose if they wanted to have a bilingual or monolingual education, but given the widespread interest in the programs and lack of offerings, dissatisfaction arose as certain students were continually left out of the programs (Granados & Lorenzo, 2022). Thus, in the past decade, schools have made the change from being

partly to entirely bilingual to discontinue the streaming processes that were occurring, either intentionally or not:

In other words, admission to the bilingual school network is now across the board (with no screening procedures whatsoever), with all enrolled students following CLIL programmes. This was so because of the regional concern that social disadvantages might be transferred to the education system, which features a high social inclusion index (76.71 per cent), seven points above the national average (Lorenzo et al, 2021, p. 397).

In Andalusia, admission continues to be based on decisions made by students' parents, thus, even though this might be selective since only a certain social class might be opting their students into the bilingual program, in general terms, the process is fair and un-discriminatory in that no student has to show any minimum language proficiency or previous participation (Granados & Lorenzo, 2022). A verbal picture of this region is imagined by the nine million Andalusians living in this community, and as Lorenzo et al. (2021) highlight, relative poverty affects the region in greater proportion than much of Spain, since the income of the community is over 70% of the national total but the average income of an Andalusian family is only slightly above the other 50% of Spain, currently standing at 582 euros.

Briefly detailing Andalusian bilingual education history, CLIL began with French followed by German CLIL classes. In 2005, there were 18 Spanish-French schools and eight Spanish-German schools (Granados & Lorenzo, 2022). Taking into account L3 instruction in CLIL, from 2011 when the law permitted this to take place in Andalusia, recent figures come from the 2022-2023 academic year (idem, 2021): there were a total of 26 French CLIL schools, 12 German CLIL schools, 51 English-French schools, and one English-German CLIL school. As of 2016, standing at 11, Andalusia had the highest number of foreign language offerings (Junta D. A., 2017). This community is also the first autonomous Spanish region to increase participation in international programs, by motivating and generating positive attitudes towards FLL, a field where Andalusia is a pioneer. It also features relatively low entry ages for CLIL programs, although this measure has failed to reach desired outcomes when it comes to LL. Andalusia, says Lancaster (2016), is known for its lack of tradition in FLT and the fact that almost all communication and contact outside of schools are in Spanish; yet, "regardless of this unfavorable situation, Andalusia has succeeded in transforming an ambitious language policy into a reality, addressing the lack of FL tradition, which was embedded in its society" (p. 149). Andalusia is almost unique in the fact that it began CLIL instruction in both Primary and Secondary studies simultaneously, whereas most other regions and countries preferred to begin the program with Primary students and expand the program after a few years of implementation.

Numbers from the 2021-2022 academic year portray the situation in Andalusia: the offerings of bilingual centers stand at 1,226 (695 Primary schools and 531 Secondary schools)

(Granados & Lorenzo, 2022). However, infamous for its less-than-optimal LL results, the Andalusian government has prepared and enacted several laws and plans as a way to increase FL competencies in students. In 1998, the Andalusian government implemented the Bilingual Program across the region with a view to improve education by investing time and money in FLL and FLT. And more recently, the Andalusian Strategic Development Plan of Languages (Junta D. A., 2017) has established the target goal of having 1,500 fully bilingual schools by the year 2020 (Madrid & Pérez Cañado, 2018). Lorenzo et al. (2021) note that CLIL in this community is regulated by the Order 28 of June 2011 (Junta D. A., 2011):

By virtue of this legislation, all bilingual secondary schools are obliged to teach two content subjects in an L2 at every level, and the L2 exposure should amount to 30 percent of the weekly teaching hours (including L2 as a subject). A whole school plan is required before permission is granted by the administration for bilingual implementation. This involves a considerable amount of teamwork programming in the form of a language-across-the-curriculum plan, with the involvement of L1 Spanish teachers, L2 English teachers, Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR)-qualified content teachers and native language assistants (p. 397).

The Andalusian Government has subsequently tried, since the implementation of the Bilingual Program in 1998, to improve the education system by modernizing and renovating FLT methodology. This is a necessary and demanding task, and those involved are “conscious of the complex nature that is FLT and the human and material effort that it requires, as shown by the progress made by the bilingual program” (Junta D. A., 2017, p. 47). Foreign language competence not only requires the use of linguistic fundamentals, but it also carries with it the implication and understanding of language as vehicular and a means of communication that helps with cultural immersion, which simultaneously helps learners in their professional becoming. Technology’s role in LL is also given a new perspective and emphasis is placed on ICT, evidenced by the Andalusian Education Law of 17/2007, which states in Article five that in both Primary and Secondary education students must learn “to incorporate new competences and necessary knowledge as a way to involve themselves in society, especially linguistically and by using informative and communicative technology” (p. 11).

As for requirements and specifications of the CLIL program, Andalusian CLIL teachers currently must have a minimum B2 language certificate in the FL, as confirmed by Granados and Lorenzo (2022). To compensate for their participation in the bilingual program, Andalusian teachers are given a reduction in teaching hours. They also are allotted the help of language assistants and teacher training is offered. However, as the previously mentioned authors (2022) note, the training and support offered to Andalusian CLIL teachers is never mandatory and “loosely formatted” (p. 220).

The first of its kind, the Andalusian Plan for the Promotion of Plurilingualism (henceforth, APPP) was created in 2005 as a way to update FLT methodology, as well as to reinforce how students learn languages, making communicative competence and basic skills top priorities in accordance with the CEFRL. The overall objective of the APPP was to “better the linguistic competences of the Andalusian population in the mother tongue, while at the same time, give them plurilingual and pluricultural competences” (Junta D.A., 2017, p. 15). The following section will go into more detail about the beginnings of the APPP and the subsequent refurbishment Plan, which was published in 2017, and its five objectives.

3.7.4.2.2. From the APPP to the Strategic Plan for the Development of Languages

The APPP, created in 2005, is supported by five pillars, and it was in this landmark Plan that CLIL was given direct recognition and top priority for FLT. The use of the European Portfolio was also suggested as a concrete way for students to self-evaluate their linguistic progression. The most outstanding action that resulted from the creation of this program was the implementation of Bilingual Programs in all Andalusian education centers, offering bilingual sections in 143 centers in Andalusia at the time.

With its bold objectives, the APPP hoped to guarantee the development of functional, working bilingualism by the end of Secondary education, while keeping an important linguistic objective of the European Commission present: language is for use, language is for all. The bilingual education program promised to be a secure model that could transform LL in Andalusia and could be the deciding factor on whether Andalusia could keep up with its surrounding European neighbors academically and linguistically. The APPP included proposals, objectives, and obligations, as well as evaluation criteria, as a way to promise the education board’s continued commitment towards the improvement of the Andalusian education system as the future of education was built.

The APPP was the beginning of a makeover and modernization of LL in Andalusia. The greatest change can be seen with the implementation of the bilingual program, which is now present in over 1,000 public schools (1,226, as previously stated for were accounted for in the 2021-2022 academic year, Granados & Lorenzo, 2022). The program also guaranteed continuity from grade to grade, as well as promising equal opportunities for students in less favorable zones geographically or economically. The APPP guaranteed students would be able to continue their bilingual education from Primary into Secondary education, as well as making the program available in both levels of Baccalaureate. A complete revision of the Plan can be seen in the research of Lancaster (2016), who carried out a study in the province of Jaén, aimed at thoroughly assessing CLIL in Andalusia by “painting a comprehensive picture of the inner workings of the

APPP, comparing perspectives between stakeholders in order to determine positive and negative aspects” as a way to “suggest solutions to accomplish smoother CLIL implementation” (p. 151).

The APPP took the stance that bilingual education should not just be a renovated methodology used only for FLs, but for all other areas as well, transversally fomenting linguistic communication competence. Bilingual education, as promoted in the APPP, is a secure model on which to lay the foundations of learning, capable of transforming LL in southern Spain.

Most of the major accomplishments of the Plan are primarily due to the effort and commitment of the implicated teaching staff. Since the beginning of the program, teacher training was bolstered as a way to ensure quality in bilingual teaching. One of the most efficient parts of the APPP, according to the Plan itself (Junta D. A, 2017), is the incorporation of the language assistant. Another objective saw the desire to increase the language requirement for CLIL teachers, from B2 to C1 (Granados & Lorenzo, 2022).

Notwithstanding, while the APPP was an important milestone in the improvement of bilingual education in Andalusia, there were some reforms that desperately needed attending to, and, given this, the creation of an updated Plan finalized in 2017, entitled the *Strategic Plan for the Development of Languages in Andalusia*⁴⁶ (*Plan Estratégico de Desarrollo de las Lenguas en Andalucía*, PEDLA acronym in Spanish; henceforth referred to as SPDLA, for the English acronym). The SPDLA arose from the Regional Plurilingual Conferences in September of 2013. It is an updated version of the first plan, the Andalusian Plan for the Promotion of Plurilingualism (APPP) in 2005, which was developed with the objective of renovating LL methodology as a way to reinforce how students learn languages, putting the communicative competence and the five basic skills at the top of the most important factors in bilingual education, in accordance with the CEFRL. Some highlighted areas of improvement include teacher training programs, extension of the program into more schools, creation of special materials for CLIL, better coordination between grades/schools, and revision of the curricular organization. To do this, the Andalusian Board of Education took various actions which resulted in several steps forward in the education system:

1. Doubling the number of Official Language Schools between the years 2005 and 2008, as well as amplifying the existing courses, groups and levels.
2. Creating 453 activities in the Portfolio objective and 130 CLIL units in three different languages in non-linguistic areas.

⁴⁶<https://www.juntadeandalucia.es/educacion/portals/delegate/content/462f16e3-c047-479f-a753-1030bf16f822>

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED
LEARNING: A QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE STUDY. CHAPTER 3:
RESEARCH IN BILINGUAL EDUCATION

3. Expanding and consolidating the bilingual center network, reaching more than 1,100 centers in a decade (2005-2015). Students are also guaranteed that their bilingual education would be continued from Primary into Secondary education and could even be continued into the two non-obligatory courses (first and second levels of Baccalaureate).
4. Implementing experimental programs such as the José Saramago Program and Chinese Language and Cultural Awareness Program (Junta D. A, 2017).

The Andalusia Plan of Investigation, Development and Innovation encourages research in the eight following areas, which converge on the goals of the SPDLA (Junta D. A., 2017, pp. 14-15):

1. Teaching of different instrumental materials
2. Putting into practice the informative and communicative technologies
3. Communication of other languages
4. Attention to diversity
5. Intercultural awareness
6. Integration of transversal topics
7. Research in reading and school library projects
8. Organization and sequence of curricular contents.

The SPDLA recognizes the effort and commitment of the implicated CLIL teaching staff in the execution and functioning of the Plan, as well as the importance of CLIL for the teaching and learning of languages and, hence, the importance of ensuring that CLIL schemes are being executed correctly through statistical based research: "the implementation of this methodology [CLIL] should be adequately prepared through the use of complementary instructor training and the development of adequate materials" (Junta D.A., 2017, p. 16).

Regarding the teacher, the SPDLA recommends that the CLIL teacher have at least a B2 qualification, as of publication date in 2017, although it suggests that, as the bilingual program evolves and the language level of the students and teachers advance, it should be contemplated that in the future, the next feasible and possible requirement for CLIL teachers will be a minimum C1 level in accordance with CEFRL (idem, p. 16). From this, we can gather that there stands a real need of educators to acquire a better communicative competence level in the FL by means of training.

There are several objectives put in place in order to meet the goals, kept alive by the calls for action, measures, justifications, and arguments. It favors giving priority to methodologies that favor and foment communication in diverse learning situations, so as to promote real communication contexts inside the classroom. The Plan puts the student in control of his or her

own knowledge: "the making a protagonist of the student is one of the most motivating elements in the teacher-learning process" (idem, p. 23). The updated Plan acknowledges that

a serious re-thinking of traditional foreign language teaching is needed in all education levels, including more innovative methods and approaches that use the CEFRL as a reference and aim for the use of a communicative approach, such as project based learning that permit working on multiple skills at the same time as well as catering to diversity (idem, p. 18).

CLIL is one of the highlighted methods in the SPDLA, remarked as a way to increase good teaching practices and encourage positive teacher-learner situations: "all the innovative methods that encourage positive attitudes towards learning, such as CLIL, should not be forgotten in this teaching-learning process [...]" (idem, p. 23). Cooperative learning activities and project-based learning are given priority in the Plan, since they foment the development of personal strategies related to social habits, as well as favoring attention to diversity through the use of learning amongst equals; strengthening coordination amongst language teachers and their use of CLIL in the classroom; maximizing the use of shared methodological strategies; and inclusion of common nuclear themes. Teacher training is another highlighted area by the document: "[...] teacher training in NLA in CLIL through courses (full time, part time and online), talks, meetings, congresses, work groups, in-school training, Erasmus programs, exchange programs between teachers and schools to observe good teaching practices, creation of special commissions" (idem, p. 35). Educators, in turn, are encouraged to use and develop new materials and methodological approaches, such as CLIL, project-based learning, flipped classroom and design thinking, since

to achieve this leap of quality that we are pursuing, the educators, in general and in NLAs, implicated in language teaching should go beyond the improvement of themselves linguistically and must also improve and work towards the improving of themselves methodologically and familiarize themselves with the CLIL approach, with the objective of improving the quality of education offered in the classrooms [...] (idem, p. 35).

Catering to diversity is high on the agenda in the Plan and the SPDLA assures that "the Andalusian Education System has guaranteed and continues to guarantee equal opportunities of all the population so that the offering of language learning can reach all corners of Andalusia and reach all students in equal measures" (idem, p. 18). Attention to diversity is commented on several times throughout the document and the Plan specifically delineates action plans for the teaching of SEN students and material creation in line with diversity, adult, and teacher education schemes, as well as "specific training linked to attention to diversity in the bilingual classroom" (idem, p. 7).

Overall, the main objectives of the Plan are to develop and improve the communicative competence of Andalusian students, increase CEFRL levels achieved by the students in at least

one FL, improve the methodology of teaching-learning applied by teachers, and increase the number of educators who hold a C1 certificate. By putting forth such aggressive objectives in sight, the best resources must be dedicated to this cause in order to see progress achieved. The Plan also includes a detailed financial plan, with more money being allocated to language assistants, immersion courses for teachers and students, Erasmus programs, and study licenses for teachers who wish to further their studies, as well as increasing aid for the creation of more bilingual centers. In all, the Plan sees an expenditure of almost 10,000 euros by 2020 for its proper execution.

The following six sub-sections will detail the specific objectives put forth by the Plan, which are:

1. Consolidate the bilingual program
2. Increase and improve teacher training
3. Optimize the I+D+i program (investigation, development, innovation)
4. Increase the exposure to languages outside of the classroom
5. Promote intercultural awareness
6. Improve students' language learning results.

3.7.4.2.3. Objective 1: Consolidate the bilingual program⁴⁷

For its first objective, the SPDLA looks to increase the number of bilingual centers in Andalusia, the goal being at least 1,500 centers by 2020. Another way to consolidate the program is by increasing the number of credentialed educators and providing a better offering of classes available to teachers as a way to encourage and facilitate the possibility to gaining more credentials.

Playing an important role in the classroom is the language assistant, which is why the Plan also looks to foster the role of the language assistant in the classroom, since they are seen as true cultural-linguistic pillars in the schools, who play a fundamental role in the success of bilingual education. Thus, there is a need to optimize the use of this resource as well as find a way to share good practices and ideas on how to take advantage of this resource.

⁴⁷ All information has been translated by the author from the Strategic Plan (Junta D. A, 2017).

Classrooms are also given an update. The Plan suggests turning classrooms into multilingual environments, increasing the exposure to multiple FLs from early ages and giving students plurilingual and pluricultural competences from the start.

The action plan for schools includes increasing the number of FL hours given during the week so as to achieve the objective set by the EU that, by 2020, at least 75% of the population under 15 years old will be studying two FLs. Implementation of a second FL in Primary education becomes a reality, with the gradual mandatory requirement that all Primary students will be studying two FLs in the upcoming years. Increasing the diversity of languages that are offered as first and second FLs is also a key goal, as well as consolidating the José Saramago Program and Confucius Classroom (the former teaches Portuguese as the first FL and the latter teaches Chinese language and culture).

The reactivation of immersion programs for students, summer and fall camps and immersion programs is also an onus. And finally, criteria are established to be met before authorization is given to any new bilingual center, a requisite of such being a detailed plan including measures regarding attention to diversity that will be carried out at the school.

3.7.4.2.4. Objective 2: Increase and improve teacher training

Teacher training is a large component of the revised Plan, which is not surprising, given that if teachers are to be expected to rethink their language teaching, training must be available to them. Teacher training must be offered by the state, providing courses for all teachers who so desire to update their language skills, keep their skills alive, in use, and for them to methodologically become more advanced and knowledgeable about innovative approaches. The SPDLA also insists that teacher training must be dual-focused: there must be both linguistic and methodological courses for the teachers.

As a way to make training accessible and feasible, the Plan will make it as easy as possible for educators to pursue training by offering all types of courses: full-time, part-time, and online, "given that a quality and equity education system is not a possibility without motivated teachers equipped with the required training" (Junta D. A, 2017, p. 22, author's translation). The main objective of this training process is to achieve a more competent and more capable group of teachers as a crucial element in obtaining better results and guaranteeing educational success in all students: teacher training must go beyond merely updating educators linguistically; it must also consider updating teachers pedagogically and didactically in CLIL and the integrated treatment of languages in the curriculum.

Likewise, the document highlights the importance of each center tailoring the Plan for their particular context and social strata. Hence, a unique Linguistic Plan should be made for each

center, by each center, so that all measures are taken to ensure the linguistic levels of the students are in the thresholds of the CEFR that sees cooperation and collaboration between NLA and LA teachers. This is included because teamwork can offer the chance of improving students' linguistic communication and can positively affect their academic performance in all curricular areas. Job shadowing is another resource that gets special attention by the document, where teachers can observe good practices and see how other bilingual models work in other schools.

To guarantee that the teaching process of linguistic competences is as efficient and attractive as possible, there are certain goals the Plan wishes to carry out:

1. Foment collaboration between educators.
2. Create a resource bank of materials that have been created by Andalusian teachers for bilingual and language classrooms.
3. Promote teacher training in innovative methodologies in language teaching, both in NLAs and in FLs, especially in CLIL. This will be done by:
 - a. endorsing the use of resources and strategies that allow for the most flexibility and variety in language teaching;
 - b. promoting cooperative learning activities and project based learning;
 - c. designing training itineraries that answer both NLA and LA educators' needs;
 - d. promoting the coordination between language teachers and the use of CLIL;
 - e. linking language learning with the development of the communicative skills;
 - f. promoting the Linguistic Project in schools; and
 - g. developing plurilingual and pluricultural competences.

The action plan for teacher training is completed with formative itineraries that take on the improvement of the linguistic communicative competence of the teacher, so that any and all teachers that wish to better and increase the diversity of their knowledge in any language may do so. Teacher training should not only focus on improving teachers linguistically, but also methodologically, as a way to guarantee the optimum training of educators and to ensure that teacher training is satisfying real needs.

As put forth by the Plan:

It is evident that both training in languages and the creation of curricular materials by the teacher requires quite a large implication and effort on his or her part and this should be recognized and incentivized. We should control, therefore, measures that can allow us to value and award this effort, both the hours dedicated to the study and preparation of materials or the language level or the quantity and quality of the materials produced [...] (p. 37, author's translation)

3.7.4.2.5. Objective 3: Optimize the I+D+i program

Another pillar of the Plan is the optimization of the I+D+i program so as to improve LL in Andalusia, in line with the results of research studies, including the creation of educational research projects in the Andalusian Plan of Investigation, Development and Innovation 2020 (henceforth, APIDI), made up of educators and researchers of public schools and universities, as well as agreements between Andalusian universities on collaborative projects (such as a website of good practices, bilingual materials and didactic adaptation plans) and permits for teachers who wish to further their post-graduate or doctorate studies. The concrete goal of the I+D+i is to link linguistic education with research, development, and innovation.

Primarily, the Plan suggests working with universities and research centers in Andalusia to isolate examples of good teaching practices while reflecting on the education system and studying the linguistic research topics (intercultural awareness, curricular integration, European linguistic politics, evaluation) that will be used to create an important database of adequate scientific production. The objective of the studies to be carried out are to verify hypotheses on learning and good practices.

This program also hopes to promote the consolidation of the relationship between the educational administration and society, so language teaching can use the I+D+i activity as a point of reference. Keeping in line with the important plans of action of the APIDI, this program will promote research between the Education Administration of Andalusia, the body of educators in public schools and researchers in universities.

3.7.4.2.6. Objective 4: Increase extramural exposure to languages

With the new “society of information”, it would be both artificial and unnatural to try and create a barrier between the learning that takes place inside and outside the classroom. The CEFRL clearly states that linguistic knowledge is for the real use of the language; thus, regardless of where it takes place, any contact with the language is a learning experience. The Plan promotes the use of original audiovisual resources with subtitles to foment the development of learning strategies, listening and oral skills, as well as orthography and phonetics. The Plan notes the importance of use of original audios, especially considering that in countries in close proximity with Spain, where the use of original versions is commonplace. This is a way to promote LL outside of the classroom and reach the goals set forth in the Plan.

As a way to obtain more exposure to languages outside of the classroom, action plans include various agreements with Spanish TV networks, who will guarantee that certain TV programs are emitted in their original version. News and audiovisual content will be modified into other languages for classroom use. Schools will promote the creation of online and digital newspapers by Secondary and Official Language School students and children will have an early

contact with languages in lower levels of education. Finally, linguistic recycling will be fomented as a way to solidify language retention.

3.7.4.2.7. Objective 5: Promote intercultural awareness

A knowledge of languages includes a knowledge of cultures, since “at the same time that students are incorporating new languages they are experimenting a reconstruction of their own identity” (p. 28). Andalusia is an ever increasingly multicultural environment, and, thus, the presence of pluriculturalism in Andalusian classrooms is necessary and something that must be given attention to.

In 2014, there were around 700,000 foreigners residing and paying taxes in the community, many of said people included in the Andalusian education system. A relatively recent study entitled *Closing the Gap for Immigrant Students: Policies, Practices, and Performance* (OECD, 2010) shows that foreign students are more likely to fail academically than native Spanish students. The study highlights the fact that these students, although not native to Spain, are living in this country and deserve the same quality education guaranteed to their Spanish peers, regardless of their nationality or mother tongue, and it is thus the responsibility of the Andalusian government to ensure that the education system is not failing them or marginalizing them academically.

Attention to diversity and giving students with a foreign profile the resources and help they need to advance through grades is linked to the social inclusion that comes with a solid education. This, states the Plan, will be done by adapting the curriculum for immigrant students, creating a linguistic adaptation classroom, family attention and accompaniment plans. All of this should be done to guarantee the complete assimilation of foreign students in the Andalusian education system and to promote cultural coexistence in the school environment.

To complete this objective, online intercultural educational resources will be created, Spanish as a FL program will be extended, a new curriculum will be created for the L2 for foreign students based on the Cervantes Institute Curricular Plan, programs will be established for foreign families and students that will favor integration and social cohesion, teachers will be trained on intercultural awareness and migration via special programs, credentials will be created that can be obtained by foreigners and immigrants to allow them to join the workforce, CLIL use and coordinated work will be fomented between all teachers, and some laws will be modified, such as those that deal with second generation immigrants and lenience with immigrant students during their first year.

Specific calls to action include:

- the creation of more online intercultural educational resources;
- the extension of the Spanish as FL program;
- the creation of a learning curriculum of the L2 for foreign students based on the Cervantes Institute Curricular Plan;
- the creation of programs in learning centers and schools for foreign families that will favor integration and social cohesion;
- training for teachers on intercultural awareness and migration (Forinter2 program);
- the creation of credentials that can be obtained by foreigners which will allow them to study here and later incorporate in the workforce;
- the use of CLIL and coordinated work by all teachers; and
- modification of laws to allow leniency for grading regarding foreigners in their first and second years.

3.7.4.2.8. Objective 6: Improve language learning results

These goals are more concrete and numerical, with the SPDLA giving objective numbers for both CLIL and non-CLIL participants. Per the previous standards, at least 30% of the students in non-CLIL streams should have an A1 level (CEFR) by the sixth grade of primary, A2 in fourth of CSE and B1 upon finishing Baccalaureate.

For Andalusian students, the Plan puts forth ambitious goals when it comes to competence levels: at least 50% of the students in CLIL streams should have A2 by the time they finish Primary education, B1 by the time they finish Secondary education and a B2 upon finishing Baccalaureate. To achieve this, students shall be more encouraged to participate in immersion programs, such as summer or exchange programs like Erasmus. Likewise, eTwinning use will be promoted so as to foment the communication between students of other countries and accompaniment programs in FL classes from the first level of Primary through Secondary will be implemented.

The evaluation procedure will follow the SPDLA, self-evaluation, external evaluations, gathering and analyzing of data with congresses, meetings, courses, and in-school training. Under the Plan, each center should formalize a tailored self-evaluation program so as to help educators identify programs and achievements, and support and orient decision-makers in different training areas in FL classes.

3.8. Conclusion

This chapter has carried out its objective of making explicitly clear the history of research conducted in the past couple decades with CLIL. As much of this research was not done

systematically or coherently, much of it has been updated, also as a way to control for important variables that were not previously considered (Pérez Cañado 2012; Van de Craen et al. 2007).

Following a brief recap of CLIL in Europe, we have seen the main tendencies in CLIL research. First, stakeholder perceptions were explored, an area of research that has recently been on the uptick, with those undertaking these studies aiming to find out first-hand the perspectives of students, parents, and teachers, as well as across-cohort comparisons, which have revealed important discrepancies between cohort perceptions, warranting further research (Siepmann et al., 2023). However, all stakeholders have been generally quite positive in their appraisal of the bilingual program, with parents holding it in exceptionally high regard, followed by teachers, and then students.

Next, we looked at the evolution of studies that had a linguistic focus, mainly the effect CLIL is having on the L1 and L2, studies that since the beginning of CLIL's journey, have been vibrant. All evidence points to the fact that CLIL is more profitable in the long term (Pérez Cañado, 2018e): it positively affects the L1 and L2, and can work to cancel out learner differences especially between students of various SES backgrounds. It has also been routinely documented to foment social mobility (Lorenzo, 2021; Somers, 2017), something that parents categorically attribute to the CLIL program.

Content studies are another flourishing area of research which has focused mainly on Mathematics and Science as subjects, leaving a niche for other subjects related to Humanities and Fine Arts. The bulk of research has dealt with studies that focus on the effects of CLIL on content acquisition. Here the data can get controversial, since controlling for base-level content knowledge as well as important variables has not always been made entirely transparent nor entirely possible. While some studies have linked CLIL with decreased content knowledge (e.g. Anghel et al., 2016; Fernández Sanjurjo et al., 2019; Piesche et al., 2016), it has come to light that Primary students could be more at jeopardy in their CLIL classes at first, since they might not have developed the language necessary to be fully assessed properly in the CLIL subject, which stresses the finding that CLIL is most beneficial in the long term, since this deficit, which is prevalent in Primary students, is later cancelled out once the students are in Secondary.

How CLIL is being implemented and varying methodological practices has also been a crux of CLIL research. Teachers have been polled to determine if they feel properly trained to teach CLIL classes and if they are receiving enough in-service training. Studies like Rascón Moreno and Casas Pedrosa (2023) looked to paint a representative picture of CLIL by focusing on data from a "grassroots level" (p. 11).

As for research on inclusion and diversity, it has exploded within the past five years, in a bid to ensure CLIL keeps up with the European Union 2030 Agenda. These studies have been

crucial in determining how CLIL figures into the 21st century and how it will allow all students to flourish, and not segregate or discriminate students based on personal circumstances. Individual variables have been researched including factors such as SES, type of school, context, gender, and motivation. Most importantly, motivation has become an important area of interest, especially related to how it affects students' language outcomes. Research from Pérez Cañado (2021b) has helped solidify the notion that CLIL is working to close the gap between learners. Other studies related to SES and how it affects attainment include Halbach and Iwaniec (2022), Lorenzo (2019), Shepherd and Ainsworth (2017), and Pavón Vázquez (2018). All of these studies are helping CLIL gain a reputation as being capable of working to eliminate or neutralize discriminatory variables.

Finally, the ADiBE project has given much insight into CLIL around Europe and within Spain. Many of these studies are shedding light on previously unknown aspects of the CLIL program, as well as being quite harmonious when it comes to perceptions, which is allowing us to paint a real, and factual representation of CLIL, especially when considering these studies have actively sought to correct flaws in previous research conducted in the early 21st century. Much of this research has also led to the discovery for future research needs, which continue to be great, including more research done on learner variables, motivation, teacher training needs, and more studies into CLIL's potential for inclusivity.

This chapter has also summarized the decades long research history that has been carried out within Spain, detailing at the same time the peculiarities of this country, with its makeup of bilingual and monolingual regions. A lengthy background of this country and its history with languages and current legislation regarding bilingual education has also been expounded upon, including the existence and explanation of the history's controversial struggle with the national and regional or minority languages. Spain as a model for other countries when it comes to CLIL implementation has also been included. More detail has been given on one autonomous community, Andalusia, as it is the location of the study in the Thesis at hand, and its history as well as current offering of bilingual programs have been highlighted. Finally, an extensive detailing of the Strategic Plan for the Development of Languages in Andalusia has been included to paint a realistic picture of the goals and objectives for this autonomous community as related to bilingual education.

The "potential to put an end to elite bilingualism" is here (Granados & Lorenzo, 2022, p. 225). However, we are at a point of inflection and it is imperative that language policies do not simply "scratch the surface of inequality and cater to the adjacent layers of the very privileged few", but policies are implemented that will safe-guard the more disenfranchised and disadvantaged parts of society (idem, 2022, p. 225).

Chapter 4. Research design

4.1. Justification of the investigation

As exposed in the literature review, CLIL has firmly taken root in a great number of European countries, and this revolution to bilingual education, which stems from Canadian and American programs, is quickly gaining recognition on the continent as the future of LL. With correct implementation, CLIL has proved itself to be widely successful and, when contrasted with the multitudes of other educational approaches throughout the years that have ultimately fallen by the wayside, it can be inferred this is mainly due to the fact that CLIL “was neither invented nor owned, but was something which had developed naturally and particularly suitable for the times” (Marsh, 2017, p. 9). The importance of this methodology is highlighted by Coyle (2010), who brings awareness to the fact that “over the last decade there has been an explosion of interest in CLIL in Europe and beyond, as many teachers, learners, parents, researchers, and policy makers have realized the potential of CLIL [...]” (p. vii).

There has been a “multimodal turn in research” says Morton (2023), when it comes to bilingual classrooms, as CLIL is now seen as going beyond being a simple FL methodology:

CLIL transcends the three lineages of FL, SL, and L1 to take in a much wider range of meaning-making resources. Such views challenge the idea of CLIL as a solution to the learning of officially demarcated languages [...] and broadens its purview to see it as framework for understanding and developing multilingual [...] practices (p. 527).

Put simply, CLIL is a natural evolution of language and content coming together and its insertion in education:

Marked a major breakaway from the powerful English language industry, and the conservatism that was maintaining the status quo [...] it empowered people to take greater control, to further develop important skills and competences, and to deepen the joy and flow of learning (Marsh, 2017, p. 9).

Post-scrutiny of the research and history of CLIL allows us to appreciate the overwhelmingly positive effects that this methodology has on all stakeholders, notably the learners. Notwithstanding, research deficiencies in this area have also come to light, particularly attention to diversity, precisely the gap which this study intends to fill, while simultaneously bolstering bilingual education research, both of which are fundamental for the future of CLIL. Similarly, there is an ever-increasing necessity to be competent in multiple languages for the sake of communication (Madrid Fernández, 2006), especially since students in Europe must be prepared “to compete in the global economic, political, and cultural world” (Tobin & Abello-Contesse, 2013, p. 206).

Teachers are becoming more vocal about their needs in the classroom, owing to ever more heterogeneous classrooms, coupled with the pressure they face to simultaneously raise levels of attainment in students, as well as close the gap between achievers. Although, undeniably, globalization is affecting the planet on a global scale, European countries especially are feeling this occurrence: many countries in Europe now having unmatched levels of migrants and immigrants (Schleicher, 2019). Students found in one single classroom today are likely to be from different countries and hold varying mother tongues. Moreover, these students are religiously, socially, culturally, and socioeconomically diverse, among the plethora of other variances that might be encountered in any individual. As Cross (2022) brings to our attention, CLIL is not perfect and "like any pedagogy, outcomes depend on the quality of its application in practice" (p. 196).

Pertaining to this, the justifications of this study are trifold. First, there is a "shortage of research on CLIL" in Andalusia and other monolingual communities; hence the pertinence of the study's location (Fernández Fontecha, 2009, p. 15). Secondly, the meager amount of research carried out on attention to diversity has left a niche in the field that must be acted upon, as highlighted by myriad authors (e.g. Fernández & Halbach, 2011; Lorenzo et al., 2009; Mehisto & Asser, 2007; Pena Díaz & Porto Requejo, 2008; Pérez Cañado, 2016a, 2016b, 2018b). Finally, and thirdly, the importance and necessity of shedding light on achievement amongst learners by instigating research aimed specifically at learner variance is undeniably indispensable (Oxbrow, 2018; Pérez Cañado, 2018b). Thus, the aims of the study are justified pertaining to the *who*, *what* and *why*. In terms of *what* we are trying to accomplish: increase solid research on CLIL in monolingual communities; the *who*: the diverse learners and stakeholders involved; and finally, the *why*: bringing awareness to the importance of catering to diversity and attending to learner variance.

Precisely concerning the justification of researching inclusion and diversity, Pérez Cañado (2018b) underscores that "catering to diversity and singling out the individual learner variables which impinge on successful learning should become a preferential area of research" (p. 2, referencing Cenoz et al., 2013; Dalton-Puffer et al., 2014). Considering how important this topic is, the literature regarding it is lacking both in quantity and quality, although it is gradually beginning to take shape⁴⁸. Unfortunately, learner variance is an area of research that has barely been touched upon in bilingual education studies. Hence, research geared towards diversity is more important than ever, especially in Spain, and more specifically in Andalusia, where schools

⁴⁸ Cf. section 3.6 for where research stands when it comes to inclusion and diversity

are moving from voluntary to school-wide CLIL programs. As Madrid and Pérez Cañado (2018) warn us, the successful and correct implementation of CLIL can only be guaranteed when learner variance is catered to in the classroom. Unfortunately, in many circumstances this is not currently taking place, due to a scarcity of quality materials, resources, and guidelines.

Yet another reason why this study is warranted stems from the fact that most of the previous research is hardly reliable, as commented upon by Pérez Cañado and Ráez Padilla (2015), who note that CLIL research is threatened by “potentially serious methodological flaws which could compromise the validity of the outcomes obtained” (p. 4). Likewise, Pérez Cañado (2011) emphasizes that we are “sorely lacking” unyielding evidence with CLIL results, and as such, it is imperative that CLIL research become more solidified and unified with testing and results (p. 389). This sentiment has been echoed by a call for solid empirical evidence around Europe that will further justify CLIL and its implementation, and is precisely the reason for this study. What is more, many of the conclusions drawn from research that has been piloted cannot be generalized for Spain, nor Andalusia. To exacerbate this, there is research lacunae in CLIL in general, something many authors are in congruence about (e.g. Coyle et al., 2010; Lasagabaster, 2010; Pérez Cañado, 2011).

Equally relevant and critical for research are diversity and inclusion, themes which are quickly gaining importance and recognition in education, in part due to globalization, migration, and a more acute awareness of individuality in the human race. Research on CLIL has been abundant in the last decade; however, moving forward, considerable investigation must be done given the fact that most of the research up until now has been geared primarily towards the effects of CLIL on language and content outcomes and has not focused on diversity or the different levels of motivation and verbal intelligence in the classroom. Oxbrow (2018) insists on the undeniable “need for research into the effectiveness of CLIL programmes that attends to diversity and singles out individual learner variables which might have a bearing on successful learning as bilingual programmes continue to expand to all types of students” (p. 140, referencing Cenoz et al., 2013; Dalton-Puffer et al., 2014). Coyle et. al (2010) emphasize that CLIL is “for a broad range of learners, not only those from privileged or otherwise elite backgrounds” (p. 2). The same authors add that nowadays CLIL is inclusive of learners from all backgrounds, regardless of wealth or social status, whereas, in the past, “learning content through an additional language was either limited to very specific social groups, or forced upon school populations from whom the language of instruction was a foreign language” (p. 2). Wolff (2002) concurs on this point, adding: “CLIL is not an elitist approach to language learning; it functions in all learning contexts and with all learners” (p. 48). However, numerous authors (e.g. Hughes, 2010; Lorenzo et al., 2009) warn about attention to diversity in this approach, or lack of, given past findings.

In addition to the paucity of research on diversity learner variance, as is, there also stands a great need for research-driven interviews, which is why we have deemed it necessary to incorporate them into our research design to complement the study and questionnaires, factoring in methodological triangulation. In addition to data triangulation, multiple sources of information have been consulted, all of whom play crucial roles in the CLIL teaching and learning context. This study focuses on a specific context in southern Spain, since the replication of studies in various contexts, as highlighted by Pérez Cañado (2020b), is needed: "in order to base decisions regarding CLIL programs on real and pertinent needs" (p. 2).

The fact that this study takes place in Andalusia, a denominated hotspot for CLIL research, is not of small significance. As previously discussed, the new Strategic Plan for the Development of Languages in Andalusia (SPDLA)⁴⁹ has been recently updated to realign its objectives with specific LL in this autonomous community. The modernized SDPLA attempts to give quantifiable solution to the problems that are present in the Andalusian language classroom. Thus, it is more crucial than ever that more complex and region-specific research is conducted to synchronize Andalusian education objectives to real results in the classroom.

By adhering to principles outlined by several authors (Bruton, 2011; Paran, 2013; Pérez Cañado, 2011, 2012), this study has attempted to remedy limitations that previous studies have admittedly fallen guilty of, such as failing to guarantee instrument comparability, inadequate use of multiple triangulation, or the lack of intervening variables being factored. Our study not only addresses those faults, but proposes to overcome them by working with fully reliable, validated, and guaranteed tests, data, and methodological triangulation, with the inclusion of multiple identification and intervening variables for each of the three cohorts. In addition, it is highly innovative in no longer homogenizing CLIL and non-CLIL students⁵⁰ but, rather, trichotomizing CLIL students exclusively in order to address the overarching question of whether CLIL can truly work with three tiers of achievers. For critics of CLIL who question the nature and workings of the CLIL classroom, such as Bruton (2011), this study in itself dispels other criticism given the high degree of transparency with the stakeholders directly involved.

Both demanded and necessary, this study goes inside the CLIL classroom to see how it is catering to the different levels of students that are put together in the bilingual environment, in an Andalusian setting, from both a quantitative and qualitative perspective. It is thus a

⁴⁹ Cf. section 3.4.4.2.2. for more detail of the Plan.

⁵⁰ Cf. R&D projects 2018-1-ES01-KA201-050356, 1263559, P18-RT-1513, and RTI2018-093390-B-I00.

longitudinal concurrent triangulation mixed methods study (Creswell, 2013), distinctive in itself for having the researcher also function as the implementer of the intervention program, measuring its direct effects from both a qualitative and quantitative perspective, something which increases the reliability of the outcomes given the controlled conditions under which the study has been developed. Quantitatively, this study distinguishes three different tiers of achievers in terms of several intervening variables: four motivational variables, verbal intelligence, English and Spanish level, SES, and gender, examining the impact of CLIL on the FL, L1 and content gains across three different levels of achievers (under-, normal, and overachievers). Qualitatively, it concentrates specifically on classroom practices related to linguistic aspects, methodological practices, assessment, groupings and teacher training, helping to outline good teaching practices for catering to diversity by probing teachers', students', and parents' satisfaction with the curricular and organizational aspects being deployed to cater to diversity within a single private school, while simultaneously seeking to carry out an analysis of the main teacher training needs and limitations of the CLIL program.

The present study thus stands out from prior research on many fronts: it focuses specifically on CLIL learners, trichotomizing instead of homogenizing them; it offers a longitudinal, as opposed to cross-sectional, perspective, of which we are in such great need; it combines both quantitative and qualitative approaches; it employs different types of instruments and factors in identification and intervening variables, as well as multiple triangulation; it measures the effects of CLIL on diverse groups of learners whom the researcher has also taught; and it centers on a firmly entrenched monolingual context, where there is a conspicuous shortage of CLIL investigation. The central objective of this research project is to better understand attention to diversity in the CLIL classroom regarding the three tiers by assessing how each group benefits, or is deprived, with CLIL instruction, as well as identifying the main problems encountered and highlighting the best teaching practices when it comes to catering to diversity through the use of questionnaires, focus groups interviews and classroom observations. The outcomes obtained from the study will be compared and contrasted with results amassed from other contexts sampled to determine when and where the measures being taken for attending to diversity are the most successful, as well as what steps must be taken moving forward.

4.2. Objectives

The principal aim of this study is to determine if CLIL can work with all types of students and how the frontline stakeholders (teachers, students, parents) involved in bilingual education programs value attention to diversity in CLIL across all the curricular and organizational aspects. Its goal is thus to establish how three different types of achievers are being catered to per their

subsequent academic results and satisfaction ratings, in a CLIL program in fourth grade of CSE in a private school. It seeks to establish a truly validated and trustworthy study that affirms the use of CLIL with under-, normal, and overachievers alike. With this, it intends to provide empirically-sound data that is able to evaluate any needed changes or improvements that must be undertaken in CLIL programs in order to continue to push forward an inclusive CLIL docket, as well as critically looking at the program with a view for the future to ensure a correct and methodologically-sound implementation of CLIL that is apt for all types of learners. The data procured can help create future initiatives while continuing to promote the correct implementation of CLIL schemes, both in- and outside of Spain.

Three overarching Metaconcerns, made up of a total of 12 research questions (RQ, henceforth), drive this investigation forward and serve as its fundamental foundation. They are presented and broken down below:

Metaconcern 1 (quantitative study: L2 outcomes)

RQ1: Do CLIL programs implemented in monolingual contexts yield the same English language competence results in Secondary education students who have three different levels of motivation, verbal intelligence, English, L1 and content (History)? More specifically, is there a linguistic competence differential level between CLIL students of different attainment, motivation, and verbal intelligence levels in Secondary schools in Andalusia?

RQ2: What is the modulating (differential) effect exerted on the Secondary students' English language competence by the following intervening variables: gender, socioeconomic status, self-demand, anxiety in the face of exams, disinterest in study, self-esteem, and verbal intelligence?

Metaconcern 2 (quantitative study: content and L1 outcomes)

RQ3: Do CLIL programs implemented in a monolingual context yield the same subject content mastery in Secondary education students who have three different levels of motivation, verbal intelligence, English, L1 and content (History)?

RQ4: What is the modulating (differential) effect exerted on the Secondary students' content learning by the following intervening variables: gender, socioeconomic status, self-demand, anxiety in the face of exams, disinterest in study, self-esteem, and verbal intelligence?

RQ5: Do CLIL programs implemented in Andalusia yield the same L1 competence results in Secondary education students who have three different levels of motivation, verbal intelligence, English, L1 and content (History)?

RQ6: What is the modulating (differential) effect exerted on Secondary students' L1 competence by the following intervening variables: gender, socioeconomic status, self-demand, anxiety in the face of exams, disinterest in study, self-esteem, and verbal intelligence?

RQ7: If there is a competence differential between the different types of achievers in L2, content, and L1 outcomes, which variable(s) are the cause?

Metaconcern 3 (qualitative study: stakeholders' perceptions)

RQ8: What are the students', teachers', and parents' perceptions of the way in which catering to diversity is being approached within CLIL programs and of the main teacher training needs in this area?

RQ9: Are there any statistically significant differences between the perceptions of the three stakeholders?

RQ10: Within the student cohort, are there statistically significant differences in perception in terms of the identification variables considered (gender and SES)?

RQ11: Within the teacher cohort, are there statistically significant differences in perceptions in terms of the identification variables considered (age, gender, teaching experience)?

RQ12: Within the parent cohort, are there statistically significant differences in perception in terms of the identification variables considered (age, gender, socioeconomic status)?

4.3. Methodology

4.3.1. Research design

The study at hand offers a mixed research design, given its quantitative and qualitative nature. It addresses the four central views identified by Van de Craen et al. (2007) as principled approaches towards CLIL research, as well as fulfilling the four requirements necessary for studies to be categorized as methodologically sound, as put forth by Rossell and Baker (1996, as cited in Greene, 1997) and Cummins (1999). Furthermore, justifying our study is the use of primary research, as emphasized by Nunan (1991), since said research "is a way of helping teachers find, exploit, and extend their own best ways of teaching, at the same time as it provides a mechanism for the application, extension, and contestation of classroom-oriented and classroom-based research" (p. 266).

The qualitative side of the investigation is an instance of primary and survey research, as it includes interviews and questionnaires (Brown, 2001). The research also uses multiple triangulation, as stipulated by Denzin (1970): *data triangulation*, given that multiple sources of information are consulted (teachers, students, parents), *methodological triangulation*, given the fact that multiple data-gathering procedures are used including questionnaires, interviews, and observation, and finally, investigator triangulation, since the data from the questionnaires and interviews is analyzed and conclusions harvested from said information.

This mixed research design follows the five suggestions prescribed by Hellekjaer and Wilkinson (2001) as means to measure the quality of CLIL programs for studies in terms of student achievement and CLIL (p. 405):

1. Achievement is compared in the CLIL branches of the same institution.
2. There is a comparison of CLIL schemes across institutions.
3. The quality of CLIL initiatives is assessed via student and teacher perceptions.
4. Language development is measured.
5. Staff development options are gauged.

4.3.2. Sample

This investigation deals with three different cohorts with a total of 77 participants, made up of students, parents, and teachers, within the context of a private bilingual secondary school in Andalusia. Quantitatively, students play the most important role and are the focus of this facet of the study, as well as being the most numerous cohort in the study, and are later joined with teachers and parents for the qualitative study. An analysis of the overall samples is presented below, first from a quantitative perspective, followed by the qualitative equivalent, and finally, an analysis of the three cohorts by the distinct variables is presented.

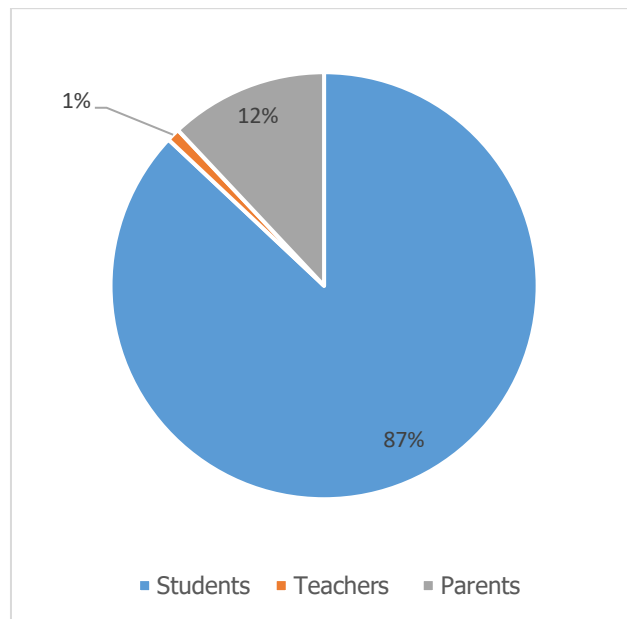
4.3.2.1. Quantitative sample

The quantitative sample encompasses the entirety of one of the three groups of stakeholders, namely, the 61 national and international students from one private, bilingual secondary school. The students were the only participants to partake in the quantitative side of the study, and are joined by the other two stakeholders, parents and teachers, for the qualitative portion.

4.3.2.2. Qualitative sample

In addition to the 61 students, the qualitative sample is extended to include six national and international teachers and 10 parents (cf. Graph 1). Thus, all the parents and teachers are

probed alongside the students and the full quantitative sample amounts to 77 subjects: students make up the majority of the sample (87%) and teachers and parents are the minority (12% and 1%, respectively). The aim is to collect plethora of real, authentic, qualitative data about the implementation of CLIL classes as well as to gauge stakeholder' satisfaction regarding diversity in the CLIL program, both of which will allow us to reach conclusions in terms of CLIL and how it is responding and catering to learner variance in practice.

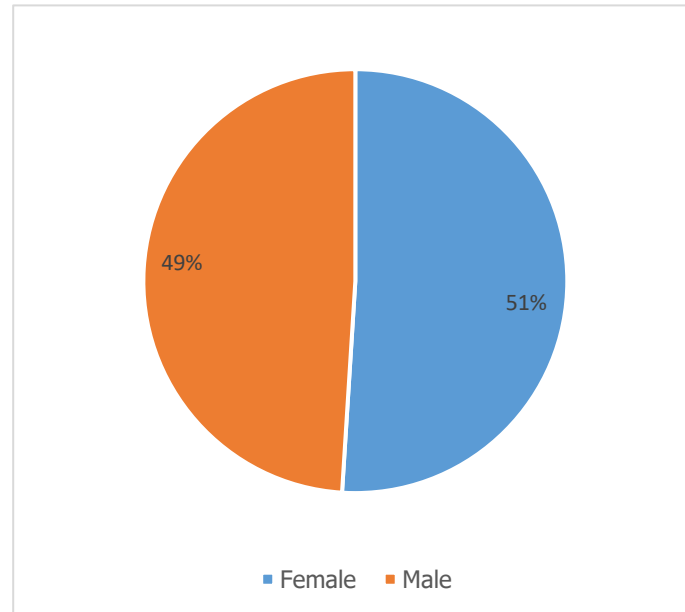


Graph 1: Qualitative sample (students, teachers, and parents)

The qualitative sample will now be broken down by cohort, beginning with the students.

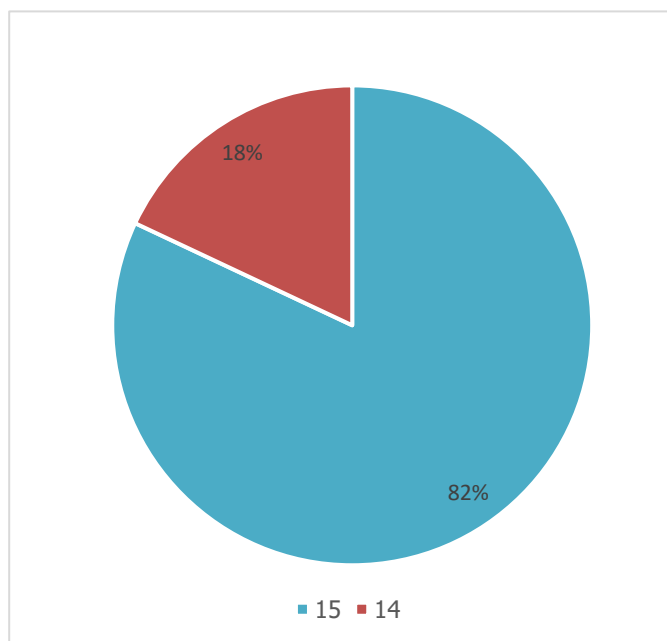
4.3.2.2.1. Students

The first cohort, the students, will be presented by the intervening variables: gender, age, nationality, level of parents' education, ages, and extramural exposure to the English language, beginning with the former (cf. Graph 2). Considering the males and females present in the study, the numbers are almost equal, although there is a slightly higher percentage of female students than male counterparts (51% and 49%, respectively).



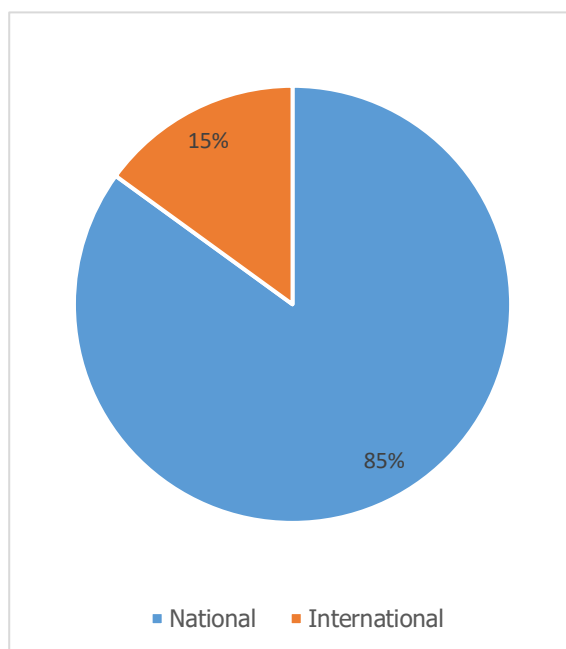
Graph 2: Gender of students

Regarding the students' age, the majority (82%) of the students were 15-years-old when the study was undertaken (cf. Graph 3). However, a small percentage of students had late birthdays and were 14 at the time (18%).



Graph 3: Age of students

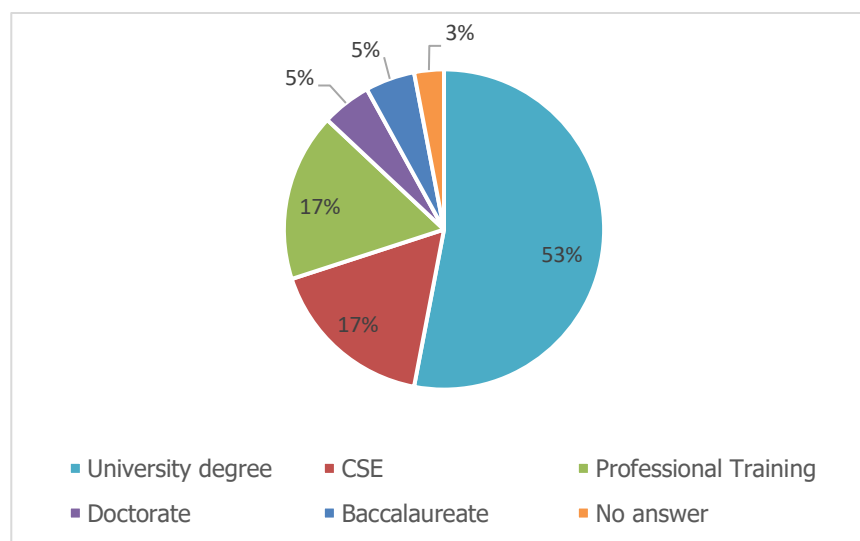
As for nationality, the students are predominantly Spanish nationals (85%), but other nationalities are represented in this cohort (15%), including British, Greek, Paraguayan, North American, Italian, and Chinese (cf. Graph 4).



Graph 4: Nationalities of students

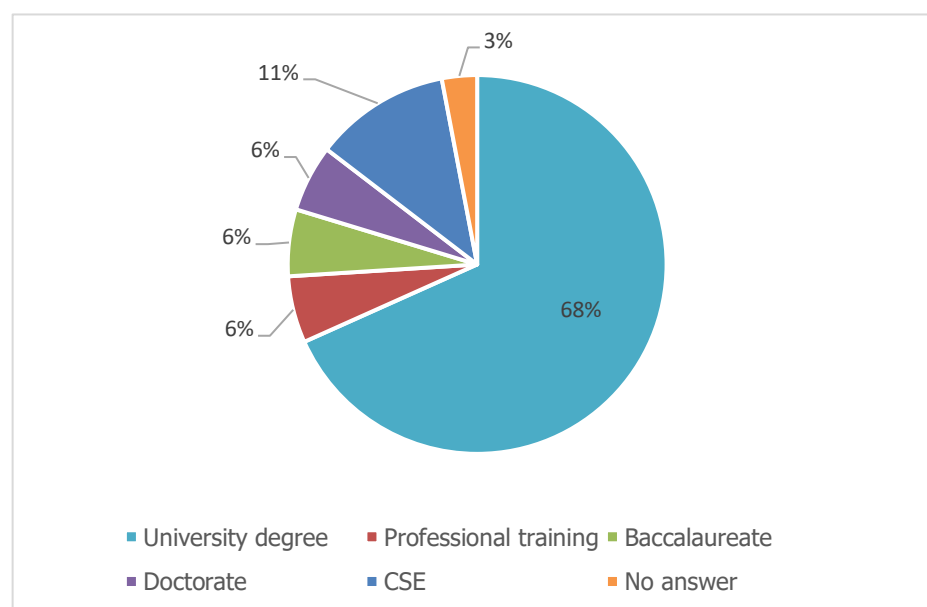
Per the level of education of the fathers, the majority of them are in possession of a university degree (53%), followed by those who have completed CSE or professional training

(17%, respectively; cf. Graph 5). Only a minority have a Doctorate degree or have finished Baccalaureate (5%, respectively). Six students (3%) did not respond to this question.



Graph 5: Level of studies (father)

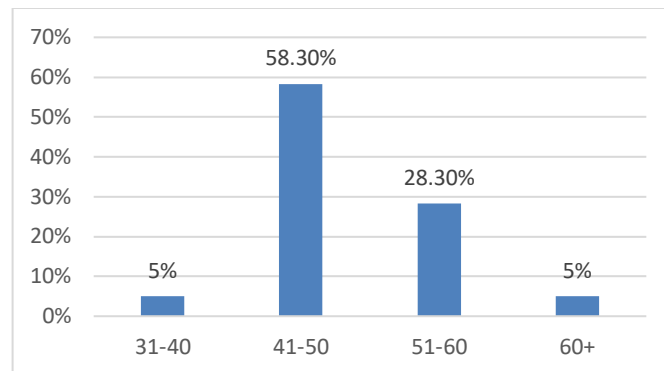
For the responses amassed on behalf of the students as pertaining to the education level of their mothers, the majority of them hold a university degree (68.3%), whilst an equal percentage have degrees in either professional training (5.7%), Baccalaureate (5.7%), or a Doctorate (5.7%) (cf. Graph 6). The remaining have completed studies until CSE (11.6%). Five students (3%) did not respond to this question.



Graph 6: Level of studies (mother)

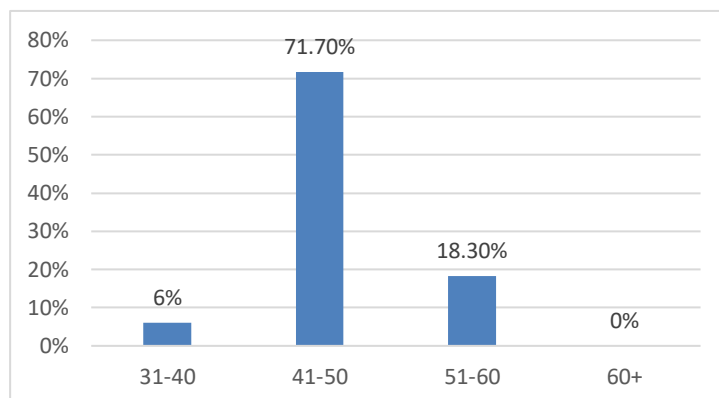
The age of parents (both mothers and fathers) ranges from 31 to 60 and older (cf. Graph 7). Touching upon the age of the fathers, a minority of students' fathers are of 31 to 40 years of age or over the age of 60 (5%, respectively), while a majority of students' fathers fall between

the ages of 41 and 50 years of age (58.3%), followed by those with fathers between 51 and 60 (28.3%).



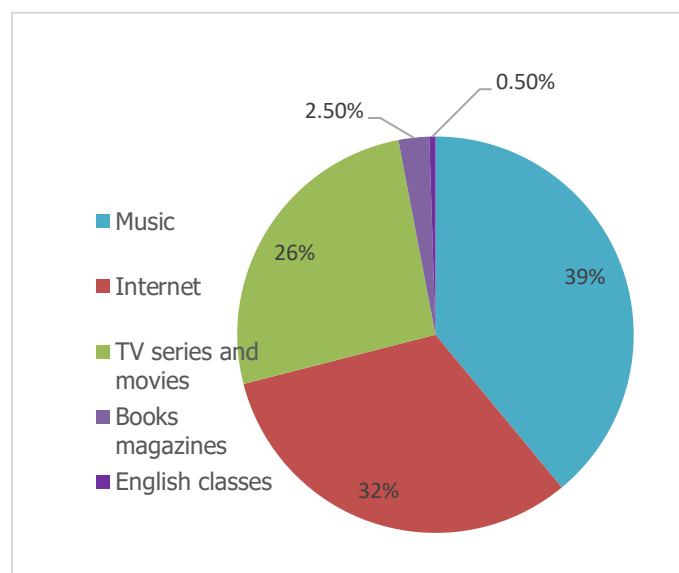
Graph 7: Age of parents (father)

As for the mothers' ages (cf. Graph 8), the responses show the majority of them to be between the ages of 41 and 50 (71.7%), while the rest are between the ages of 51 and 60 (18.3%). As for the outliers, the minority of mothers are between 31 and 40 years of age (6%) and none of the mothers exceed the age of 60 (0%).



Graph 8: Age of parents (mother)

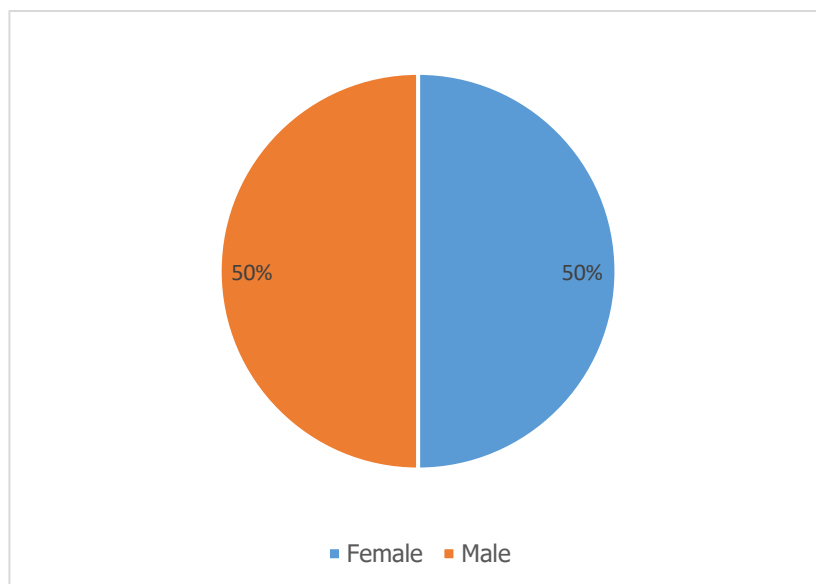
To evaluate extramural exposure to the target language, a questionnaire that has previously been designed and validated by Sundqvist and Sylvén (2014) was used which asks the students to reflect on their exposure to English outside of school in terms of hours per week by filling out a table with an average of hours for different categories pertaining to English exposure, on average, with a wide range of choices, as well as a fill-in-the-blank option. When it comes to extramural exposure to the L2, responses, per the data amassed from the student questionnaires, reveal the category where students are receiving the most extramural exposure to English is music (39%), followed by the internet (32%) (cf. Graph 9). Students also highlight a significant amount of TV series and movies that they watch a week (26%). However, only a minority of the students affirm the statement regarding reading material, books, or magazines in English (2.5%), and almost none have any supplementary exposure to English per classes outside of school hours (0.5%).



Graph 9: Extramural exposure to English

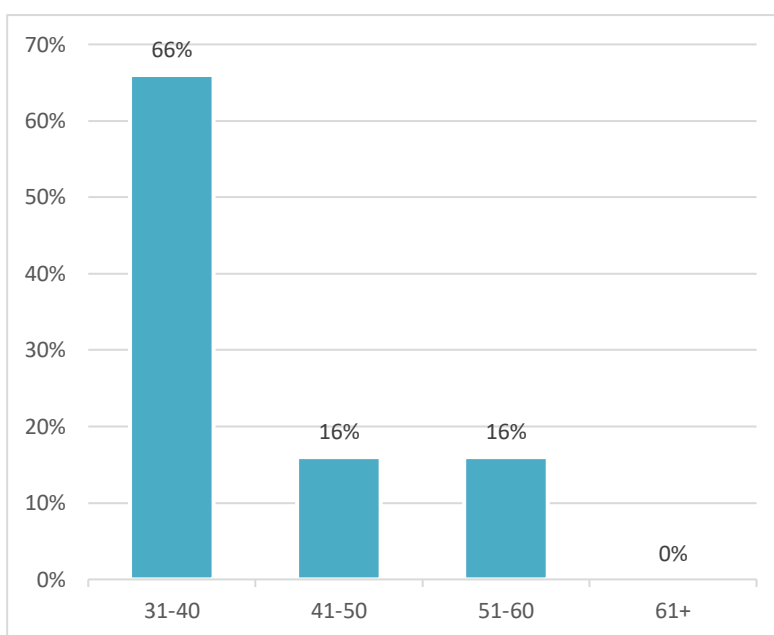
4.3.2.2.2. Teachers

Turning now to the next cohort, the large number of identification variables for the six teachers allows us to draw a precise depiction of this cohort which will now be detailed, including gender, age, nationality, subjects taught in English, teaching experience, and English proficiency. Concerning the gender of the teachers, there is an equal number of female and male teachers present in the study (50%, respectively) (cf. Graph 10).



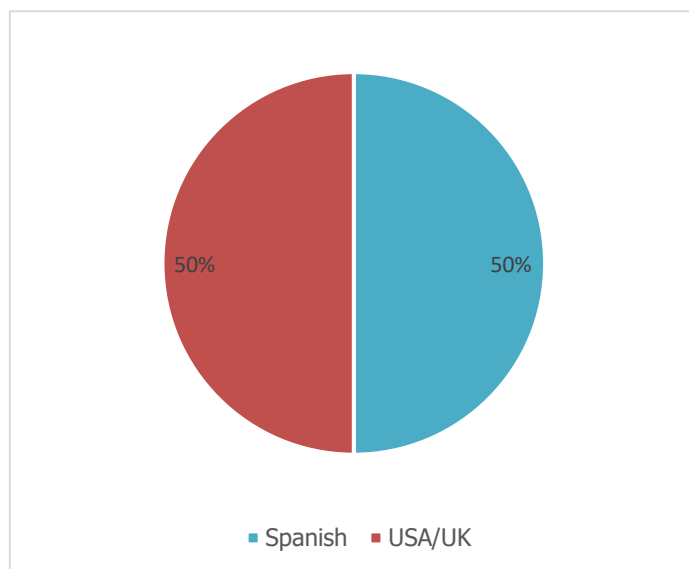
Graph 10: Gender of teachers

Regarding age, the teachers range from 31 to 56 years of age, with two teachers being over 41 years old and the rest ranging from 31 to 40 years of age (cf. Graph 11).



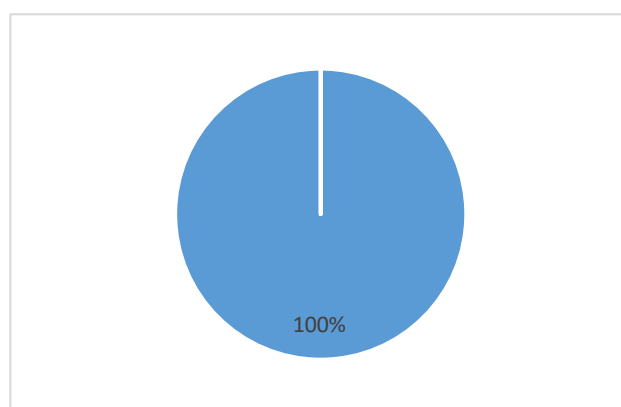
Graph 11: Age of teachers

Pertaining to nationality, the countries represented by the teachers are the United Kingdom, the United States and Spain. This cohort features equal numbers of native speakers of English, from the U.K and U.S.A, and Spanish nationals (50% and 50%) (cf. Graph 12).



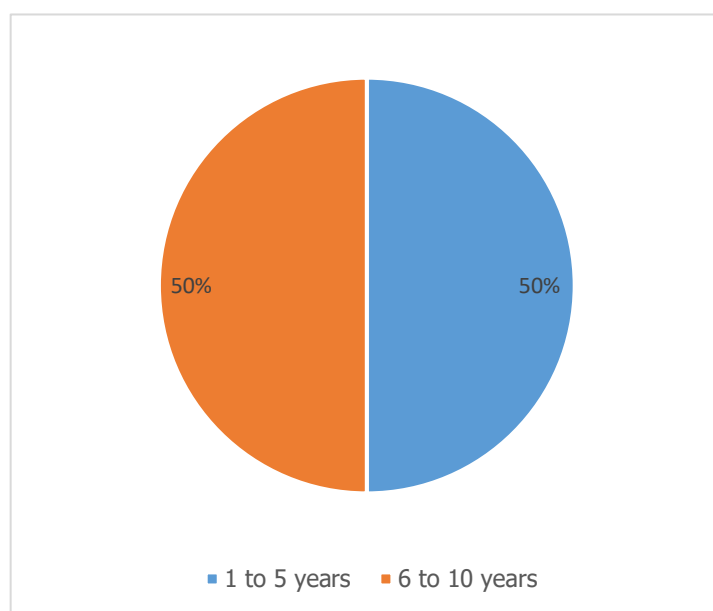
Graph 12: Nationalities of teachers

The entirety of the cohort teaches non-linguistic area CLIL subjects, including History, Computer Science, Coding, Music, Biology and Art. Regarding the percentage of the subjects taught in English, all of the teachers (100%) teach CLIL subjects in English. Accordingly, the subjects are taught across the grades of Secondary, including first of CSE (History, Art, Music); second of CSE (History, Art, Music); third of CSE (Art, Biology); and fourth of CSE (History, Computer Science, Business) (cf. Graph 13).



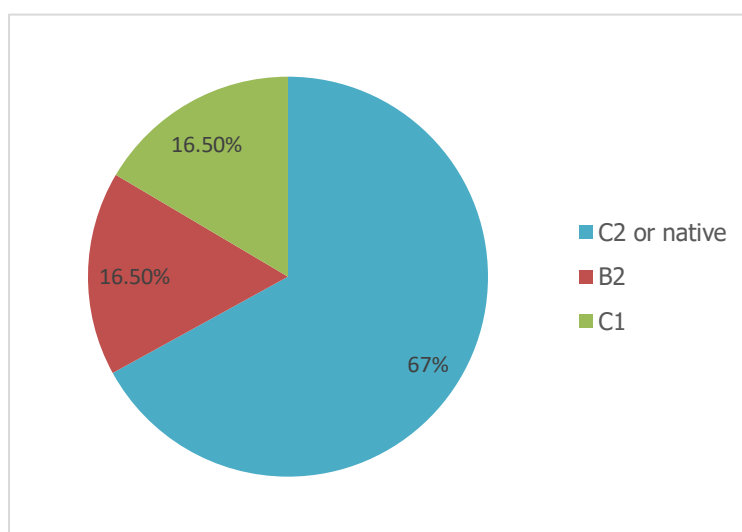
Graph 13: Percentage of subjects taught in English

The teaching experience of the teachers ranges between one to 10 years, with half of the cohort having one to five years of experience and the other half, six to 10 years of experience, both the former and the latter being in a bilingual school (cf. Graph 14). Regarding their positions in the school, all of the teachers interviewed had permanent contracts.



Graph 14: Teaching experience (teachers)

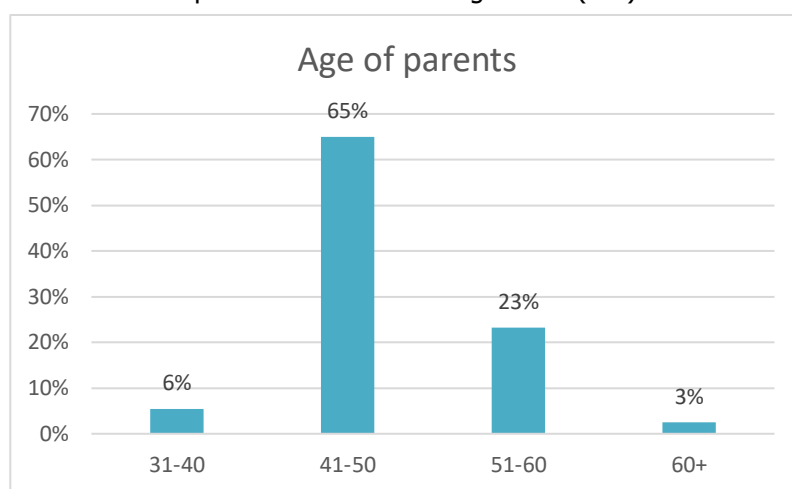
Pertaining English language level, four of the teachers have a native or C2 level English (67%), whilst the remaining two teachers have either a C1 or B2 level (16.5% in each category, correspondingly) (cf. Graph 15).



Graph 15: English proficiency (teachers)

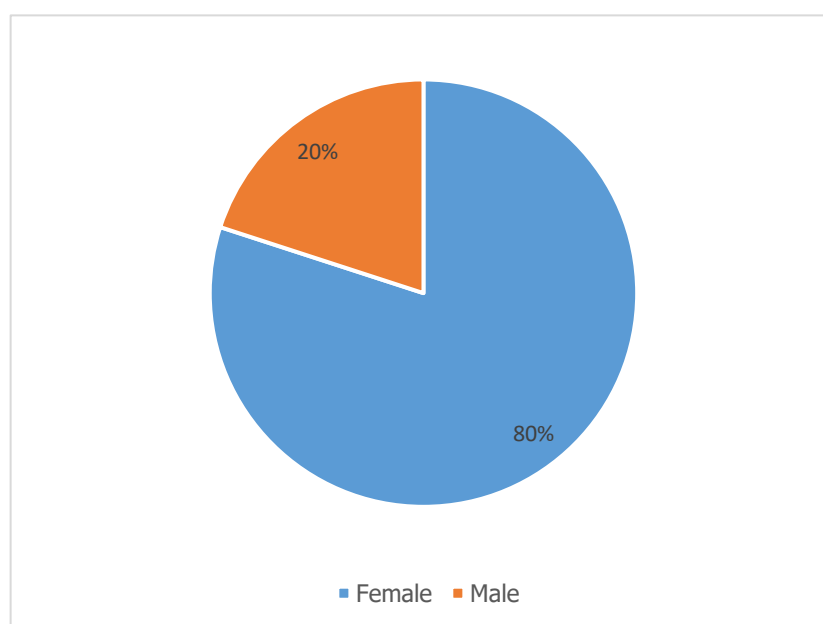
4.3.2.2.3. Parents

Finally, turning our attention to the last cohort to be examined, the parents made up 12% of the qualitative facet of the study, as a total of 10 parents were included in the study. The variables used to isolate varying perceptions included age, gender, nationality, and education level. Regarding their ages, the parents ranged from the ages of 31 to over 60 (cf. Graph 16). The majority (65%) of the parents fell between the ages of 41 to 50. A significant percentage were between the ages of 51-60 (23%), while a minority were between 31 and 40 years of age (6%) and almost none of the parents exceeded the age of 60 (3%).



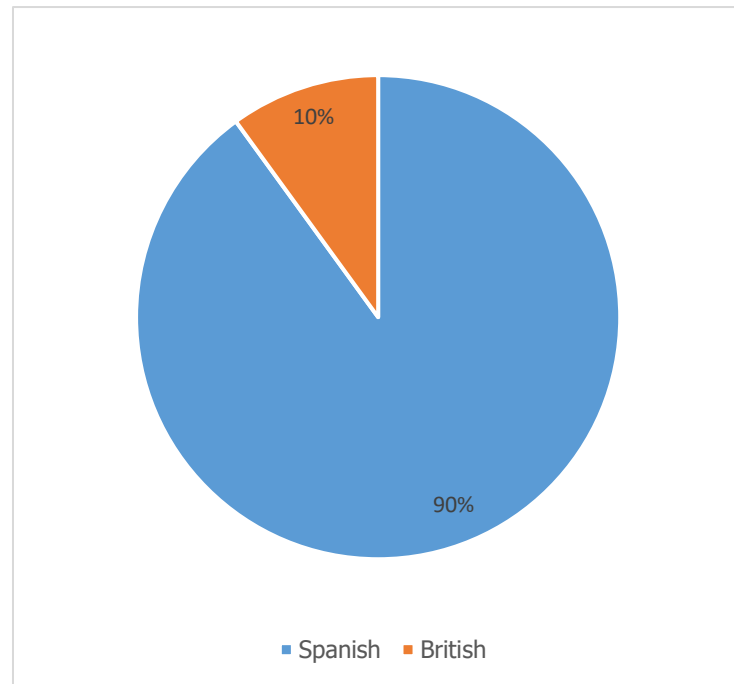
Graph 16: Age of parents

As for gender, the majority of the parents who participated in the study were female (80%), while two of the parents who completed the questionnaires were male (20%) (cf. Graph 17).



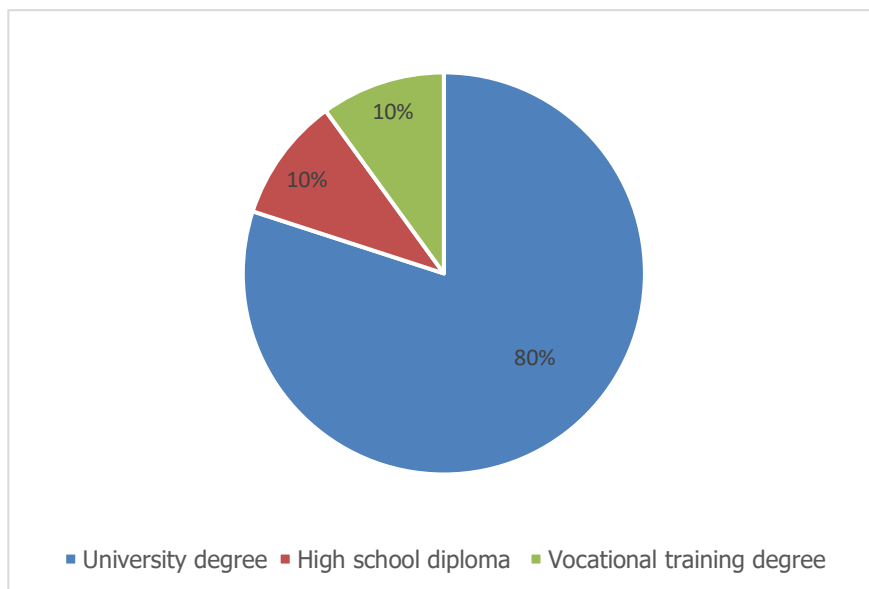
Graph 17: Gender of parents

Concerning nationality, almost the entirety of the parents were of Spanish nationality (90%), save for one parent who was of British origin (10%) (cf. Graph 18).



Graph 18: Nationality of parents

Finally, regarding the level of education, the majority of the parents had university degrees (80%), while one parent had a high school diploma and one parent had a vocational training degree (10%, respectively) (cf. Graph 19).



Graph 19: Level of studies of parents

4.3.3. Variables

The quantitative part of the study incorporates three types of variables: dependent, independent, and moderating. The dependent variables are trifold: the students' English language competence based on the results from the tests in the various skills: grammar, vocabulary, reading, writing, listening, speaking; the students' L1 competence; and the students' level of mastery of the contents implemented through CLIL, in this case, History. In turn, the independent variable corresponds to the CLIL program implemented in the school. Subsequently, as moderating variables, the following have been considered: SES, gender, the four motivational variables, verbal intelligence, initial L2 level, initial L1 level, and base content knowledge. The modulating effects exerted by these variables on the students' L1, L2, and content knowledge will be gauged per RQs 2, 5 and 7.

For its part, within the qualitative study, a series of identification (subject) variables have been contemplated, related to the individual characteristics of the three different stakeholders who are polled through the questionnaire. The modulating effects exerted by these variables on the aspects considered within the teacher, parent and student questionnaires will be gauged through RQs 10, 11, and 12. The identification variables examined for each cohort, which have been previously depicted in the previous sub-sections by graphs, are specified below:

Teachers:

- Age
- Gender
- English language level
- Nationality
- Overall teaching experience
- Bilingual teaching experience

Students:

- Gender
- SES
- Age
- Nationality

Parents:

- Age
- Nationality
- Gender
- Level of education

4.3.4. Instruments

Various types of instruments have been used for gathering information: tests, direct observation protocols, interviews protocols, and questionnaires, all of which have been designed and utilized with an aim to draw information that will help guide CLIL programs to adapt to real and current needs of all stakeholders involved. In studies prior to this one, no instruments had been specifically created to probe CLIL satisfaction levels or protocols for catering to diversity.

For the qualitative part of the study, three originally designed questionnaires were created through the *ADiBE Project* to assess diversity in CLIL, specifically created for this finality⁵¹, in addition to the interview, focus group, and observation protocols. Regarding the questionnaires specifically, the team (Pérez Cañado et al., 2023) looked to “fill the niche surrounding diversity” (p. 1022) by creating a sound, reliable instrument that could seek out stakeholders’ perceptions regarding the programs. To this end, the ADiBE instruments are “carefully designed and validated questionnaires, interview and observation protocols which concomitantly tap into catering for diversity in CLIL programs, adapted to different scenarios for further iterations, and factor in stakeholder perceptions” (p. 1022). They have been carefully validated for the three stakeholders through a double-fold pilot process, while also factoring in identification variables and allowing for data triangulation and comparison within and across cohorts. For their part, the interview and observation protocols were intended for methodological triangulation. The structure of the three sets of instruments all follow the same sequence of thematic questions and topics, with the intention of obtaining as rich, coherent, and detailed quantitative data as imaginable.

Regarding the tests, two of them were already in existence: the verbal intelligence and the motivation tests (Pelechano, 1994). The former is the *Factorial Assessment of Intellectual Aptitude* (*EFAI*, acronym in Spanish) created by Santamaria et al. (2016). Both of these have

⁵¹ Cf. Pérez Cañado, M. L., Rascón Moreno, D., & Cueva Lopez, V. (2023)

been previously subjected to a double-fold pilot process to assess validity and have been reviewed by external experts who critically scrutinized them in relation to level, difficulty, variety of testing facets, inputs, clarity, and layout. The internal consistency, reliability, and index of difficulty was determined using the expert ratings approach and a pilot study with a representative sample of students from the previous year. Finally, adjustments were made after the operational stage and the final version was administered to the students.

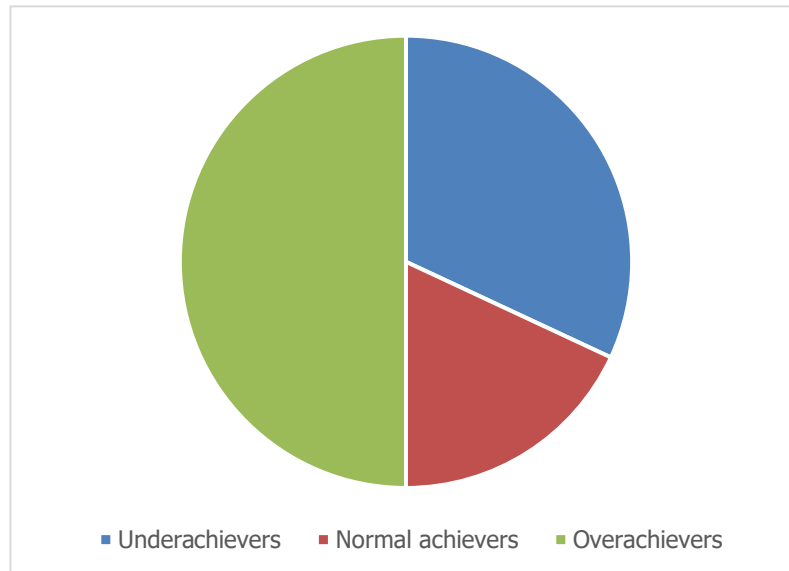
For the L1, the grades used were taken from the final exam grades obtained in the subject of Spanish Language and Literature class. These served as proxy both for the pre-test grades (from the previous academic year) and post-test grades (the final exam grade that coincided with the end of the intervention program).

As for the content of History, this subject test to which the students were submitted at the conclusion of the school year was based on the content covered in fourth of CSE and had already been in use at this particular school for this particular grade level. This test is adapted to the grade level of the students and keeps in line with the national Decrees and regional orders which establish the official curriculum for this particular grade (fourth of CSE) and autonomous community (Andalusia). The final exam grades were taken from the content test grades from the year preceding the study. It was deemed more reliable to use an internally created content test so it could better adhere to the content that was given during this particular Intervention Program, and would be more reflective of the subject from a CLIL perspective.

As previously mentioned, to determine students' pre-content and L1 scores, it was necessary to look at these grades from the previous academic year final exams (2017-18). Ideally, the three tiers would be comprised of an equal percentage of students with the lowest grades, under the 30th percentile, 30% of the students with the highest grades, or those over the 70th percentile, and those who fall in the middle of the 30th and 70th percentiles. For both the subject and L1 variables, this resulted in cut-off points as grades of a six and below for the underachievers, and a grade of nine and above for the overachievers, with the rest of the students falling into the middle tier, the normal achievers. However, given the variance in the subjects and the average grade in each, different cut-off points were established for the variables of English and intelligence.

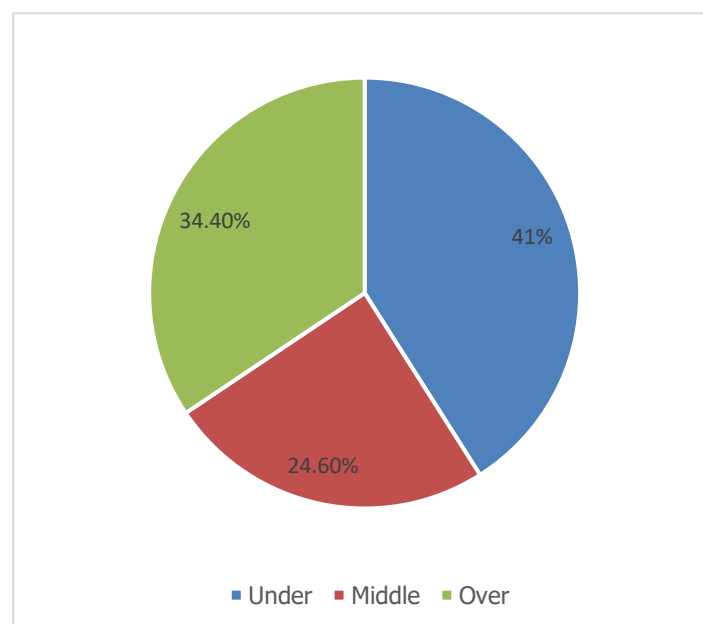
Concerning the content grades, slightly more than one-third of the students (37.7%) had a six or less in Geography and History from the previous academic school year, while a little less than half of the students fell into the middle tier (41%), and the remaining students (21.3%), fell into the top tier of overachievers (cf. Graph 20). Given this information, and the established cut-off points of six and nine, we can infer that approximately 37.7% of the students have a grade

equal to or below six and approximately 78.7% of the students have a grade equal to or below eight. This same process was done with the remaining variables of the study including L1 (Spanish), L2 (English), and verbal intelligence.



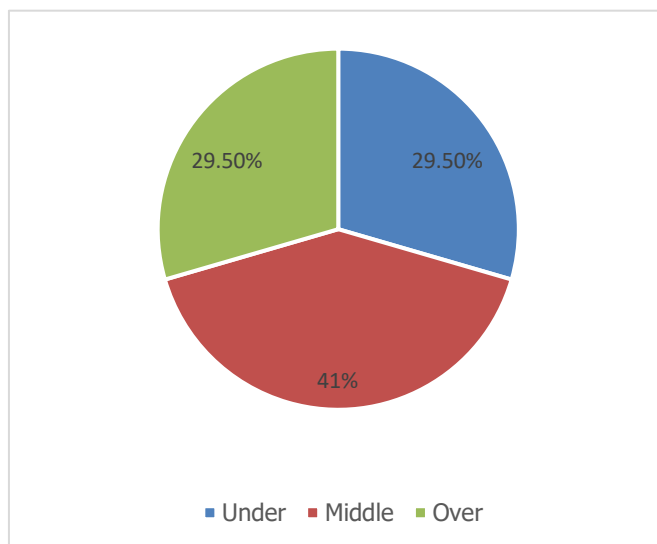
Graph 20: Content grades by tier

For the L1 variable, the same cut-off grades for the tiers were established in the same way as the content cut-off points, and the results sorted the students the following way: 41% of students into the bottom tier, 24.6% of students into the middle tier, and 34.4% of students into the top tier (cf. Graph 21).



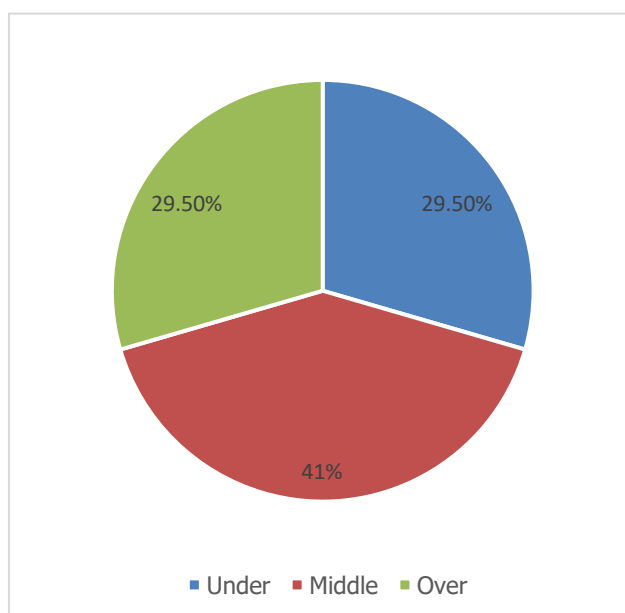
Graph 21: L1 grades by tier

Regarding the variable for L2, the cut-off points varied slightly, since the 30th and 70th percentiles corresponded to grades of 5.77 and 8.38, respectively. Per these cut-off points, an equal percentage, 29.5%, of students were categorized as underachievers and overachievers, respectively, whilst the remaining 41% of the students fell into the middle tier, or normal achievers (cf. Graph 22).



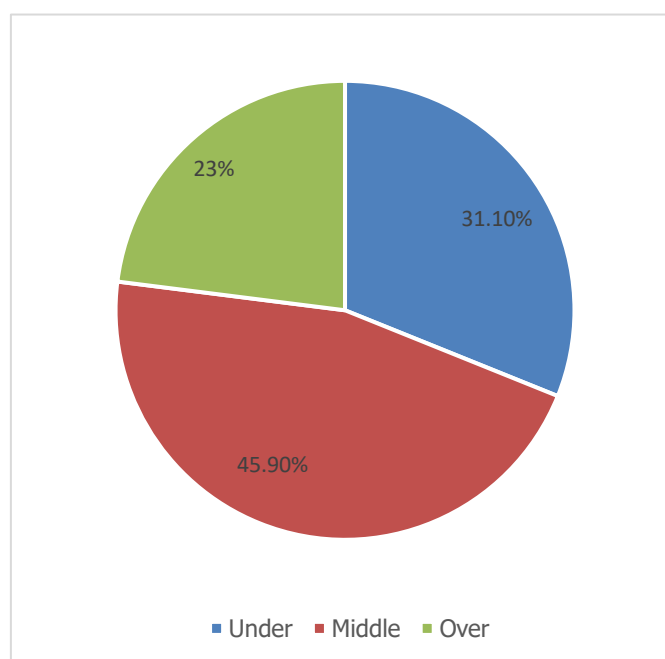
Graph 22: English level by tier

As for L2 grades from the previous academic year, the cut-off points were established as grades equal to or below 5.62 and equal to or above 7.58. Per these points, equal percentages of students fell into the bottom and top tiers (29.5%, respectively) and 41% of the students were categorized as normal achievers (cf. Graph 23).



Graph 23: Average L2 grade by tier

The verbal intelligence test used was the *Factorial Assessment of Intellectual Aptitude* (EFAI, acronym in Spanish) created by Santamaria et al. (2016). Pertinent to the age and maturity level of the students, the version used was adapted to the fourth grade of CSE. It features four multiple choice options which involve analogies, antonyms, or odd-one-out. The students were given a total of five minutes to complete as many items as they could, and, upon completion and correction, cut-off points were subsequently established for the 30th and 70th percentile. The three tiers were established with cut-off points at 3.48 and 6.52, the underachievers having grades of 3.48 and below and the overachievers, grades of 6.52 and above. The rest of the students who scored between a 3.48 and 6.52 were categorized as normal achievers for this item. After correcting the tests, 31.1% of students were categorized as underachievers, 45.9% of students were categorized as normal achievers, and the remaining 23% of the students were categorized as overachievers (cf. Graph 24).



Graph 24: Verbal intelligence levels

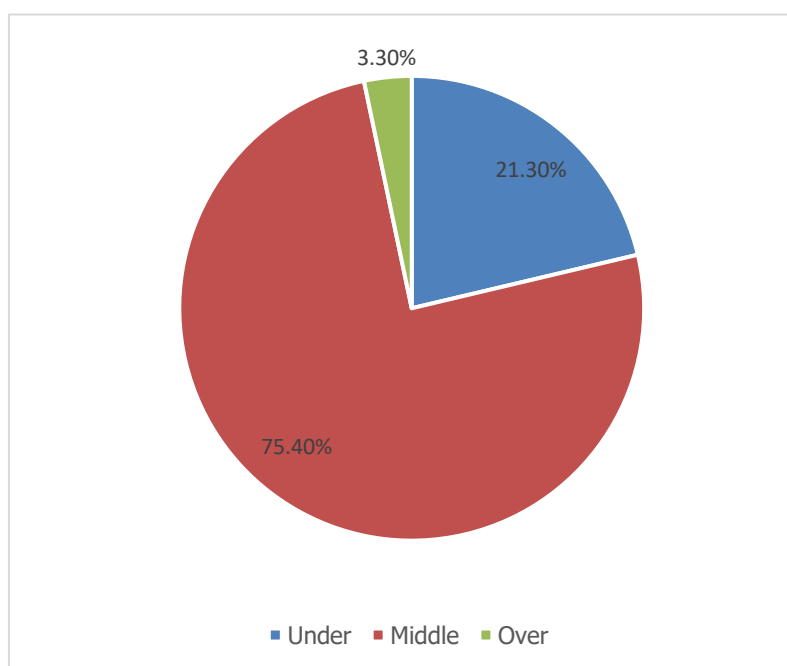
To measure motivation, Pelechano's (1994) M-A test was used. This test includes 35 items which act to isolate motivational factors of achievement and anxiety. This test was used in this study given its reputable history: Pérez Cañado (2018a) highlights it as "a renowned instrument to measure motivation" in CLIL, elaborating that, despite its creation date, it continues to have "great recency and applicability in studies" (p. 22). It is divided into four factors:

- *Factor 1:* vain desire to work and self-esteem, made up of 10 items
- *Factor 2:* anxiety in the face of exams, made up of nine items
- *Factor 3:* lack of interest in studying, made up of nine items

- *Factor 4:* realistic personal self-demand, made up of seven items.

For the first three factors, the 30th and 70th percentiles were established with cut-off points at 2 and 7. The students will be described here, related to the motivational factors, in their entirety as a cohort⁵².

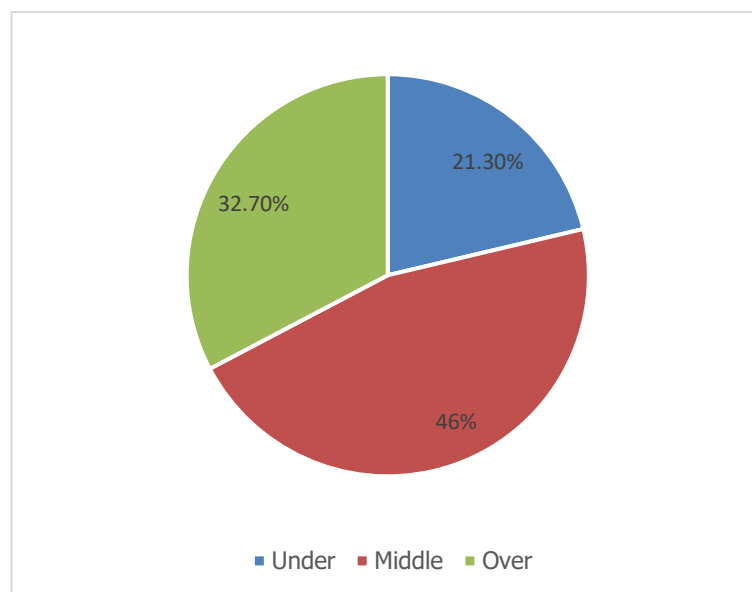
For factor 1, responses show that 21.3% of students have a low desire to work and low self-esteem, while the majority, 75.4%, express a normal desire to work and normal amount of self-esteem. Only two students, or 3.3%, show a high desire to work and self-esteem (cf. Graph 25).



Graph 25: Factor 1 (vain desire to work and self-esteem)

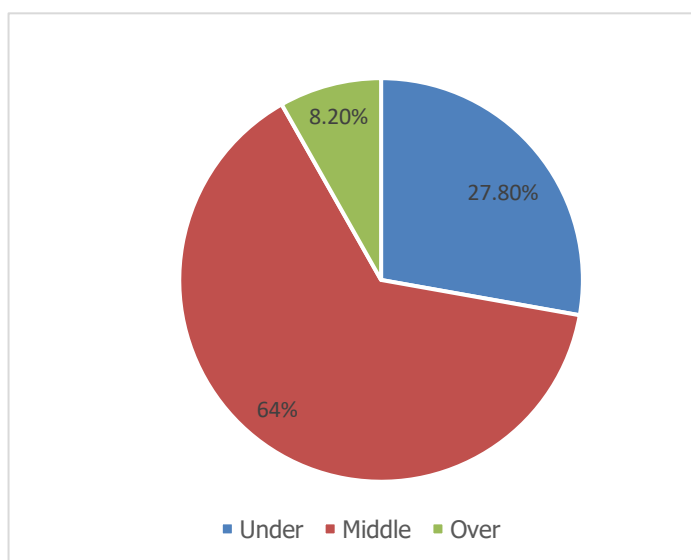
For factor 2, responses from the test reveal that 21.3% of students have low exam anxiety, whilst 46% of students communicated normal levels of exam anxiety and 32.7% of students have high anxiety in the face of exams (cf. Graph 26).

⁵² Cf. section 5.5. for motivational factors broken down by tier.



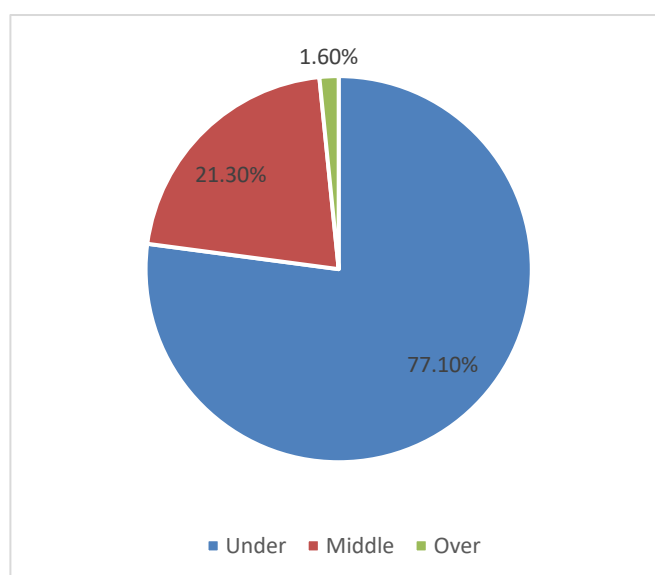
Graph 26: Factor 2 (anxiety in the face of exams)

Concerning factor 3, the tests disclose that a little less than a third of the students (27.8%) express scant interest in studying, while the majority (64%) indicate normal amounts of interest in their studies and a small minority (8.2%) of students have a high interest level in studying (cf. Graph 27).



Graph 27: Factor 3 (interest in study)

Finally, regarding factor 4, only one student (1.6%) expresses high personal self-demand, whereas the majority of the students (77.1%) reveal they have low personal self-demand and the remaining roughly one-fifth (21.3%) of the students show normal levels of personal self-demand (cf. Graph 28).



Graph 28: Factor 4 (realistic personal self-demand)

Turning now to the questionnaires, they were the crux of the qualitative side of the investigation, together with the focus groups and interviews and were used to assess how the bilingual programs are working with the different levels of achievers in the classroom, as well as to identify problems and best practices. To measure socioeconomic status, the questionnaire included a section for personal data which solicited information on the students' biographical information, social background, and educational level of their parents, thus serving as a proxy for SES⁵³.

To measure stakeholder perceptions, three versions of a questionnaire have been used, specifically tailored towards each of the specific targeted cohort: students, parents, and teachers. They have been designed and validated in both English and Spanish and have been carefully edited and validated via a double pilot process with a representative sample of students and teachers⁵⁴. Although the majority of the questions were in essence the same at the core, the wording is modified slightly depending on their audience. Nonetheless, all three versions focus entirely on attention to diversity in the classroom in various aspects of the program. The parent questionnaire was given in Spanish, whilst the student and teacher questionnaires were administered in English.

⁵³ Cf. Appendices I-V for questionnaires, verbal intelligence and motivation tests.

⁵⁴ Cf. sections 4.3.6.1. and 4.3.6.2. in this chapter for more details on questionnaire creation, design and validation.

The questionnaires, in all three versions, begin with demographics and background questions in order to withdraw biographical information from the respondent (which correspond to the identification variables of the qualitative study), followed by opinion questions to investigate the respondents' thoughts, views, reactions and overall outlook on the CLIL program implemented at the school separated into six different blocks related to different aspects of the CLIL program: linguistic aspects; methodology and groupings; materials and resources; evaluation and assessment; and, teacher training and preparation.

Complementing the data collected from the questionnaires were one-to-one interviews (teachers) and focus groups (students), which aided in gaining true insight into the CLIL process and its working with diversity measures, giving the participants the chance to expand on their questionnaire responses. Prior to the interviews and focus groups, the researcher underwent training to develop common basic guidelines and how to give clear directions to the interviewees as well as how to record and code the responses.

The interviews used for qualitative information gathering took the form of a semi-structured format. Straight-forward questions that had heretofore been established were asked, aligning with the statements from the questionnaires and in this part of the study, respondents were allowed and encouraged to further elaborate. The questions that make up the interviews correspond to items found on the questionnaires for comparability across instruments. All of the interviews were carried out face-to-face: the teacher interviews were carried out individually so as to foster a certain sense of confidentiality and trust, with an average of 30 minutes allocated per teacher interview. For their part, the student interviews took place in focus groups, although not all the students participated in this facet⁵⁵.

Finally, direct observation was used as the final collection technique for the qualitative side of the investigation. Two of the three cohorts (teachers and students) were observed during two standard hour-long CLIL sessions in the subjects of Biology and Business. These focused on the more objective items from the questionnaires and interviews corresponding to attention to diversity. The classroom observation protocols followed guidance from Hora (2015) and Hora and Ferrare (2014)'s *Teaching Dimensions Observation Protocol*⁵⁶ (henceforth, TDOP) as a way to categorize the CLIL pedagogy imparted in these particular instances in an objective, clearly-

⁵⁵ Cf. sections 4.3.6.4. and 4.3.6.5. for more information on the interviews and focus groups.

⁵⁶ <http://tdop.wceruw.org/Document/TDOP-2.1-Users-Guide.pdf>

defined way and subsequently compile its pedagogical characteristics impartially, focusing more on a more descriptive rather than judgmental or critical observation process⁵⁷.

4.3.5 Quantitative data collection process

4.3.5.1. Test design and validation: L2 (English)

As previously mentioned, one of the test sets had already been created for the measurement of the three competences: L2, content, and L1. For its part, the instrument used to measure FL competence was the same one employed in the previously mentioned government-funded research projects (Madrid Fernández et al., 2021), which has been proven to be reliable, valid, and have a high authenticity level. The English test used for this particular study was designed to encompass various aspects of the English language, corresponding to fourth grade of CSE in order to assess linguistic competence in the students. The English test followed the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR⁵⁸), the national Decrees and regional Orders of Spain and Andalusia. The test was based on Madrid and Hughes' (2011) study and fulfils "basic requirements of reliability, validity, authenticity, interaction, washback, practicality, difficulty and discrimination potential" (Madrid Fernández et al., 2021, p. 76). It includes 100 items in six different areas: use of English, vocabulary, listening comprehension, reading, writing, and speaking. It has a discrimination rate of 78%, referring to its capacity to discern the overachievers from the underachievers (idem, 2021)⁵⁹.

4.3.5.2. Test design: Content (History)

As for the instrument to measure content acquisition, the content test had already been created and was a modification of the final exam in the subject of History that had been used by teachers in the school for two previous years (coinciding with the adoption of a new CLIL textbook in the curriculum). The test summarized the contents covered throughout the course in fourth grade of CSE, with a view to employ questions based on curricular content in line with the specifications set forth by the government and Decrees for this particular grade level. By doing so, the content items to be included on the final content test at the end of the year were established more fairly and reliably. This was done by thoroughly examining the national Decrees

⁵⁷ Cf. section 4.3.6.6. for more details on classroom observation protocol.

⁵⁸ Council of Europe: <https://www.coe.int/en/web/common-european-framework-reference-languages/level-descriptions>

⁵⁹ Cf. Annex I for the English test in its original version. For complete chapter on test validation, see Madrid Fernández et al. 2021.

and regional Orders, as well as the regional curriculum and minimum content points for this particular subject. The bilingual textbook used for the History course of fourth of CSE was explored to ensure that the elements and material that were to be on the final test were covered throughout the school year and intervention program. The choice to use an originally created and adapted test for the content measurement was due to the unique CLIL nature of this class, and the desire to ensure a complete and well-rounded assessment of the students that wholly aligned with the curriculum they saw during the year. As the class was lectured in English, the test was also in English, which again justifies the use of an original test.

The test features a variety of question types, including fill-in-the-blank, multiple choice, short answer, matching, and open cloze, while also featuring translations for many of the questions as a way to cater to the students with low L2 competence levels with an aim to allow these students to be properly evaluated in the content, and not have the L2 impede their ability to show the knowledge they retained, for purposes related to the study; that is, separating content acquisition from English competence. The textbook explored was the same one used throughout the academic school year: *Secondary Education Geography and History: 4* (Agulló et al., 2017).

4.3.5.3. Test administration

All three tests related to linguistic and content competences (L1, L2, and content) were administered a bit differently. As previously stated, there was no unique L1 test created for this study, but the final exams were used as proxy, thus, the intervention program did not see the specific administration of these tests, but they were carried out in the subject of Spanish language. For the content subject, the pre-test was not administered at the beginning of the year, but base content level was inferred from the final exam grades of the students from the academic year preceding the intervention program. Finally, the L2 tests were administered twice: at the beginning and at the end of the academic year in which the intervention program took place (2018/2019).

For the tests related to motivation and verbal intelligence, the process of administering the tests took place over the course of a two-day period at the beginning of the academic year. The first day consisted in the distribution and completion of the verbal intelligence test, while day two featured the completion of the motivation tests.

4.3.5.4. Test assessment

To categorize the students by level in terms of English and overall academic performance, their grades were taken from the final exams from the content subject (History) and L1 (Spanish)

from the previous academic year as well as the English pre-test. Once all the grades had been amassed, cut-off points for each level were established and students were grouped one by one into each corresponding cluster (under, normal, over) for each variable by trichotomizing scores. In terms of motivation and verbal intelligence, the previously mentioned tests that were corrected and cut-off points for each level were established, thus grouping the students one by one into each. Finally, for further individualization purposes, the remaining academic subjects were considered and examined individually for each student. When all the grades and scores had sorted the students by variable, they were then sorted into a final, definitive tier based on all previous information obtained, as well as taking into account miscellaneous information such as newcomer students, neurodivergences, and L1⁶⁰.

4.3.6. Qualitative data collection process

4.3.6.1. Questionnaire design

The questionnaires have been specifically designed focusing on attention to diversity in the CLIL program. There are three different questionnaire formats, depending on the target audience (teacher, student, or parent). The *ADiBE* team (Pérez Cañado et al., 2023) designed the questionnaires with a view to “determine how attention to diversity in CLIL is being tackled at all curricular and organizational levels” (p. 1023). These instruments are the first of their kind and are pioneers in this endeavor, which have been designed “taking into account the latest research and following a double-fold validation process” (p. 1024). The authors touch upon the particularities of the instruments:

They are also distinctive in following a largely parallel structure and in considering a series of identification variables which allow for both within- and across-cohort comparisons. As they have been developed within four broader governmentally-funded research projects, they have been successfully applied in six different European countries and thus allow for replicability in different contexts (location triangulation): Primary and Secondary Education, private and public schools, and rural and urban contexts. They thus enable a comprehensive program evaluation of diversity-sensitive CLIL implementation according to its frontline stakeholders (idem, 2023, p. 1024).

The instruments include background and demographic questions, as well as opinion questions as a way to gauge respondents’ opinions and thoughts on CLIL. As mentioned by Brown (2001), it was deemed crucial to include a demographic portion on the questionnaires for personal

⁶⁰ Cf. section 4.3.7. for more thorough detailing on the establishment of the tiers.

information collection purposes, so as to have an insight into the participants' biographical situation, since the students and parents were not interviewed individually as the teachers were. They begin with six to 12 questions (depending on the audience), soliciting information regarding demographics and background information with a view to withdraw biographical information from the respondent (SES proxy, to allow for within-cohort comparison in terms of a series of variables), followed by a series of opinion questions aimed at investigating the respondents' thoughts, views, reactions, and overall outlook on the CLIL program implemented at their school.

This instrument was both self- and group-administered, depending on the audience: parents and teachers the former, and students the latter. The types of questions include fill-in, short-answer and Likert-scale featuring six options that ranged from "Strongly disagree" to "Strongly agree", allowing for the avoidance of the central tendency error (Pérez Cañado et al., 2023) as well as certain options such as "I don't know" or "Does not apply". To foment simplicity and make the process as straightforward and encourage a quicker pace for those filling them out, closed-response items prevail, and only one short-answer is included (idem, 2023).

Following the section on demographics, the questionnaires include various blocks, or themes, related to attention to diversity measures in CLIL. The questions vary regarding the audience, featuring 47 on the student and parent versions, and a few more (60 items) in the case of the teacher version. Although the questionnaires "deal with practically the same information", the teacher version includes a final, unique section in which they, the teachers, are instructed to rank, from most to least important, aspects related to difficulties, best practices, and teacher training needs (idem, 2023, p. 1025).

The contents of the questionnaires are grouped into five blocks, and different items are featured depending on the audience:

1. Linguistic aspects (nine items on the teacher questionnaires; seven items on the student and parent version).
2. Methodology and types of groupings (16 items teacher version; 15 items on the student and parent version).
3. Materials and resources (nine items on the teacher questionnaires; five items on the student and parent version).
4. Assessment (12 items on the teacher questionnaires; 12 items on student and parent version).
5. Teacher collaboration and development (16 items on the teacher questionnaires; eight items on the student and parent version).

Pertaining to the content of the instruments and a more in-depth view of each thematic block, they constitute items based on consultations from researchers in the *ADiBE* project in countries around Europe, as well as the latest bilingual education research findings, centering on “how catering for diversity in CLIL programs is playing out on all curricular and organizational fronts” (Pérez Cañado et al., 2023, p. 1023).

The first block, *linguistic aspects*, is important for the topic of diversity since linguistically and content-wise these are problematic areas for CLIL instructors (Siepmann et al., 2023). Included in this section is the role of the L1 *and* how it is providing, or not, strategic support for translanguaging (Pavón Vázquez & Ramos Ordóñez, 2019). Also probed are knowledge and use of BICS and CALP, given this is a noted deficiency in teacher development (Pérez Cañado, 2016b).

The second section, *methodology and groupings*, is included since CLIL “is held to entail a thorough overhaul of the way in which language and content teaching are envisaged in moving from a transmissive model of education to meaningful, communicative teaching, based on constructivism and learning by doing” (Pérez Cañado et al. 2023, p. 1027), and it is still unknown whether the methodological aspects of CLIL implementation are being satisfactorily carried out in grassroots classrooms, due to the incongruence between theory and practice in CLIL that has been noted by researchers (e.g. Breidbach & Viebrock, 2012; Cabezas Cabello, 2010). In addition, questions pertaining to the use of student-centered methodologies and differentiated groupings are featured in the questionnaires since these have been deemed necessary in the past as fundamental for inclusive bilingual education. Furthermore, as Pérez Cañado et al. (2023) highlight, these strategies have been “mentioned as the key for the sustainability of CLIL programs by teachers polled in previous studies” (p. 1027, referencing Pérez Cañado, 2018b).

As for the justification of the third section, pertaining to *materials and resources*, this is one of the primary concerns for quality CLIL implementation, given that serious lacunae in this area has plagued CLIL for years: a plethora of authors have warned about lack of materials “as one of the major roadblocks to successful differentiation in CLIL” (Pérez Cañado, et al., 2023, p. 7, referencing Fernández & Halbach, 2011; Pena Díaz & Porto Requejo, 2008; Pérez Cañado, 2016b, 2016c, 2018; Roiha, 2014). Thus, this important facet of the questionnaires seeks to gauge how CLIL materials are being dealt with at the moment related to diversity and differentiation, given that “teachers feel deterred by the challenge inherent in having to find, create, design, or adapt diversity-sensitive teaching materials and this consequently becomes a major niche to be filled” (idem, 2023, p. 8).

For the fourth section, *assessment measures*, the questions in this block actively seek to discern if catering to diversity is happening in the evaluation aspect of CLIL, and in what forms

this differentiation is happening, per opinions related to strategies being employed related to the various types of evaluation (formative, summative, self- and peer-assessment). This is pertinent to the diversity docket due to the fact that CLIL evaluation is changing, and requires the use and appraisal of both conversational and academic language functions, in addition to evaluating content objectives. Evaluation in CLIL is taking on a new approach to assessing students, how they are using language socially, formally and academically, prioritizing “communicative intent in terms of language functions” over “linguistic accuracy or grammatical correction” (idem, 2023, p. 9).

Finally, the last block, *teacher collaboration and coordination*, has been included given the fact that much of what happens behind closed doors in a classroom is unknown, and teachers might be burdened with the task of lesson creation from an individual perspective if they are not aware of how to collaborate with their peers in CLIL. Correspondingly, pertinent to this block, the evaluation of the multi-tiered support system in the CLIL school is gauged, through opinions related to the presence and aid of support measures including guidance counselors, language assistants and parental support.

Through the responses to these questions, research conclusions are hoped to be drawn so as to assess the overall situation of CLIL and attention to diversity in different bilingual programs in contexts within Andalusia and around Europe.

Brown’s (2001) guidelines were taken into consideration so as to guarantee a complete and valid instrument. The questions are concise, to the point, and worded carefully, with a view to avoid ambiguity. There are no loaded, biased, or double-barrelled questions and only specific, relevant, and understandable items are included. Furthermore, the questions are grouped into thematic blocks, accompanied by clear instructions, effective use of spacing and readable, decently sized font. Prior to use, the items underwent an editing process by means of a double pilot procedure. As proposed by Brown (2001), questionnaires administered in groups correspond to one of the survey tools used to gather opinions from the stakeholders involved. These questions follow the identification variables previously mentioned from the study and are adapted to their corresponding cohort⁶¹.

The authors (Pérez Cañado et al., 2023) are confident that by using these instruments in various contexts around Europe (including rural and urban settings; public and private schools;

⁶¹ Cf. Annexes II-IV for the questionnaires in their original versions.

high and low SES settings; and in countries with widely disparate LL customs, frameworks and requirements), “a comprehensive and empirically valid picture” of CLIL and its workings in monolingual regions around Europe can be painted, which in turn will reveal “a precise description of the way in which CLIL is working with different types of achievers” (p. 1029). Ultimately, the overall aim of these instruments, and the ADiBE project in general:

is to contribute to the integration of all students, regardless of their socioeconomic status, educational background, or achievement level and to contribute to making CLIL accessible to all. The transnational nature of the enterprise is absolutely pivotal, as learning from the best practices of others is key to continue advancing on this front (idem, 2023, p. 1029).

4.3.6.2. Questionnaire validation

The questionnaires were edited and validated through a double pilot process in their three versions corresponding to each cohort (students, teachers, parents). A pilot study was carried out with a representative sample of students and the responses allowed for the subsequent fine-tuning of said instrument, as well as serving to guarantee the questionnaire’s reliability and internal consistency. Upon reviewing the first draft of the questionnaire, a team of five external experts provided guidance on content, vagueness, clarification, rewording, supplementary information, specification, and length of questions. Once this process was concluded, the second draft was piloted with a representative sample of stakeholders with the same traits as the target audiences. This allowed for the creation of the final version, free of ambiguities, misunderstandings, or repetitive content, thus guaranteeing its reliability as a trustworthy instrument for the investigation. Subsequently, Cronbach alpha was used to confirm the internal consistency through the high coefficients in the three questionnaires: 0.871 (students), 0.858 (teachers) and 0.940 (parents). This calculation was used for the questionnaire as a whole and for each of its parts⁶².

4.3.6.3. Questionnaire administration

The administration of the student questionnaires took place towards the end of the academic school year in June 2019. The end of the intervention program was regarded as a key period to investigate stakeholder perspectives, as previously mentioned. The student questionnaires were group-administered, whereas the teacher questionnaires were distributed individually. The parent questionnaires, for their part, were sent home over Easter holiday. The

⁶² Cf. Pérez Cañado et al., 2023 for detailed information regarding instrument design and validation.

student questionnaires were administered during class periods and were executed over a two-day period. However, as the teacher questionnaires were distributed individually and followed up by the interview process, these took place sporadically throughout the year. For their part, the teachers were given time to fill out the questionnaire at their discretion, whereas the students were instructed to fill out the questionnaires during a CLIL lesson.

4.3.6.4. Interviews

Accompanying the aforementioned questionnaires, semi-structured interviews were used as the second qualitative tool and were designed for methodological triangulation in addition to observation and were undertaken with the teacher cohort only. The interviews were carried out face-to-face, on an individual basis, following the completion of the questionnaires. Interview protocol was borrowed from the Mon-CLIL Project (Pérez Cañado, 2016) The interviews were semi-structured, with straightforward questions based on the items from the questionnaires, but interviewees were allowed time to elaborate on any item or topic with a view to acquire and gain insight into the overall assessment of catering to diversity in CLIL. The questions used were the same format and sequence as the thematic blocks featured in the questionnaires for the purpose of gaining more specific details, serving to “enrich the quantitative dataset provided by the surveys and to determine whether the latter is actually present at the grassroots level via the observation protocols” (Pérez Cañado et al. 2023, p. 1029).

The teacher interviews were done individually so as to cultivate a sense of trust and, hence, have them be more inclined to elaborate on their answers and be honest, owing to a greater sense of confidentiality. All six teachers consented to having their interviews audio recorded⁶³. These interviews worked to ensure the responses on the questionnaires were valid and not contradicting what the teachers actually believed or were actually implementing in class, which might be different than what they thought they should be doing or believing.

For the qualitative analysis of the interviews, it was determined beforehand that Thematic Analysis (henceforth, TA) would be employed to code and interpret the data. This widely used, but lesser-known, analytic method was used to substantiate the interview analysis. The reason TA has been chosen for our investigation and analysis of the interviews is due to its flexible nature and given its ability to interpret data in a complex and complete manner (Braun & Clarke, 2006).

⁶³ Cf. Annex V for transcripts of the interviews.

Another advantage to this theory is it is not bound "to any pre-existing theoretical framework, and so it can be used within different theoretical frameworks [...]" (idem, 2006, p. 9).

Thematic analysis is defined as "a method for identifying, analyzing and reporting patterns (themes) within data. It minimally organizes and describes your data set in rich detail [and] often goes further than this and interprets various aspects of the research topic" (idem, 2006, p. 6, referencing Boyatzis, 1998). Regarding the decision to use TA in place of Grounded Theory, the authors wax on the limitations of the latter, going so far as to call it a "light version" and thus, argue "that a named and claimed thematic analysis means researchers need not subscribe to the implicit theoretical commitments of grounded theory if they do not wish to produce a fully worked-up grounded theory analysis" (p. 8).

When it comes to decision-making, TA inherently "involves a number of choices which are often not made explicit [...] but which need explicitly to be considered and discussed" (idem, 2006, p. 9). According to the authors, themes are important to be considered when thinking about analyzing any data set, since research judgment is needed to determine the themes in the data set. In order to categorize and identify themes in the open-response data, a six-phase process is carried out.

1. Phase one (*data familiarity phase*). The data is transcribed and the researcher/interviewer studies the data to familiarize themselves with the "depth and breadth of the content" (p. 17). This includes reading the data several times and searching for patterns and more. The entire data set is read through more than once before coding began to become familiar with all the ideas and possible patterns, or themes, that might be identified. Albeit a time-consuming process, reading and re-reading the data is necessary to serve as the base upon which the rest of the analysis is to be built. Note-taking begins in this phase and ideas for coding that would be used in the following phases are written down, all as a precursor to the formal coding process. The authors (Braun & Clark, 2006) emphasize that time spent transcribing is "not wasted" and, although it can be "frustrating", it is completely necessary for the early stages and allows the researcher to be far more in tune with the data at hand: "Furthermore, the close attention needed to transcribe data may facilitate the close-reading and interpretation skills needed to analyze the data" (p. 18). For this reason, the researcher who conducted the interviews also transcribed them and subsequently, thematically analyzed them.
2. Phase two (*initial codes creation phase*). Following the transcription and familiarization of the data, a general list is created about interesting ideas found in the data. From this list, the creation of initial codes is produced. These codes "identify a feature of the data (semantic content or latent) that appears interesting to the analyst" (p. 18). The entire

data set is worked through in a systematic way, paying equal attention to each item and interesting aspects were identified which would later form the themes or repeated patterns that would be found across the data set. The coding takes place manually, by printing out the transcripts and coding the data with highlighters which indicated patterns. Post-its are also used to include notes on portions or segments of the data. Many potential themes are coded during this phase as possible and individual segments of the data were coded several times, whilst some not at all.

3. Phase three (*thematic search*). All of the different codes are subsequently sorted into prospective themes and relevant data points are coded into the identified themes. The codes are analyzed and different codes are mixed and combined to begin forming “overarching” themes (p. 19), which are the same thematic blocks previously mentioned from the ADiBE instruments (linguistic aspects, methodology and groupings, materials and resources, assessment, teacher collaboration and development), plus an additional theme of “attention to diversity” which was created to be able to sort the data that pertained to this recurring theme. Codes are sorted manually into themes in a visual representation by using a table into which the codes can be put by different themes and subsequently manipulated, playing around with the codes and organizing them into piles. In this phase, the relationship between codes, themes and different levels of themes is examined. It is in this stage that certain codes that do not actually fall into any category are removed. No data points or codes are abandoned at this stage and all extracts are kept, ensuring that in the future they could be kept the same, combined with others, refined, separated or done away with.
4. Phase 4 (*thematic appraisal*). In this phase, the themes established are refined and it becomes clear if some of the potential themes created during the previous phases are not actually themes. There are two levels of review and refinement of themes by scrutinizing the themes to see if any patterns form and are able to be coded at a second level, contrasted with data points that do not “fit into a coherent pattern” (p. 20) or did not fit into any of the six categories mentioned in phase three. For themes that do not fit into a coherent pattern and are not taken to the second level, the theme is either readjusted if it is deemed dysfunctional or the data extracts are reviewed to see if some did not actually belong where they had been previously sorted.
5. Phase five (*defining and naming of themes phase*). This phase begins after a *thematic map* of the data has been achieved. It is in this phase that the themes presented for analysis are given their definite definition or further refined and the data is analyzed. Each of the collated data extracts from the different themes are reviewed and organized “into coherent and internally consistent accounts, with accompanying narrative” (p. 22). It is very important that the data is not simply paraphrased but the interesting parts are

established and *why* are considered in the themes and “each theme in relation to the others” (p. 22). At the end of phase five, the themes are clearly defined so the themes of each section? can be understood perfectly.

6. Phase six (*report creation phase*). This phase begins after the themes are complete and involves the final analysis and report generation, linking each of the themes back to the RQs and having the themes shine through the data points. The analytic claims need to both be “grounded in” but “go beyond the surface” of the data” and must ask questions like: “What does this theme mean? What are the assumptions underpinning it? What are the implications of this theme? What does the overall story of the different themes reveal about the topic?” (p. 24)

Overall, an important aspect of TA considered to ensure solidity in the process given the flexibility of this particular analysis procedure, was to be “clear and explicit” about the purpose is as well as ensuring that both theory and method are employed methodologically and consistently” (p. 27).

4.3.6.5. Focus groups

Student focus groups were the last point of data collection for the qualitative side of the study and served as proxy for interviews, due to the time-consuming nature of individual interviews with over 60 students. The focus groups were done during the second half of the school year. Five focus groups took place, with three to five students per group on average with a total of 20 students participating in the focus groups. These sessions were voluntary, and took place outside during breaks. To begin, a recap of the study and objectives was given to the group, followed by an exchange of opinions, experiences, and subjective views of the bilingual classes. The information collected was then transcribed and encoded to ensure triangulation. The questions posed in the focus groups followed the thematic blocks from the questionnaires. Like the direct observations, these focus groups were not video recorded.

It should be noted that no focus groups took place with the parent cohort due to incompatible schedules and mobility issues, although informal telephone conversations were had with some of the cohort who did not understand some of the items on the questionnaires.

4.3.6.6. Classroom observations

Complementing the interviews were direct observation, in the form of classroom observations during two CLIL lessons. The subjects were Business and Biology, both of which were 55 minutes long and featured two of the teachers who participated in the study. The direct observations took place in standard classrooms, during which the observer took notes on both

teacher and student behavior. Due to privacy laws, the direct observations were not filmed, but detailed notes were taken during the hours of observations. The students and the teacher knew they were being observed and had been told at which hour and day the observer would be coming to the class. The observation note-taking focused on the blocks from the questionnaires (linguistic aspects, methodology and groupings, materials and resources, evaluation, collaboration, and support) and an additional category for attention to diversity to compare theoretical notions to practicality on behalf of both the students and teachers. There was also a second (shorter) direct observation period specifically for examination purposes, so the observation protocol related to the assessment facet of the class could be completely properly.

The observation protocol followed Hora's (2015) TDOP procedure and coding techniques to more objectively and descriptively record the behavior observed⁶⁴. The TDOP is a descriptive observation protocol that allows observers to make more fully complete descriptions and observations of classroom behavior amongst students and teachers. It was developed in 2009 and originally created to observe 1st and 2nd grade of CSE in North American Science classrooms. Since then, it has been used by countless North American researchers and is available online (Hora & Ferrare, 2014). This observation protocol was selected by the researcher since it prides itself on being able to depict the learning environment instead of judging or evaluating the quality of the teaching taking place, being more objective rather than subjective. Defending its use, Hora (2015) proposes that this protocol "can be used to document classroom dynamics in a nuanced and rigorous manner" (p. 783). As it was specifically created for use in Science classrooms, it was tailored for the Business class for the purposes of our study.

Per the TDOP guidelines (Hora & Ferrare, 2015) there was a pre-observation meeting with the teachers to be observed (two in this particular study) in order to get more background information about the class and the session to be observed (number of students, course level, planned activities, topic, etc.), as well as to give sufficient notice beforehand as to when the observation was going to take place. The teacher had given their consent and had chosen the day of the observations, giving ample time for preparation and the utmost flexibility was allowed. Following the pre-observation meeting, the researcher observed the two CLIL lessons, and used some of the codes listed in the TDOP. The codes were based on either student- or teacher-based behavior and were a categorical way to record the activities that took place during the lesson.

⁶⁴ Cf. Annex VI for observation protocol and detailed TDOP guidelines.

The observation protocol used statements based on the ones from the three questionnaires, using all three to create a series of neutral statements based on teacher and student behavior in five of the six blocks as pertinent to CLIL methodology (the last aspect, teacher training, was not included as there were no pertinent observations related to this block).

4.3.6.7. Data analysis: statistical methodology

The SPSS program in its 25.0 version was used to aid in the process of performing statistical analysis. The data taken from the qualitative part of the study was statistically analyzed, in the case of the closed-response items in the questionnaires, and through Thematic Analysis via data coding and conclusion drawing, for the responses obtained from the semi-structured interviews.

For Metaconcern 1, there are three research questions (RQ1-3) that focus specifically on how CLIL is affecting students' L2 acquisition. Research Questions 1 and 2 were analyzed with Wilcoxon signed-ranked test, with the objective of comparing the three levels of achievers as they had been sorted into levels by gender, SES, the four motivational factors, and verbal intelligence to determine whether statistically significant differences were found, in terms of the moderating variables considered. Furthermore, Rosenthal's r was employed as a way to determine effect sizes with the correlation coefficient r as a way to measure the strength between our variables. For RQ3, discriminant analysis was undertaken with an aim to determine the degree to which each variable accounted for influenced the quantitative results within each tier.

Regarding Metaconcern 2, four research questions (RQ 4-7) were included to gauge CLIL's effect on L1 acquisition and content mastery. In the same vein as the previously mentioned process for Metaconcern 1, all four Research Questions in this block were analyzed with Wilcoxon signed-rank tests as a way to compare the three tiers in terms of the moderating variables presented to conclude if any statistically significant differences were found. Again, Rosenthal's r was used to determine effect sizes with the correlation coefficient r .

For Metaconcern 3, five research questions (RQ 8-12) were devised to gauge stakeholders' perceptions and satisfaction with the CLIL program. For the first RQ, descriptive statistics for central tendency, mean, median and mode were computed, as well as dispersion measures such as standard deviation, minimums, and maximums. For the remaining four RQs (9-12), the ANOVA and paired t-tests were utilized once again, in order to determine if statistically significant differences were to be had between the cohorts, taking into consideration the moderating and identification variables for each group. Cohen's d and Eta squared were employed to determine effect sizes. As for the post-hoc analyses, Kruskal-Willis and Mann-Whitney U tests

were used. Correspondingly, for RQ 8, to qualitatively analyze the responses from the semi-structured interviews and direct observation, *Thematic Analysis* (Braun & Clarke, 2006) was used as a way to undertake data encoding and draw conclusions.

4.3.7. Intervention program

4.3.7.1. Contextual specifications

The Intervention program was carried out in a high school in southern Spain, in the province of Cádiz within the autonomous community of Andalucía. Located in a monolingual region of Spain where very little extracurricular English exposure is available outside of paid-for activities and English learning programs, this school thrives on its FL offering and strong tradition with CLIL, featuring bilingual classes throughout all Primary and Secondary grades. The school itself is located in Cádiz, with a population of just over 100,000. The school offers four separate levels of studies: from pre-kindergarten to second grade of grade of Baccalaureate (three to 18 years of age). The SES level of the school is overall quite high, as most families that belong to the school can be classified as medium-high to high-SES and the school itself is located in an expensive and prestigious neighborhood.

Within the premises, facilities are numerous and include a technology lab, library, full-sized football fields, two playgrounds, one fully-equipped chemical laboratory, several multi-purpose rooms, two computer labs (for Primary and Secondary), and a large gym. The school also boasts a device lending program, in which students in Primary school are able to use tablets and computers throughout the day, which belong to the school and stay in the classroom. Students in Secondary and Baccalaureate are asked to bring their own devices from home. There was no type of monitoring system for these personal devices although certain websites could be blocked from being accessed. However, app use was not monitored. The classrooms were average sized, although in recent years, after a surge in student population, some classrooms had been divided into two; therefore, classroom size ranges quite a bit from spacious, fully capable of holding 30 desks comfortably, to quite small, where a maximum of 25 desks could fit cramped together. Most Secondary classrooms held between 24 and 27 desks, not including the teacher's desk.

The typical Secondary classrooms had a whiteboard, although some had a blackboard as well. All of the classrooms had a digital projector system installed in the ceiling that was used with the whiteboard. The majority of the classrooms had one whiteboard but a good percentage had two. There were no smartboards in Secondary classrooms. Most of the rooms had two to three bookshelves, as well as hooks for hanging bags and jackets. The desks were single, free floating desks, and some had chairs attached while others had free floating chairs. Most of the

classrooms had the desks arranged either in rows or in groups. For English classes, the English department had CD players and speakers that were shared among the department.

The teacher-student ratio adheres to the normal Andalusian ratio, around 25 to 1. However, some of the grades, especially in the last years of Primary school and obligatory Secondary grades (1st to 4th of CSE) and, thus, class sizes, are quite large, averaging 27, with the maximum number reaching 29 students at the time of the study. In the particular year of the Intervention Program, the classes in fourth of CSE had not yet been affected by the surge in student population and featured relatively small class sizes, with 18, 21, and 22 students in each, respectively. It should be noted that, the year after the study took place, class sizes in fourth of CSE rose drastically: there were four classes with 25, 26, 27, and 28 students in each, mimicking the class sizes seen in the grades below. Each grade, starting in Primary school, had four separate classes, although this still had not reached Baccalaureate, where there were still only two major divisions, depending on the students' interest of study. In Primary school, there are support teachers that provide an additional presence in some of the classrooms. Teachers at the school were organized by departments, although some departments only consisted of one teacher. For the departments that had multiple teachers (languages, mainly) hours were allotted during the week to meet for coordination purposes.

The relationship between parents and teachers at the school was quite tight-knit. The parents, on average, are quite involved in the academics of their offspring, although there was no parent association present at this school, nor any demand for this. The majority of the parents were frequently in contact with the teachers and meeting with the teachers on demand was the norm.

At the time of the study, the school had over 1,500 students and close to 100 teachers. As a bilingual institution, this school had a high number of non-Spanish nationals employed as teachers. As for working hours, Secondary school teachers teach 32 classroom hours a week, plus three hours for duties related to substitutions or playground duty. Most of the teachers have been at the school for over 10 years, with a good portion of them having been there close to 20, many of them since the school was founded in the late 1990s.

4.3.7.2. Introduction

CLIL is the answer for LL, per Marsh (2017), but it is only when it is implemented under sound conditions that its effectiveness can be guaranteed, since CLIL is not just a bringing together of language and content, but a phenomenon that goes far beyond. It is the "quality learning environment" which is the hallmark of this revolutionary pedagogy (idem, 2017, p. 9).

In order to ensure CLIL schemes are carried out in quality conditions, catering to diversity is “an urgent matter to attend to”, given the varying needs present in one singular class, and, thus, “educators have a responsibility to maximize opportunities for all children to learn, and, as a corollary, remove barriers to learning” (Mitchell, 2018, p. 94).

Marsh (2017) highlights the elements that CLIL combines, including “holistic education, competence-based learning, learner autonomy, fostering creativity, and critical thinking, changing curricula on how to learn (not what to learn) and recognizing the relevance and impact technology has on the lives of our students” (p. 9). It was the joining of these elements whilst accommodating learner variance in the classroom that guided the intervention program. The main goal was a sound CLIL implementation through the subject of History during one academic year that specifically focused on differentiating instruction for the varying types of achievers and needs in the classroom.

Overall, the intervention program intended to ensure that the entirety of the 61 students, equitably, received a quality learning experience, by adhering strictly to principles guiding diversity and inclusion measures, taking into account students’ individualities, and using flexible teaching methods to cater to all students as they needed. This was, and continues to be, a challenge and, although it is now being taken on by teachers and governments with great resilience and determination, it requires a change both bottom up and top down, as highlighted by Mitchell (2018):

Educators have no greater responsibility than to take urgent steps to improve the quality of education received by children who are, for one reason or another, disadvantaged by circumstances over which they have no control. This is a daunting challenge to all leaders in education – in every country (p. 5).

Albeit hailing from one private, Secondary school, diversity was rampant in the students featured in the intervention program. This should come as no revelation since, when it comes to heterogeneity, today’s multinational and globalized world, coupled with immigration and migration, both of which are on the uptick (Gurría, 2019; OECDa, 2019), have made classrooms more diverse than ever before. More specifically, changes in demographics in any given country mean that educators and leaders alike are faced with the challenge of redesigning classrooms to better attend to learners who are different culturally, linguistically, racially, economically, and academically (Tomlinson, 2017). Many of these differences were of particular importance to the intervention program at hand: a significant percentage of the students were not of Spanish origin, hailing from other European countries, the UK, China, and South America. Liasidou (2013) attests to the changes in the 21st century:

Globalization and the gradual blurring of national barriers have precipitated unprecedented demographic shifts that have altered ethnic homogeneity in many parts of the world. The influx of immigrant students in many English-speaking western-centric countries necessitates new pedagogical considerations regarding the ways in which educational systems should accommodate learner diversity on the basis of their ability and linguistic/cultural differences (p. 12).

As well as cultural and linguistic differences, other situations were present that required diversity adaptation measures in addition to the wide spectrum of academic ability, such as newcomers to the school and the students that presented learning difficulties. Even for classrooms that are homogeneous on the surface, featuring many same-nationality students with similar levels of SES, demographical similarities are hardly a cause to believe all students are internally comparable. The reality is learner variations are present within each individual student, despite surface appearances. Consequently, the mounting pressure to fully attend to diversity was not ignored, in a bid to gauge first-hand if CLIL can be inclusive for all students, a necessary step to take if bilingual education is to fit the bill for the 21st century.

As previously mentioned and detailed in the literature review, experts agree that millions of students around the world have behavioral and learning disorders, including the more commonly known such as: Attention Deficit Disorder (ADD), Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD), Autism Spectrum Disorder (ASD), and Dyslexia, as well as lesser known, yet estimated to be relatively common disorders, such as Dyscalculia (which affects the ability to deal with numbers), Dysgraphia (affecting the ability to convert sounds into written language), and Asperger's (now typically diagnosed as a form of ASD). Coupled with these is another major issue, yet to be categorized formally as a disorder, but affecting adolescents on a large-scale: anxiety. For his part, Prentis (2016) categorizes anxiety as a learning disability, maintaining it can cause students to perform worse, by inhibiting their ability and, consequently, the author feels compelled to declare anxiety as one of the most widespread health issues facing the Western world today. This held true in the intervention program, per the results of Pelechano's (2014) M-A test administered at the beginning of the year, in which over 30% of students were categorized as having anxiety relating to exams and, later during the focus groups and student interviews, some acknowledged verbally that they suffer from anxiety, some students speaking about their prescriptions for this medical condition.

Undoubtedly, teaching for such a diverse student population is no easy feat. There is a bifocal explanation, according to Mitchell (2018), who signals two challenges facing educators today: first, developing education for the diverse students in our classrooms today; and second, albeit of no less importance, implementing this system successfully, something which requires a radical *transformation* of education. This drastic change must take place if we intend to help the

“vulnerable”, as well as develop a society equitable for all (idem, 2018, p. 1). In that same vein, the author denotes five main pillars when it comes to diversity: gender, SES, ethnicity, religious beliefs, and disabilities.

There is a bit of a gray area when it comes to celebrating and increasing awareness about diversity in its many forms, mainly, making students feel integrated and included, while at the same time continuing to praise and honor their differences. Some teachers may feel apprehensive about this if they have no clear guidelines about how to do so. This fine, and at times obscure, line between celebrating diversity whilst maintaining a cohesive unity between students can be difficult to field. To guide the approach in the intervention program, questions proposed by Mitchell (2018) were pondered (p. 3):

- To what extent should I [the teacher] seek to achieve homogeneity of values, achievement and behavior among students?
- To what extent should I [the teacher] attempt to assimilate those who are perceived to differ from the mainstream of society?
- What differences should I [the teacher] celebrate and enhance?
- Does the aspiration for social cohesion lead to marginalizing those who are different?

These powerful questions served to contemplate the importance of cohesion parallel with cultural respect and honor. Paradoxically, the same diversity that enriches the classroom is what makes teaching more laborious. The intention of the intervention program was to harness the diversity present and use it as an advantage point in the lesson planning, to enrich the activities and to promote a more cohesive, empathetic, and civil class. While students do, naturally, have many things in common, they also have many peculiarities that set them apart and make them unique. These differences were identified, acknowledged, and celebrated, instead of trying to mould the learners into a typical student. The importance of understanding and appreciating diversity might not be easy at first, but is well worth the extra labor. This was done by taking the lead from authors Julius and Madrid (2017), who confirm that it was easier for professors to value the diversity of students in bilingual programs at university once it became standard procedure for students to fill out a document that allowed for insight related to various aspects pertaining to the students' studies, preferences, and goals. These characteristics, the authors note, are necessary to know for bilingual classes, since CLIL “requires a customized approach and operational guidelines”, making the heterogeneity of the students the crux of the class (p. 24). Some questions similar to these were used in the intervention program to help guide class design and material creation so as to be adequate for the diverse students. Questions addressed at the beginning of the year included language skills, academic strengths and weaknesses, and historical or geographical interests.

With learner variance as the guiding principle, the intervention program put into practice an array of tactics to, as Liasidou (2013) acknowledges, in order to “address effectively and efficiently [the students’] full continuum of needs” (p. 11). Cultural and linguistic diversity were present throughout all planning, given the wide range of cultures and nationalities in the class. CLIL methodology allowed for the co-existence of all students’ languages in the classroom and supported the various linguistic and cultural backgrounds of all students, which served to enrich the learning that took place (Summers, 2017). The English language was the main medium of instruction, while Spanish was used to guide and support learners. Chinese, as a language, was also given periodic importance to promote learning and motivation in some of the learners who held neither English nor Spanish as the L1 or L2, and these students were also given ample time for translation. Overall, a sense of a diverse but unified community was fostered from the start. In this same vein, cooperation was facilitated to the highest degree possible between all members of the class and competition minimized entirely.

The intervention program emphasized a *putting it into practice* methodology, given, as Marsh (2017) points out, that these students no longer are the generation of “tell me why” but form a part of the “show me how generation” (p. 9). Given the subject featured in the intervention program, History, it was of particular importance to keep the content and topics relevant for the students, breathing life into “the modern learning mindset” (idem, 2017, p. 9) by offering the students knowledge that was connected with life today and information they could use now. It is for this exact reason that the CLIL classes were dynamic, interesting, and, above all, useful, heeding the undeniable fact that most students will not be motivated to study if they do not think their classes are benefitting them or their future (Julius & Madrid, 2017).

In today’s educational environment, educators may find themselves teaching growing numbers of students. In this particular year, the classes in the intervention program featured relatively small class-sizes: three classes with 18, 21, and 22 students in each, respectively. Getting to know each student on a personal level was one of the main tasks the teacher faces at the beginning of each academic year and, heeding warning from UNESCO (2016), dedicating time each day to the less participative students, or those who were shy or timid, including the new or foreign students, which was made a top priority. All of the students were given personalized time from the teacher, since “it is still common to find that some students feel left out or overlooked. These may not be the obvious ones who are known to be vulnerable” (idem, 2016, p. 154).

In that same vein, respecting the knowledge that a central part to any CLIL class is having educators who “examine [their] own expectations of [their] students and remember that all students matter and all students deserve the same opportunities to bring out the very best part of themselves [...]” (Marsh, 2017, p. 9), individually evaluating each student in the classroom was

given critical importance, simultaneously with assessing readiness⁶⁵ levels in both content and language, as well as target level and interest in both. Information about students was facilitated with the help of the teachers from previous years, but this information was supplemented, given predispositions and assumptions about a student's capabilities based on results, which is one of the main detriments to any student's ability or achievement. This is why it was of the utmost importance in the intervention program to fully assess each student regardless of their academic situation in past years. It has been found (Drace et al., 2019; Mitchell, 2018) that students might be performing in a certain way due to beliefs they have about themselves or have internalized throughout the years, which could, in turn, be affecting their achievement. Many students may not be optimizing their potential due to predispositions about their abilities. This is not only detrimental to kids' mental health, by having them think, or even believe, negative thoughts about themselves, but may also lead students to become demotivated and foster apathetic feelings towards studying, or worse, lead to a complete abandonment of hope and desire regarding their education. Thankfully, this can also be remedied; first and foremost, teachers must let go of any predispositions they may have about a student and academic achievement or behavior, believing instead, and transmitting to the class, that any and all students can excel. Similarly, by allowing students to choose from a range of activities based on readiness level and interest, students are permitted to work on material that is suitable for them and their wants and needs, and not forced to do activities that they are unable or have no desire to do. In this same vein, learning was as much for the students as it was for the teacher, heeding Tomlinson's (2017) advice that both parties should be learning simultaneously in the classroom: education is a science and requires periodic reflection and study, which is why teachers have to be constantly assessing and adjusting their methodologies, monitoring to see that each learner is learning properly and effectively.

Inclusive, integrated teaching was the backbone of the program, since the CLIL pedagogy is not focused solely on a foreign language or subject, "but how to teach in general" (Marsh, 2017, p. 9). This reflection on teaching allowed the teacher and students alike to look at the work being done, always with a mindset of improvement or progress on an individual basis. Accordingly, making students feel at ease and comfortable was one of the main objectives during the intervention program, as well as jointly fomenting a positive, collaborative relationship between the students. As put forth by Scanlan (2011), classrooms and schools can be a place of refuge for many students, where they can feel "welcome and liberating", but they can also be places that only further aggravate situations and can be "alienating and confining" (p.5). With

⁶⁵ Tomlinson (2017).

this in mind, seating charts, groupings, and cultural days were used to ensure the classrooms in the intervention program were characteristic of the former, and were accepting and welcoming of all students, a place to celebrate diversity.

There were several concepts that were integral parts of the intervention program, and were used to guide the planning, preparation, execution, and assessment of the subject, which served to add new dimensions to the topics seen throughout the year, including (adapted from OECD, 2018):

- flexibility,
- compassion,
- creativity,
- critical-thinking,
- curiosity,
- empathy,
- collaboration,
- equity,
- global perspectives,
- resilience,
- growth mindset,
- gratitude,
- persistence,
- integrity,
- justice,
- metacognition (learning to learn),
- mindfulness,
- open-mindedness,
- reflective thinking,
- responsibility,
- autonomy,
- problem solving, and
- respect.

The explanation of the intervention program will begin first by looking at the legislation that is guiding diversity in Spain, followed by specifics of the program, including a general timeline, test administration, and subsequent separation of the students into their tiers as under-, normal or overachievers. It will then dive into a rather detailed look into the methodology of the intervention program throughout the academic year, including some of the main pillars which

included intercultural competence and differentiated instruction for the tiers. Moreover, a more comprehensive overview will be given of the materials and resources, task design, L1, and L2 use, and the approach to the assessment process⁶⁶.

4.3.7.3. Legislation for diversity

Concerning Spanish litigation in relation to diversity, the first mention of diversity came in the Organic Education Law (Spanish acronym LOE, *Ley Orgánica de Educación*) in 2006 and just shy of a decade later in the Organic Law for the Improvement of Educational Quality (Spanish acronym LOMCE, *Ley Orgánica de la Mejora Calidad Educativa*). The LOMCE, which came into effect in 2013, “places more emphasis on the capacities of the individual students and their empowerment by emphasizing competitiveness, social mobility and employability” (Julius & Madrid, 2017, p. 17). Most recently, the Organic Law Modifying the Organic Education (Spanish acronym LOMLOE, *Ley Orgánica de Modificación de la LOE*), passed at the end of 2020, brings about new changes in education especially concerning diversity and inclusion policies (cf. section 2.3.3. for Spanish legislation on diversity). It modifies the previously mentioned LOE and plans to increase the public spending budget of education by at least five percent of Spain’s GDP (Official State Gazette of the Kingdom of Spain)⁶⁷. Rationalizing this decision, the Spanish government calls the new education law as being fit for the 21st century, highlighting the important role education plays in any society that looks out for the collective well-being of its citizens.

On a European level, legislation specifically regarding diversity in CLIL was backed by the Bologna Declaration in 1999, which goes hand in hand with the ECTS (European Credit Transfer and Accumulation System), a “new system of education” which works to further attention to diversity by measures such as the following (Julius & Madrid, 2017, p. 25):

- Greater emphasis on coursework through projects with an individualized tutorial system;
- greater learner autonomy;
- more classroom participation;
- enhanced creativity;
- further student involvement in classroom decisions;
- a closer rapport between professors and students;
- a deeper concern for students; and,

⁶⁶ Many ideas and concepts from this intervention program have been drawn from several authors and guides (cf. British Council, 2012; Fields, 2017; Reimers et al., 2016; Tomlinson, 2017; Willingham, 2010).

⁶⁷ https://www.boe.es/diario_boe/txt.php?id=BOE-A-2020-17264.

- the responsible implication of such factors in the learning process.

One complaint about the diversity measures in Spain, argue the previously mentioned authors (2017), is the inconsistency in the progression of these measures, specifically the fluctuating measures from grade to grade, few of which are implemented on a stable, homogeneous basis. The measures, the authors contend, start out strong in primary education and even throughout some secondary grades; however, they begin to lose stamina and peter out once students reach Baccalaureate, when attention to diversity changes track. Rather than continuing to cater to those who are affected by learning disabilities or social exclusion factors, for all purposes to “fulfill the principle of equality of opportunities”, diversity measures begin to focus mainly on students with “physical disabilities or sensory impairments”, whilst those with more *invisible* disabilities are not attended to on a regular basis (Julius & Madrid, 2017, p. 18). Not to be trivialized, physical disabilities should not be the only requisite for a student to receive diversity measures in any educational phase, and educators must continue to attend to students of all types, with legislation and concrete guidelines, throughout their entire educational career, with a view to allow each student to reach their full potential as their peculiarities demand (idem, 2017).

Overall, the legislation in Spain regarding attention to diversity is, as stands, in need bolstering if these practices are to be effectively carried out through any student’s educational trajectory. Being an inclusive educator means teaching each student according to their ability and that means not only being aware of diversity and learner variance, but accepting and adapting for this. During the intervention program, this was reflected by giving the students a personalized, quality education with a view to see them excel in- and outside the classroom; an uphill battle that comes with constant challenges, including the curriculum, shortage of time, and the struggle to deal with the pressure and importance society has put on testing and numerical results that is prevalent in our education system.

4.3.7.4. Timeline

The intervention program began in October 2018, and lasted the entirety of the academic year, finalizing in June of 2019. It included three hours per week of the subject of Modern European and World History lectured in the English language. All of the students who formed part of the study received instruction in two additional CLIL classes (Business and Coding, one hour per week, respectively).

4.3.7.5. Test administration

The first step in the intervention program was the pre-evaluation of the students on an academic level, based on grades from the previous academic year in all subjects, the primary focus being on the L1 (Spanish), L2 (English), and content (History) subject grades. Next, the assessment of the students through the administration and completion of various tests was undertaken, including the pre-test of English, verbal intelligence test, and motivation test, about a month after the commencement of the academic year. Subsequently, the correction of all tests was carried out, comparisons and cut-off points were made, and the tiers henceforth established.

4.3.7.6. Establishment of the tiers

The establishment of the three tiers was undertaken by sorting each of the 61 students into a respective group (under-, normal, or overachiever) in each category (L1, L2, motivation, verbal intelligence, and content) based on the cut-off points as previously established (cf. Section 4.3). Based on these results, an overall view was gleaned of the students across all categories and as a final step, they were individually sorted into one definitive tier, based on all data compiled. The majority of the students fell into a tier by meeting the cut-off points across the board. However, there were few students, mainly the native English speakers and new students, who had to be manually sorted into groups based on either abnormally high or low L1 and L2 scores that did not correspond with their other results. When establishing the tiers based on ability, verbal intelligence, and academic performance factors were taken into consideration while complementing that knowledge with SES information, as well as the knowledge about the students' individual characteristics, such as nationality, years in the school, or neurodivergences.

Related to the *underachievers*, comprising of 38% of the class, three students were new that year (6B, 9C, 21B); five of the students were foreigners (4A, 15A, 11C, 22B, 18B); and four of the underachievers had diagnosed learning disabilities (5A, 13A, 6B, 10C)⁶⁸. Five students fell into the bottom tier across the board for all five variables (15A, 11C, 14C, 9C, 18C), while seven students fell into the bottom tier in four of the five variables and in the middle tier for one variable: 12A (English); 13A (verbal intelligence); 10C (intellectual aptitude); 20C (verbal intelligence); 22B (Spanish); 3C (verbal intelligence); 21B (Spanish). Four students (5A, 7C, 11B, 21C) fell into the middle tier for the variables of verbal intelligence and aptitude, except one who fell into the middle tier in English and verbal intelligence (21C). Three students (19A, 1A, 8C) fell into the middle tier

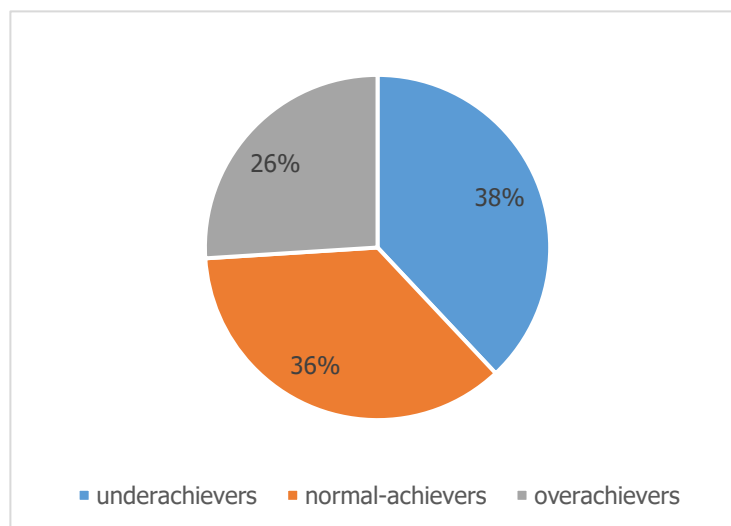
⁶⁸ While undiagnosed learning disabilities were arguably present, they will not be included in the explanation nor in the sorting of students.

in three or four variables. Following, a detailed explanation will show why exceptions were made for some students based on teacher and researcher judgment (cf. Graph 29).

Two students (4A and 18B) fell into the overachiever category for the variable English, both of whom are native speakers of English, but were categorized as underachievers for all other variables (note: 18B fell into the middle tier for content). Similarly, 19B was also categorized as an underachiever despite being categorized as overachiever for the English variable due to having spent a semester abroad. A new student (6B) fell into the bottom tier for the content and English variables, but middle tiers for Spanish and verbal intelligence and the top tier for intellectual aptitude and presented learning difficulties. One student (19A) was categorized as an underachiever, albeit falling in the middle tier in four of the five variables (all but Spanish), and spent the duration of the intervention program in this category since they, like the other two students, were more comfortably able to complete activities at this level, justifying their placement in this category.

For the *normal achievers*, made up of 36% of the class, one student (2A) had a learning disability; one student was a native speaker of English (2B, who placed as an overachiever in the variable of English but fell into the middle tier across the remaining variables); one student was foreign (15B); and one student was new to the school (7B, falling into the bottom tier for the variable of English). Seven students fell into the middle tier in three, four or five of the variables and the other three students scored in the top tier for two or three variables: 2A and 20B (middle tier in all five variables); 16B (middle tier across all variables); 2B (middle tier except one variable, previously explained); 4B (top tier in English); 3A (top tier in content and English); 7B (top tier for content and verbal intelligence, bottom tier for English, previously explained); 10A (top tier in verbal intelligence and intelligence aptitude); 6C (top tier in content and English); and 3B (top tier in content and English). An equal number of students (seven) fell into the bottom tier in one variable: 9A (Spanish); 11A (verbal intelligence); 17A (verbal intelligence); 18A (verbal intelligence); 15B (Spanish, foreign); 16C (Spanish); 7A (verbal intelligence). Four students fell into the bottom tier in two variables: 18A (verbal intelligence and intellectual aptitude); 5B (content and Spanish); 1C (verbal intelligence and intellectual aptitude); 12C (content and Spanish). One student fell into the bottom tier in three variables: 15C (content, verbal intelligence, aptitude), but was able to complete all of the activities given in this level. Finally, one student (2C) was categorized as an overachiever in three variables (content, English, and Spanish) but normal for verbal intelligence and aptitude and performed well with the tasks presented to them at this level.

For the *overachievers*, 26% of the cohort, three students were new (7B, 8B, 22C); two students were foreign (8A & 16A, a native English speaker). The general criterion for this category was having been placed into the top tier in all five variables and five students met this criterion: 8A, 1B, 10B, 14B, 19C. Eight students fell in the top tier in four of the variables: 6A (English, middle tier); 16A (verbal intelligence, middle tier); 8B (English, bottom tier, new student, previously explained); 12B (verbal intelligence, middle tier); 4C (intellectual aptitude, middle tier); 5C (intellectual aptitude, middle tier); 13C (intellectual aptitude, middle tier) and 22C (intellectual aptitude, middle tier). One student fell into the middle tier in three variables (9B, English, verbal intelligence, and intellectual aptitude), while two students (13B and 17C) fell into the middle tier in two categories (the former in verbal intelligence and intellectual aptitude and the latter, English and intellectual aptitude). For these last three students, the ultimate deciding factor was the ability to complete all additional, advanced, and expansion activities, all of which these students were able to do, justifying their placement in this tier.



Graph 29: Students by tier

The categorization of the students, in this way, is updated and reliable, since grades taken from the previous year were not the sole basis for the sorting in addition to the fact that the students were given ample opportunity to demonstrate their abilities and strengths. It is crucial to point out that although a student was categorized as having a certain level or *ability* for the purposes of the study, this was in no way a fixed label and only served for the research purposes. For purposes not related to the study, all types of labelling were avoided, in the same way that predispositions or assumptions based on perceived intelligence or readiness level was not assumed of any of the students based on their tier, given the negative influence it was believed this would have on the learners. Therefore, in no way were the students aware of their placement, nor were any activities, groups, or tests ever labelled or insinuated to be better or more desirable than another.

During the first month of the academic year and following test administration and correction and sorting of the tiers, the teacher had the students partake in an activity related to diversity, which allowed for a complete and detailed account of each individual student and their corresponding interests and perceived competence in various categories, including subjects, hobbies, and activities. This served as a pivotal step for the teacher to begin grouping and sorting students by interest and motivations in addition to their grouping according to tier based on various areas and abilities, in line with Julius and Madrid (2017). This critical moment in the intervention program also allowed students to enhance their awareness of the differences amongst them and sparked dialogue about diversity. The activity required the students to plot a graph of their choosing (bar, line, scatter chart.) with the y-axis running from low to high according to their interest and ability in certain subjects and areas of interest, which made up the x-axis. The students plotted their interest and ability (represented by different colors, in the form of a line or bar) in the categories such as: languages, computers, sports, reading, drawing, music, writing, singing, public speaking, Art, Science, Math, and History. Next, the students presented their results to the class so everyone could visually appreciate the concealed diversity amongst them⁶⁹ (idea adapted from Tomlinson, 2017). In addition to helping the students become more familiar with diversity, it was helpful for the teacher as it gleaned insight into each of the students as individuals. On the whole, this served as a good starting point for a class discussion about what learning would look like during the school year, why different students might work on different activities and coming to a consensus about grades as well as presenting the idea of equity versus equality.

4.3.7.7. Key components

There were several main components in the methodology and carrying out of the intervention program, such as respect, interest, cooperation, individuality, novelty, empathy, connection, motivation, in addition to two other pillars: *intercultural competence*, inherently important to the subject of History, and *differentiation*, both of which will be described in more detail in the following two sub-sections.

4.3.7.7.1. Intercultural competence

Diversity intrinsically includes cultural diversity, which is defined by UNESCO (2008) as “the common heritage of humanity” (p. 9). Cultural diversity, or interculturality, as discussed by

⁶⁹ Cf. Appendix VII for sample activity from the intervention program.

Dietz (2007), has become a topic of much debate as of late as educators and government leaders struggle to define what diversity is:

The very term diversity is still rather ambiguously used in current debates on multiculturalism, identity politics, anti-discrimination policies and educational contexts. The concept of difference, which suggests the possibility of neatly distinguishing between the respective traits or markers, is gradually substituted by the notion of diversity, which in contrast emphasizes the multiplicity, overlapping, and crossing between sources of human variability. In this sense, cultural diversity is increasingly being employed and defined with relation to social and cultural variability in the same way as biodiversity is being used when referring to biological and ecological variations (p. 58).

As previously mentioned, the intervention program included students from a handful of countries, a common occurrence nowadays, even in Spain's monolingual regions. Due to this cultural diversity and blend of various nationalities in one classroom (Spanish, British, North American, Paraguayan, Italian, Chinese, Greek), there was an undeniable need to focus on cultural awareness, or intercultural competence (henceforth, IC), so as to foment motivation and equity. Of course, the culturally diverse students were not only ethnically and religiously diverse, but also linguistically: there was a wide range of proficiency levels in the L1 (Spanish) and L2 (English): some of the students held neither Spanish nor English as their first language, other students were deficient in their Spanish language competence, a few had a very limited understanding of the English language, and finally, there were some native-English speaking students.

These classes from the intervention program were of no anomaly of course; homogeneous classes where all learners hold the same mother tongue is almost a nonexistence in any classroom in Europe. The reality though, unfortunately, is that recognition and treatment of cultural diversity in the European Union still remains "a rather new phenomenon" (Dietz, 2007, p. 59). Dervin and Gross (2016) allude to the problems that we continue to face in lieu of the modernization and globalization of our planet: "at a time when we have the education and resources to live together better than ever before, we find ethnocentrism, xenophobia and violence one to the other as ingrained as they have ever been" (p. vii). Taking this information into consideration, the teaching of interculturality, acceptance and tolerance, or what is now becoming recognized as IC, was given extreme consideration in this intervention program, considering "in times like ours where the 'other' tends to be stereotyped, rejected, detested, and sometimes abused, it is urgent to find new ways of dealing with the issue of interculturality from a renewed perspective. Education has a central role to play here" (idem, 2016, p. 2). Interculturality thus was a pillar upon which the intervention program was built, given the significant percentage of foreign students in the study, and unfortunate reality of discrimination,

isolation, and stereotyping, which were prevalent at the school, leading to a pronounced emphasis on IC during the school year. In this particular intervention program, recommendations from Egekvist et al. (2016) were followed, who advise not trying to eliminate stereotypes, since this is fruitless, but instead advocate for a direct teaching of where they originated, inarguably apropos for the subject of History:

Attempts should not be made to break stereotypes or replace them with the truth. It is unrealistic to believe that stereotypes can be completely eradicated. They will always exist, but it is possible to heighten the awareness of their existence and provide an understanding of how and why they are created, and how they may influence individuals in intercultural encounters (p. 16).

Likewise, Byram's (1997) model of IC was also heeded, which explains what the "quintessential intercultural speaker" looks like: someone who is "genuinely concerned with establishing and maintaining relationships across cultural borders" (p. 4). Using the subject of History to guide IC, diverse perspectives about *oppression* and *inequality* were presented throughout the year (Mitchell, 2018). History was thus seen as having a direct impact on the students and their own lives today, as well as the world around them, through the lens of gender, religion, nationality, and disability, which thus allowed them "to gain a greater appreciation of people who differ from themselves" (idem, 2018, p. 32). In that same vein, the UN's Sustainable Development Goals⁷⁰ were key to the global view of the subject and worked upon throughout the year.

Cultural days were included throughout the year. These were days in which different cultures, nationalities, languages, and religions were highlighted and integrated into the content point being worked on. Since culture plays a part of the CLIL methodology, these days were considered to be integral parts of the curriculum, and not used simply to fill in the days before holidays or when there was time left over. Some of the cultures celebrated included Chinese, Eritrean, Italian, Japanese, Nigerian, and Paraguayan.

The correct implementation of IC begins with, says Dietz (2007), "the idea of diverse diversities" (p. 5), or the belief and understanding that diversity is all around us and humans are diverse in ways beyond what the eye sees: underneath every skin color, behind every religion, and inside every language, we are all unique and have various talents and shortcomings. While looking to cultivate students' language and content aptitude, the intervention program sought to create lifelong learners that are understanding, rational, and compassionate young adults who

⁷⁰ <https://sdgs.un.org/goals>

are accepting of others, by teaching them to be global citizens through “the knowledge, skills, behaviours, attitudes, and values needed to engage in effective action at their local levels, with an eye towards a more just and peaceful future at the global level” (Mitchell, 2018, p. 84).

Ensuring the classroom feel safe and welcoming for all students meant ensuring they felt they were being treated equitably, despite their mother tongue, ethnicity, race, learning ability, or any other differentiating characteristic. This proved to be essential in the intervention program, given the variance of L1 and L2 competence levels and varying ethnicities. Thus, strategies were created, in line with those put forth by Mitchell (2018, pp. 18-19), in a bid to treat and overcome inequalities:

- encourage the use of L1(s);
- teach intercultural education;
- habituate collaboration and cooperative learning;
- the presence of suitable physical environments;
- foment global views on learning;
- use the Universal Design for Learning;
- emphasize formative assessments;
- use the social and cultural capital of the learners to diversify lessons;
- Set high but attainable standards for all students;
- use peer tutoring;
- employ functional memorization strategies;
- use review and practice methodology;
- give effective and timely feedback;
- use culturally sensitive pedagogy;
- empower autonomous learning;
- use play and incorporate fun activities during instruction; and
- use personalized learning.

With this new perspective, the acceptance, recognition, and treatment of diversity completely enriched the CLIL classes in the intervention program. The learner variance in the classroom not only helped the teacher gain new perspective, but allowed for a completely multifaceted, global perspective to the subject, which profited immensely from the inclusion of IC. While the content knowledge was of extreme importance in order to implement the class satisfactorily, fulfilling the regional and national standards, knowledge about teaching the students based on their interests and motivations as global citizens was equally as relevant. This understanding allowed students and teacher to work together on their learning journey in a way that led to increased motivation and learning. The teacher took on a role similar to that of a coach or a mentor, guiding students in their learning and increasing the amount of responsibility they

have for such, while simultaneously appreciating that attending to diversity is a journey that spawns the entirety of any teacher's career.

4.3.7.7.2. Differentiation

A critical pillar of inclusion and diversity is *differentiation*, which constituted a focal point in the intervention program. Julius and Madrid (2017) expound on this term and its finality in the 21st century:

The principle of differentiation, which consists in offering educational options and curricular adaptations for different student groups, is adopted so as to favor respect for diversity. There are a number of models that enable personalized curricular adaptations with the intention of incentivizing positive social and academic outcomes. To that end, learning aims are individualized by adapting curricular objectives, simplifying the curriculum, or looking for alternative objectives (p. 17).

For his part, Roiha (2014) regards differentiation as a theory that stands together with other historically significant theories such as Gardner's (2008) *Theory of Multiple Intelligences* (MIT) and Vygotsky's (1978) *Zone of Proximal Development* (ZPD). The same author (2014) regards differentiation as a "synthesis" of other theories that have been blended together, the outcome being a "pedagogical application" of the theories previously mentioned (p. 3). He argues that the goal of differentiation is to "discover the pupil's actual development stage and tailor teaching so that it corresponds to the pupil's ZPD" (p. 3, referencing Vygotsky, 1978), and *ideally*, all students in a same classroom should be working on activities and content within their ZPD. Following a study completed in Finland, the author concludes that to differentiate, a teacher can alter *three dimensions*: "the extent, the depth and the progress rate of studying" (p. 3). This view on differentiation was used throughout the intervention program as a way to differentiate activities, projects, products, and assessment procedures, by personalizing the goals, content, and tasks to as much of a degree as possible for the students, based on a multitude of factors, according to students' personal situations and characteristics such as ability, interest, motivation, confidence, and attainment. It was found, in line with his (2014) results, that differentiation was motivating for all the achievers in the classroom, resulting in a more satisfactory planning and execution of lessons.

Another way that differentiation was contemplated was through the *DIDI* framework (Pérez Cañado, 2020a), which explains diversity from a four-point view: *Diversity*, *Inclusion*, *Differentiation*, and *Integration*. The first D, *diversity*, is the all-encompassing umbrella term and means providing a quality education to all students, while keeping their differences as individuals

in mind, as described by several authors (Julius & Madrid, 2017; Madrid & Pérez Cañado, 2018; Roiha, 2014; Tomlinson, 2017) in terms of:

- personality traits;
- needs;
- home life;
- learning styles;
- past academic experiences;
- knowledge;
- attitudes;
- achievement levels;
- learning paces;
- intellectual capacity;
- interests;
- motivations;
- expectations;
- SES; and
- cultural background.

The next letter, I, *inclusion*, refers to inclusive education, defined by Liasidou (2013) as “learner diversity on the grounds of students’ varied ethnic/race, linguistic, biographical and developmental characteristics” (p. 11). This specifically means catering to those students who are more likely to be marginalized or excluded. The second D, *differentiation*, focuses on including students with diverse abilities and backgrounds. Roiha (2014) considers this to be a pillar inside of inclusive education and a coming together of theories, as previously mentioned. Differentiation means addressing students as individuals, and catering to their individual abilities and needs, both the under- and overachievers (idem, 2014). Finally, putting together the first three letters leads to the final I, *integration*. This integration means an integrating of mixed-ability students and practices to best attend to diversity: “both inclusion and attending to diversity are associated with the phenomenon of integration, which is a consistent response to the diversity of student needs” (Madrid & Pérez Cañado, 2018, p. 245).

It proved to be differentiation which made the feat of addressing both learner variance and reaching curricular standards possible by promoting equity and distinction in teaching, as suggested by Tomlinson (2017). Using her (2017) guidelines, differentiation during the intervention program was focused on five main principles: an emphasis on qualitative, rather than quantitative grades; assessment that takes the entirety of the learning journey a student had made from start to finish into account; using a multimodal approach to presenting content;

student-centered learning; and including a mixed-mode of classroom layouts while maintaining a healthy balance of individual, pair, and group work.

Other ways in which differentiation was implemented included assistance strategies for the students and examining the roles the L1 and L2 played in the class, following Roiha's (2014) suggestions. Allowing for differentiation not only for the underachievers, but also for the overachievers, or the so-called *gifted* students, is a challenge teachers face. The bright students are often overlooked, since it is generally assumed they do not require any extra assistance due to their academic success (Roiha, 2014). Teachers tend to differentiate for underachievers more so than with overachievers (idem, 2014), giving more importance to the former when it comes to attention to diversity measures, which might be explained by the fact that teachers find it harder to differentiate for overachievers than for underachievers. This can be due to the fact that while underachievers require more work, the work teachers give the students is repetitive or simply the same content used for the rest of the class but in simpler and more explanatory versions, while overachievers require more stimulation and more challenging work (Tomlinson, 2017). For the intervention program, it was found that in certain circumstances, in line with Roiha's (2014) findings, differentiation methods could be applied simultaneously to both under- and overachievers simply by fluctuating assessment criteria, varying final objectives, providing more scaffolding and individualized support, and building upon different parts of tasks, projects, and activities.

For her part, Tomlinson (2017) dispels a common misconception about differentiation: the assumption that it is equivalent to giving out more or less work depending on ability. The author stresses that differentiation is not about giving out different amounts of work based on ability as more work of the same content will not work with overachievers nor underachievers, since this will be tedious and a drainer of motivation for both the former and the latter. The former do not need to repeat more work on a skill that they have already mastered, in the same way that the latter are in no way benefitted, or arguably disadvantaged and frustrated by being made to do repetitive work. For this reason, differentiation was a more complex personalization of goals, objectives and criteria that required the teacher to be very in tune to the students' needs. Allowing students to begin at different points and focus on a range of products was absolutely necessary for the classrooms in the intervention program, since even though the students were all of a same age (14-15 years old), they were highly varied academically and linguistically.

In this same vein, differentiation was used as a way to ensure that each of the three tiers was receiving a personalized approach to the subject throughout the duration of the school year. Offsetting the challenges that come with differentiation was important for the preparation and

planning of the intervention program, given findings such as those from Roiha (2014), who lists the various hindrances to differentiation in CLIL classes, including scarcity of time, resources, and materials, as well as the sheer number of students in physically limited classrooms that are unviable in their size and utility. However, keeping an open mind and being aware of differentiation and diversity was the first step to take, since “the more broadly teachers consider differentiation, the more purposeful and systematic their practical differentiation is” (p. 12). Thus, the journey to differentiation began by the acceptance of this practice as a natural element to teaching.

Reverberating this thought, Tomlinson and Imbeau (2010) point out that it is how professionals undertake the task of understanding and interpreting differentiation as teachers that makes all the difference: it should be the crux of teaching, and not something that is simply added on to routine teaching duties, but should constitute the day-to-day preparation and in-class practices. Over time, it becomes a rather natural part of the preparation and instruction. Understanding that learning is effective when students are engaged and to be engaged, their interest must be provoked (Willingham, 2010), the interest points for students were attuned, since not all students were interested nor motivated by the same activities or finalities: what one student found easy and intriguing, another found impossible and odious.

When we do not attend for diversity, or take learner variance into consideration by differentiating, it becomes routine to focus only on students’ similarities, which can be very detrimental for learners. Undoubtedly, this change from a standard or traditional classroom where all students learn the same content and complete the same activities can be difficult to imagine at first, especially for teachers and parents, but it is precisely this type of learning in the *typical* classroom that is insufficient in meeting students’ diverse needs.

For a more visual argument of differentiation, Tomlinson (2017) compares clothing sizes to teaching: the same way piece of clothing could be stretched or tucked as a way to differentiate lessons for students. Understandably, it requires teachers to be constantly adapting, changing, creating, and planning their lessons and is the result of decades of research on how students learn most effectively. For the intervention program, a personal style of differentiation to the subject of History was created, by focusing on the subject from a regional, national, and international perspective, specifically aimed at the cultures inside the classroom.

While some of the differentiation strategies used throughout the year were particular to this subject and grade, the convictions, and dispositions that the teacher held were at the core of the process. Differentiation took place by recompiling individual traits and characteristics of

the students, and using students' individuality to foment academic success and enrich the curriculum by trying to get all of the students as interested and engaged in the subject as possible.

4.3.7.8. Methodology

As necessitated by the specific needs of each tier, throughout the duration of the academic school year, emphasis was placed on cooperative learning, project- and task-based activities, and communicative behaviors, with a heavy focus on intercultural competence and differentiated methodology. Of great importance, as previously mentioned, cross-curricular coordination was used and collaboration with other area teachers formed an important part of intervention program, a theory sustained by Marsh (2017) and Liasidou (2013), who insist that support and teamwork are essential for the correct functioning of CLIL. Hence, throughout the duration of the intervention program, with a view to facilitate a "fertile and continuous dialogue", meetings were arranged periodically with the English and content teachers so as to foment collaboration and unity between subjects (Liasidou, 2013, p. 14).

For L2 coordination, meetings were held with the members of the English department, to discuss vocabulary and grammar, as well as to assess each student's individual readiness level in the FL competence in addition to periodically discussing the results of the underachievers, especially the new and foreign students. Upon the finalization of the first meeting with the English department, it was discovered that the three tiers established at the beginning of the year per the results of the English pre-test coincided with the tiers that had been established independently by the English department, based on English academic performance via external exam results (Cambridge), corresponding with the levels of English according to the *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages* (CEFR), which were A2-B1 (lower tier), B1-B2 (normal tier) and B2-C1 (upper tier).

For content coordination, interdisciplinary projects in P.E., Art, and Science were worked on throughout the year as a way to make connections between various subjects to further strengthen and consolidate their learning. In P.E., a shared unit on the history of forced labor was created; for Art, the students focused on a period of modern art and created a mock gallery exposition; and for the subject of Science, a shared unit focused on the contributions to the modern world by Eastern scientists and researchers.

In addition to consulting with the content and language teachers, meetings were held with the school psychologist to distinguish the causes of the lower academic proficiency levels, due to the fact that only a trained professional should diagnose learning disorders and insight was hoped to be gleaned into some of the lower achieving students who were under-performing

by hoping to root out any internal or external factors that could be the cause, with a view to be able to fully attend to diversity in the classroom (Liasidou, 2013). Unfortunately, the school psychologist was unable to meet more than a couple times, due to the lack of time and high demand for their services internally.

The classes took place in a standard classroom, which included a whiteboard, projector, and speakers, with single desks that were normally joined together in pods or pairs of two but could be comfortably and easily moved around. As previously mentioned, the academic year of the intervention program in fourth of CSE still had a relatively small number of students; therefore, the classrooms were not at maximum capacity. A relaxed and active environment was featured, where the students were permitted and encouraged to move around, stand up, and change places as they desired and the classroom layout was not a fixed feature. The teacher's position in the classroom also spontaneously changed locations, it was almost never in the front, but rotated from the sides or back of the classroom. Short conversations were routinely held personally with each student at least once a week. It was found that the middle of class was the best time to do this, since the beginning of class was best spent jumping into the material or reviewing where the students had left off the previous class, and if left for the end of the class, the teacher found that some students had actually been lost during the class. Therefore, after the teacher had presented any new content and the kids had had some time to work on their own or in groups was when the teacher dedicated time to individual assessment and feedback so as to guide any students that needed it, with a view for them to take advantage of as much of the class as possible. This consisted in looking over their notebook, asking a personalized question, or reviewing activities. Giving each student individual time and opportunity to present their findings, ask questions or inquire about doubts was pivotal. To this end, the teacher moved around and checked the progress of each student, ensuring they were on track, and could fully assess the students for their day-to-day work. This was important since some students were not likely to ask for help in front of their peers unless presented with the opportunity to do so more privately with the teacher. Instead of making this a rare occurrence, it was just the opposite: rarely did a class go by that the teacher did not personally review a student's progress.

Tied to the flexible classroom layout, classroom décor was also paid close attention to and arranged so as to take advantage of the space in the room and provide different areas for creative space, differentiation learning, projects, and groups (Roiha, 2014). Every month the students were given the opportunity and resources they needed to create a visual representation of a topic or content point they were learning about. Another important teaching practice used throughout the year was *repetition without repetition* (Tomlinson, 2017); so, students knew what

was expected of them, but activities were always novel in some aspect. In this way, tasks and projects followed the same basic itinerary and structure, but the product varied.

Pivotal to the methodology was integrated assessment into the classroom dynamic. Students were asked to complete daily self-assessments upon completion of the lesson with a view to pinpoint where they had excelled and what areas were still in need of improvement, by categorizing their learning as "*good struggle*", "*treading water*", "*bad struggle*", and "*drowning*", per recommendations from the International Baccalaureate Middle Years Program⁷¹. Sometimes this took place on paper, but most of the times it took place with the support of an online platform such as Quizizz⁷² or Google, which were completed individually or in pairs. Visual representations of these four phrases were present in the classroom and the teacher referenced them and asked students frequently to reflect on their learning with a view to familiarize them with their personal learning trajectory. This served to ensure that if any student found themselves in the "*bad struggle*" or "*drowning*" descriptors, they knew how to seek help or move to a more accessible activity. For the teacher, these self-reflections on the students' behalf were used to guide lesson preparation by assessing students' readiness levels. The teacher also kept a diary, in the form of a daily reflection of each session with a view to reflect on what had worked or not during the class. The reflection process helped students take autonomy for their learning while simultaneously helping inspire and foment more robust activities off of previously successful ones or allow her to make modifications where necessary.

Use of devices and ICT (mainly personal iPads and computers) was encouraged for research and information gathering, since it is known that students in the 21st century are motivated by these and the students in this intervention program were no exception. These devices were an integral part of the class and methodology, with the vast majority of the activities taking place in the online platform for the class.

Seating in the classroom was given careful thought throughout the intervention program. Following the establishment of the tiers, various seating charts were drawn up to test seating arrangement hypotheses in relation to the achievers' placement in the classroom. However, seating charts were temporary and students changed seats various times over the course of the year, although specific students stayed consistently in one area of the classroom due to sensorial

⁷¹ <https://www.ibo.org/programmes/middle-years-programme/>

⁷² <https://quizizz.com>

issues. To make sure that students were not always sitting in the same location in the classroom, techniques were used to mix up the seating chart so the students could be constantly sitting in different locations, surrounded by different students. The rationale for flexible seating is justified by promoting a sense of unity and cohesion in the classroom, trying by all means to avoid a classroom environment based on exclusivity, confrontation, or privileges.

Fundamental to the methodology in class was collaborative work, and classwork relied heavily on pair-, triad-, or group-work. Participation was encouraged and formed an integral part of the class by making sure students felt relaxed and comfortable in the classroom, with elements of fun and humor included. Various methods were implemented to facilitate a more collaborative and integrated class, such as rotating desks, floating helper, expert groups, peer-mentoring, study groups, and showcasing opportunities. Students worked together prioritizing class success over their individual success; going from a *me* to *we* mentality (Fields, 2017). The class operated under the presumption that all students were held to the same high standards. In this way, students were able to give and take from each other, and were concerned not just with their outcomes, but with that of their classmates. Time was also given careful consideration and students were given sufficient time to work on the activities and exercises during class, as well as being given the option to work on them at home. However, some of the students had personal situations that prevented them from being able to carry out homework completion satisfactorily, which is why home activities were not assigned frequently.

As for groupings, they changed depending on the particular project, day, term, absences, or other factors: students were grouped at random, allowed to choose their groups, or grouped by the teacher. In this same vein, groups were both same- and mixed-ability at different times throughout the year. At the beginning of the year, alphabetical order was used, followed by groups of three created by the teacher, which included one student from each tier per group. A number system was also employed in certain circumstances in which students pulled numbers from a hat which corresponded with a desk. On the whole, groupings were flexible and constantly changing throughout the year and, as previously mentioned, were utilized to promote a sense of community in the students, the result being overwhelmingly positive, leading to a much more united, harmonious class.

Given that group, triad and pair work was employed quite frequently, correct implementation of this was ensured so as to foment effective and functional group work. To do so, students were given clear instructions beforehand; they knew what was expected of them during the process, as well as upon the completion of the project. Individual and group expectations were always included and all students in a group were responsible for the creation of the final product. All projects were assessed individually, although they were completed in a

group. Project design was given careful thought and students were allowed to weigh in on the topic and product with an aim for the projects to be intriguing and motivating. Of course, the sorting of groups was equally as important, so that the students were distributed equally in terms of the tiers, strengths, and weaknesses. Each member was required to contribute to the task and, for any project to be completed successfully, cooperation, and shared understanding were required. Finally, there was an understanding that the students should be checking in with the teacher and their peers regularly, with checkpoints throughout the project, to ensure that the project was being completed satisfactorily. The amount of class time dedicated to a single project varied, but included four main stages: an overview period, the completion phase, presentation stage, and finally, the assessment and feedback part.

Teaching up was another important tactic in the classroom methodology (Gurría, 2019; Mitchell, 2018; Tomlinson, 2017), since it is known that learning is superior when it requires students to move outside of their comfort area. This meant, for the teacher, to make sure that the students were not working on anything too difficult, but were working on activities that were pleasantly challenging (Willingham, 2010) so as to foment motivation and have students find learning gratifying, by having them experience fruitful, engaging learning that was not overly simple nor too advanced. Likewise, getting students motivated about the content and their learning was crucial to the subject of History, which is why the teacher did their best to foster a passion, or mild interest, in the subject. Pertaining to this, readiness (Roiha, 2014; Tomlinson, 2017), or an individual's ability to complete or do an activity based on what they personally are capable of and what knowledge they have about a particular topic, was a focal point in the intervention program, contrary to assessing them based on what they should or were expected to know or be able to do based on grade or age.

The role of the teacher in the class was very much that of a coach or guide: the class was student-led, and teacher-directed instruction constituted a minimum percentage of class time. The teacher did not endorse the idea that learning was dependent on her, but instead, conveyed the notion that students were to mediate their own learning, at their own pace. Allowing students to be unabashed in their questioning was key to the relaxed environment, and the teacher played the role of a mentor, per Grieve and Haining (2011), who acknowledge that "teacher's support for their students is known to have a beneficial effect on students' performance" (p. 763, referencing OECD, 2000). Students were encouraged to pose questions that interested them, use those questions to guide their learning, and share their findings with their peers or the class. In this way, the teacher spent an insignificant amount of time in front of the class lecturing. The teacher's role during class took on that of a secondary one, so as to

facilitate learning and give assistance and guidance, while allowing the students to complete the activities on their own or in pairs, as best to their ability.

The ability of the teacher to think on her feet, to make quick decisions in the moment, in a way that benefitted the students, something that Herbart (1802) named over a hundred years ago as *pedagogical tact*, was also and cultivated. These judgments are not premeditated; however, they are required of any teacher, arising from classroom situations every day. Forghani-Arani et al. (2019) explain: "Teachers see, assess, judge, decide, and act in response to a myriad of situations in their daily interactions with their students" (p. 18). This, the authors contend, is what makes teaching difficult, due to the fact that the job requires them to be "pedagogically tactful" (p. 18). To do this, they must know how to respond to situations that might be uncomfortable, awkward, emotional, or even dangerous and it is when teachers consistently decide the correct option and act appropriately when they are showing capability for pedagogical tact, which, the authors say is what makes the difference between a teacher who knows about teaching theory versus a teacher who can put that theory into practice. It "has to do with the mindset and the disposition of the educator, and is a result of thoughtfulness, genuine interest and moral commitment, [...]" (idem, 2019, 19). For the intervention program, being able to integrate marginalized students, defuse tense situations related to culture and language, as well as a multitude of other situations, occurred quite frequently. Being equipped with tactics helped field these situations: by speaking with students privately, meditating culture differences together with the students, and a zero-tolerance policy for disrespect.

Routine and behavior management in the classroom was also a key to the methodology. There were very clear classroom rules that were to be followed, which were shown to the students on the first day and displayed in the room. Given this change from passive to active students, they had more autonomy in their learning, and were thus held to high standards of responsibility, and were expected to adhere to classroom rules. Following the same theme of the class, respect was the most important rule.

A checklist was used to monitor and regulate classroom management procedures (in line with recommendations from UNESCO, 2016), which allowed the students to know specifically how group-, pair-, and individual work was supposed to be carried out as well as standardize policies regarding material use, devices, and presentations. Once again, the concept of respect played a big role in classroom management, since the classroom environment was based on mutual respect. Respect was seen to be the true descriptor of the subject: the students respected each other, the teacher, and themselves; the teacher respected the students as individuals; and everyone respected the subject.

Meaningful learning was the goal for the classes; thus, students undertook activities always with a view to open their minds and allow for deep understanding. This was prioritized instead of a surface learning, or the infamous *memorize and repeat* technique, where students memorize information for exams and do not actually learn the content since they are not involved or interested with it on any level other than grade-related purposes. To avoid this, students were encouraged to investigate, create, and do research, always with their interests in mind, giving their work a personal touch. Following wisdom by Willingham (2010), knowledge that is too difficult for someone to take on is not likely to result in learning, nor increased motivation, and the unfortunate, but most likely, result is to be frustration and abandonment. In that same vein, if the students, or person, are presented with a problem that is overly simple, there will be no satisfaction in solving the problem. Therefore, trying to find the right balance of difficulty for students to be able to really enjoy the learning process was fundamental for the teacher, by allowing students to get a sense of pleasure from completing an activity, or solving a problem, or finding the answer to a question.

Another cornerstone in the methodology was scaffolding. Scaffolding was crucial for the CLIL classes in the intervention program given the variety of students in the class with various levels of English, Spanish, content readiness, motivation, and academic capability; thus, scaffolding acted as a way to ensure the underachievers or struggling LLs did not get left behind. As Fields (2017) concisely puts it, "scaffolding helps students reach beyond where they could go on their own" (p. 11). By constantly giving learners support and aid in their learning, it gave them the chance to succeed without leaving them feeling overwhelmed, offering them stepping stones to be able to complete the tasks asked of them, giving them a sense of *can do* rather than a feeling of desperation or despair due to a lack of knowledge or competence. Learning was most effective when students took it into their own hands.

Enthusiasm and encouragement for the students, especially those who saw themselves as weak or even unintelligent, was practiced frequently to foment academic resilience, specifically for the students who believed their grades and intelligence level were something that they had little to no control over, or what is known as a fixed mindset. When asked about ability in class, working off of a statement related to intelligence and how much control they, the student, have, or do not have, over this, almost half of the class associated ability and talents as being innate, many of these students falling into the category of underachievers for this study. Several students in the intervention program had been conditioned to believe that they were slow, and simply did not have the capacity or ability to do more or achieve more.

Per the OECDa (2019), a fixed mindset is when students believe "their abilities are unchangeable", that they are not smart enough to do a certain activity or reach a certain grade

(p. 70) or that “individuals are born with certain invariant characteristics, which cannot be altered by experience” (OECDc, 2019, p. 13). This type of mentality can be detrimental to students and can exacerbate the low results of some underachievers, who truly believe that they are not capable of more. Contrasted with this is a growth mindset, or those that believe that “challenges are external” and all of them “can thus be confronted and tackled” (p. 70). Another way to define a growth mindset is “the belief that someone’s ability and intelligence can be developed over time” (OECDc, 2019, p. 3). Including discussion throughout the year about intelligence also served to help the students challenge some of the notions they had about themselves. This was deemed necessary for the students since, as the OECDa (2019) warns, “even if the students have the intellectual and social skills they need, they may not use them unless and until they believe that they can overcome academic, social and emotional adversities” (p. 70). It is vital that students of today are able to adapt in the face of adversity, which is why the explicit teaching and discussing of growth mindset was included in the intervention program through the conveying to the students that “one’s skills and qualities can be cultivated through effort, good strategies and support from others” (OECDc, 2019, p. 14). This is not just about “praising effort”, which, the OECD (2019c) warns, “can backfire” and lead to students working only for praise, but was worked on by “rewarding progress and the processes that lead to greater learning” (p. 14), such as making connections, posing, and answering questions for themselves, discoveries, as well as overcoming challenges that students might have previously thought they were incapable of doing.

Lesson planning was done with a view to engage the students as much as possible, drawing on a multitude of resources and perspectives, as previously mentioned. The lessons were designed using a combination of different language acquisition theories from authors such as Vygotsky (1878), Gardner (1983), Krashen (1985), Bloom (1987) and Hattie (2009). As previously mentioned, in an activity that occurred at the beginning of the year, the students had visually depicted their interest and ability in various categories with a view to ensure the lessons created attended to a variety of learning styles and interests. Content was presented through the use of images (pictures, caricatures, cartoons), timelines, videos, songs, biographies, quotations, works of art and the like, with a heavy emphasis on visual scaffolding and comprehensible input. Visual aids were always provided, and students were encouraged to create their own visual aids. The content and topics in the course were designed following advice from OECD (2018) by keeping in mind the students’ “prior knowledge, skills, attitudes and values” while offering them “a diverse range of topic and project options”, as well as letting them suggest and design their own topics (p. 6). As for the subject, the teacher tried to instill genuine interest in the students by constantly and consistently showing appetite for the subject, with thought-provoking topics and content.

To complete the overview of the methodology used in class, a sample lesson plan from the intervention program is detailed below. The activity described covers the unit entitled *Imperialism*. To start, students played a Quizizz: the online game was self-correcting and students were instructed to work on an activity based on their scoring, which they did not see but correlated to proficient, sufficient, or insufficient knowledge based on the results of the readiness test. The first group of students (proficient) were instructed to watch a speech from that time period. The second group of students (sufficient) they were instructed to work on a timeline. And the third group (insufficient) were instructed to match biographies of leaders of the time with a picture. Following, in a whole class set-up, the teacher went over brief introduction to imperialism. To demonstrate knowledge on the topic and ways for students to begin to interpret the unit, two political cartoons and a speech were read aloud, discussed, and translated. Students then broke off into groups, first by same- and then of mixed-content readiness ability. In these groups, they did guided research on topics such as the Belgian Congo, Berlin Conference, Concessionary China, and empires of the 19th century. Upon completion of the activities, the students returned to their seats and subsequently, a whole-class discussion was carried out involving idea sharing, questions and answers based on the research and investigation results. Subsequently, a Slido⁷³ was used to conduct a short, formative assessment of the students and their understanding. Students then broke off into groups and completed an activity based on quotes and citations from that time period, which was differentiated according to ability. Following, the class once again came together to discuss conclusions and solutions, and new political cartoons were projected on the board. Finally, students were instructed to work individually on a product, in the form of a written explanation of a cartoon of their choice, a drawing of their own political cartoon, a biography, a newspaper article, or script.

4.3.7.9. Differentiation instruction for the tiers

This next section will deal more in depth with each of the tiers, including description, suggestions, and techniques on how to work with them. To begin differentiation teaching, the three tiers (under-, normal and overachievers) were of the main concern, in addition to one further group, which contained students who linguistically, either in the L1 or L2 competence, or both, needed differentiation. This included students from all three tiers, destined to give more language support to students who needed it. Thus, four groups in need of specific differentiation methodology were used in the intervention program:

⁷³ <https://www.sli.do>

1. Overachievers
2. Underachievers
3. Normal achievers
4. Linguistically challenged students

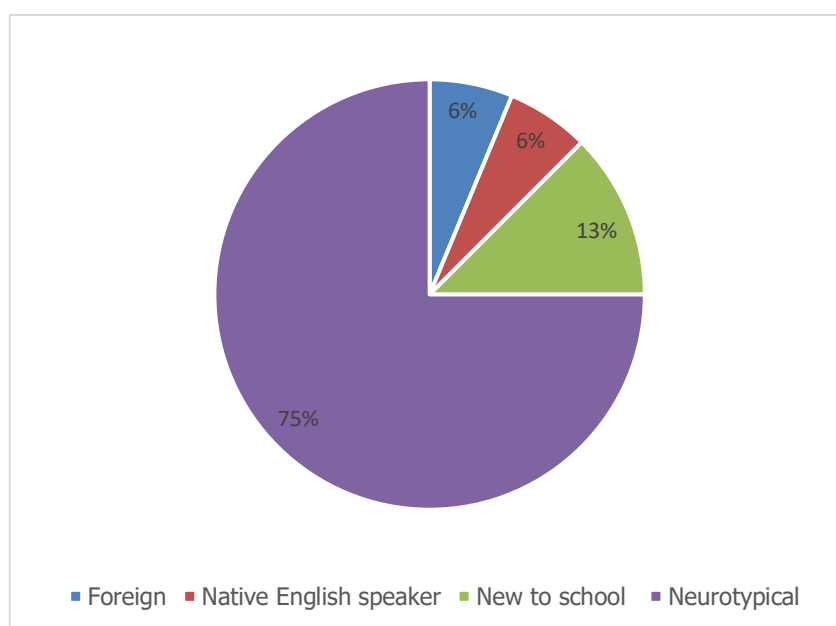
These categories were the crux of planning for the intervention program. The last category was rendered necessary for specific students in need of remedial activities mainly concerned with the linguistic aspects of the course, L1 and L2, specifically regarding new or foreign students who had a very low or basic level of English and/or Spanish language competences due to the wide disparity between competence levels of students, ranging from C2 native students to those with A1 or lower. In certain cases, the students moved between the categories depending on factors such as readiness and interest, but these categories mainly served as starting points for material and activity creation and as a way to ensure that all the learners in the classroom were being catered for.

High quality, engaging and functional learning for all three tiers was the primary goal of the intervention program, a struggle quoted upon by Piaget (1978): “the heartbreaking difficulty in pedagogy, as indeed in medicine and other branches of knowledge that partake at the same time of Art and Science, is in fact, that the best methods are also the most difficult ones”. However, it was also this heightened sense of learner variance and tailored teaching that resulted in “more satisfying and invigorating” classes (p. 69).

Next, the three tiers will be outlined methodologically, pertaining to their specific needs, beginning with the overachievers, then the underachievers, the normal achievers and, finally, the supplemental tier that dealt with students with difficulties specifically related to language. Results obtained from each student in the various tests and subjects only highlighted the reality that the majority of the students were absolutely capable of working on harder material.

For the overachievers, or the otherwise denominated *advanced* students, based on their results in the pre-assessment, first it is imperative to describe the characteristics of these types of learners, who of course, are known to work faster and understand the concepts usually from the start. What is known is that these learners benefit from being able to take the concepts to the next level, and make connections that other learners might not have time to do. As previously mentioned, the task of catering to the overachievers in the classroom can be prone to overlooking, but these learners do require help. The main goal for the intervention program was making sure that the overachievers were as challenged as possible, by designing learning experiences tailored to the advanced learners that would push their limits, as well as setting realistic but high goals for them. The students were allowed to voice their opinions and choose what they wanted to do

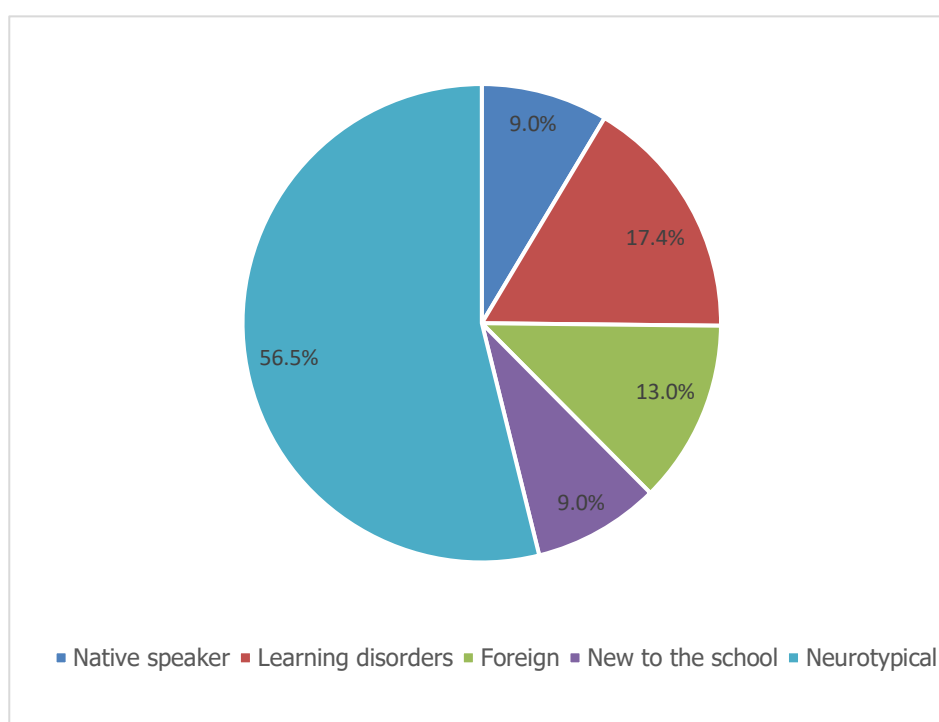
and help set their learning trajectory. To help them, they were shown examples of projects and work from first and second grades of Baccalaureate in the subject of History. Allowing these students to showcase their abilities and knowledge was frequently employed, as students began to lose their inhibitions following the commencement of the school year, and they were given opportunities to present to the class and their peers. They also organized and prepared presentations for lower levels of secondary and upper primary students. Within this subset of the cohort, the overachievers can be categorized related to specific situations that were in need of diversity measures, including: foreign students (6%), native English speakers (6%), newcomer students (13%). The rest of the overachievers (75%) are categorized as neurotypical, or in the absence of any known circumstance that was in need of attending to specifically (cf. Graph 30).



Graph 30: Overachievers as pertaining to diverse needs

Turning now to the underachievers, or the struggling learners, it was engrained that these learners are not any less capable than their peers; they simply required a different approach to learning in many circumstances. Many underachievers consistently work hard but fail in their efforts keep up with the pace of a class that has not been differentiated. Results of Roiha's (2014) study found that all of the teachers interviewed used heavy visual and oral support for the underachievers, letting students use the L1, employing peer support, class discussions, flexible grouping, moving pupils around and also temporarily putting the students in groups in accordance with their ability, strategies which were used throughout the intervention program. Frequently relied upon as well was the use of "language-sensitive instructional strategies", highlighted by García (2009), which included habitually employing "visual aids, gestures, reformulation" with a view to make as many connections possible between content and language for the underachievers, or those struggling with the content (p. 512). Likewise, remedial teaching, or

trying to bridge the gap between what students know and what they are expected to know, a core part of the Finnish teaching model (Finnish National Board of Education, 2010), demonstrated to be quite effective in differentiation teaching, and was used often in the case of the lower-achievers. It proved successful, not only for assessment purposes but for motivational purposes as well, encouraging and motivating these students with efficient and frequent scaffolding. For this subset, the slight majority can be categorized as neurotypical (56.5%) whereas the remaining 43.5% were foreign students, newcomers, native speakers of English, or suffered from a learning disability (cf. Graph 31).

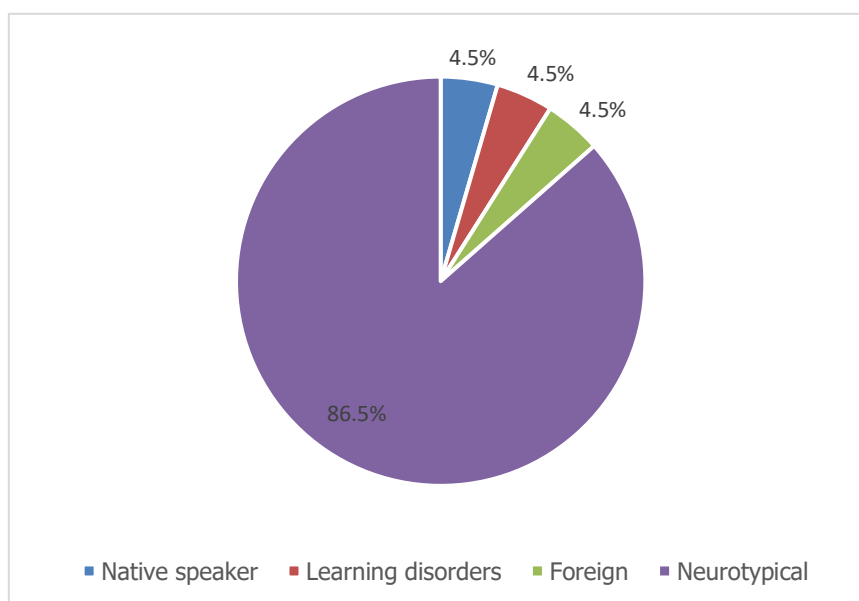


Graph 31: Underachievers as pertaining to diverse needs

For the underachievers, another fundamental tactic used was constructive positive communication and timely feedback. Many of the learners started the school year believing they were *bad* students and this had to be combatted by allowing them to showcase what strengths they did have, related or not to the subject, and allowing them to gain confidence in their abilities, while simultaneously engaging them in conversation and discussion about growth mindset (Dweck, 2007a, 2007b). Multimodal learning was also crucial for these students, which is why it was important to make sure the students did not feel blocked by an activity simply because they were incapable of completing it due to the way it was presented, thus justifying the use of a range of inputs including textual, factual, visual, and auditory.

To detail the workings of the classes with the middle tier, or the denominated normal achievers, recognizing the peril of underestimation was key, given that these learners are often

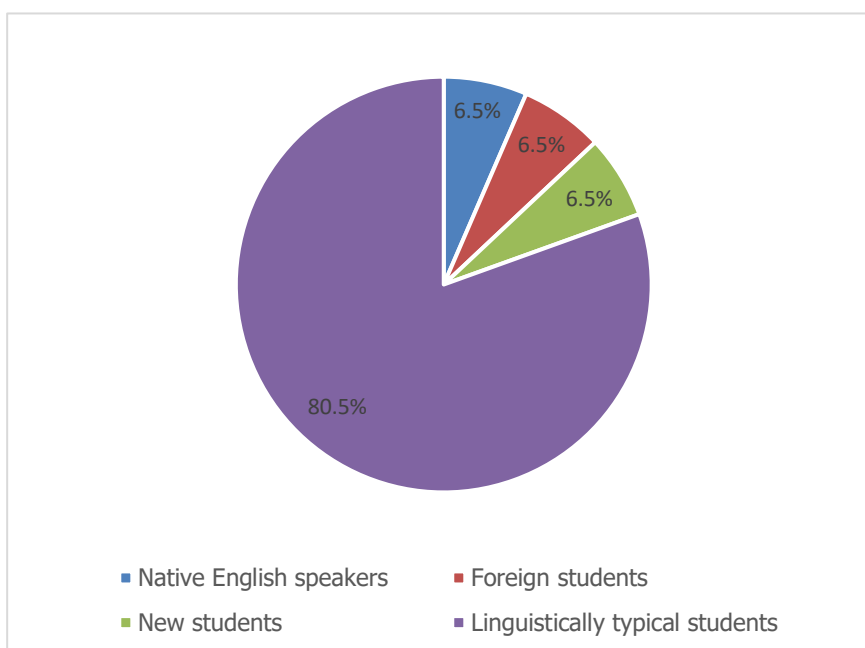
grouped together as being average students, neither brilliant nor struggling, and have a tendency to be overlooked. Being normal can make some students feel like they are not deserving of special treatment and are simply floating along in the class, which is why these students were constantly encouraged to pair with the overachievers and grouped with students who had higher readiness levels. In this subset, almost seven-eighths are classified as neurotypical (86.5%) and the remaining students fall into the categories of foreigners, native English speaker, and those who have a learning disability (4.5% each, respectively) (cf. Graph 32).



Graph 32: Normal achievers as pertaining to diverse needs

Finally, it was necessary to address specifically certain students in terms of linguistic needs, as was the case in this research study with eight foreign students, four of whom were native English speakers hailing from the U.K. and the U.S.A., and four of whom were from other countries in- and outside of the European Union (Peru, Italy, and China), as well as four new students who had basic levels of English (cf. Graph 33). For these types of learners, it was important to see where their strengths lay and determine the areas in which they thrived, instead of concentrating on their language deficiencies, and for this group, an ideology of *show me what you can do* was followed. These students were a powerful addition to the class, and their cultures and linguistic diversities were routinely incorporated into the organization of class content, instead of being seen as students only in need of remedial work, their home cultures and languages were utilized during the planning to enrich the lessons. To avoid marginalization, a healthy respect and honor of all mother tongues was established. It was also important to make sure that no student felt pressured to talk in front of the class, instead students were given ample opportunities to participate and speak with peers or the teacher in less demanding situations, as well as being provided with ample alternate products or projects. There was time provided for translation for

students at the end of class, rubrics were given out in both English and Spanish, and signs and symbols were used whenever possible.



Graph 33: Students with linguistic needs

To clarify, the intervention program did not consist in simply assigning normal, remedial, and advanced assignments, since it was believed that this could ultimately lead to the students perceiving themselves as being inferior or superior, which could contribute to any previously held notions about themselves, which may not only not be true, but damaging. It was not about giving out different assignments, but about allowing students to complete assignments by themselves, in small groups or as a whole class. At times, these assignments were assigned to them and other times students selected what they were working on. Task design was important to ensure that all activities available to choose from or assigned were as equally interesting, engaging as possible, focusing on the understanding and skills while ensuring that no activity seemed more appealing than another. It was equally important that no student felt like they were being marginalized or working on tasks that were subnormal.

Overall, the four groups established served primarily as a reminder for the teacher to create well-rounded tasks, projects, activities and for daily class preparation, with an aim to best serve all the students in the class related to specific needs and circumstances.

4.3.7.10. Materials and resources

CLIL-specific and differentiated materials were a fundamental component for the correct implementation of the class and, due to lack of said resource, almost all material was originally

designed and created. The class centered around a textbook written entirely in English, which, although is advertised as being CLIL-gearred, contributed very minute scaffolding opportunities. Given the scarce linguistic support and negligible language and vocabulary reinforcement from the book, extra resources were employed quite frequently, mainly from the supplementary reading list⁷⁴. Nonetheless, the textbook formed the basis for all content as decreed by the national and regional curriculum for fourth of CSE, and all activities and articles that were pulled from outside sources were closely related to the material and served as expansion activities for further investigation or as linguistic and content scaffolding points. Understandably, a reasonable portion of original material and documents pertinent to certain topics within the subject (Spanish History) were in Spanish. Thus, the majority of resources that were translated into English by the teacher consisted of both basic and advanced versions, including academic and content language. The former used a lower English level, ranging from A2 to B1+ level, whilst the latter ranged from a B2 to C1 level. All resources and translations had clear instructions with adequate white spaces, use of bold and both simple and complex ideas, as well as glossaries.

Copious supplemental materials were used throughout the year, mainly in the form of extracts from books and websites for current affairs⁷⁵. These included more scaffolding in terms of content and language by providing ample cognitive and linguistic support. Although lesson preparation saw the creation of the bulk of the resources and materials to be used in class, remedial, supplementary and expansion activities were also created spontaneously throughout the year as was necessary, based on student readiness, interest, and time.

When creating translations, or simplified versions of text, advice from Fillmore and Snow (2000) was heeded. The authors argue that “short, choppy” sentences are not, contrary to popular belief, easier for students to understand since these are “unnatural, incoherent” blocks of text that “convey less substance than regular texts” (p. 28), as they contend that these types of translations or simplifications can, at times, be even harder for students to decipher given the peculiar wording and usage of language. The authors maintain that text simplification does not equal reducing the number of words and, with this in mind, as a way to make texts and translations more accessible for some of the struggling language learners, more definitions or explanations were included in lieu of shorter sentences.

⁷⁴ Cf. Appendix VIII for reading list and supplemental course materials.

⁷⁵ Such as *El Pais* (<https://elpais.com>), The BBC (<https://www.bbc.com>), The History Channel (<http://www.history.com>), or National Geographic (<https://www.nationalgeographic.com>), to name a few.

The importance of balance related to cognitive load, which according to Fields (2017) is “the amount of information our minds can comfortably hold”, was not overlooked (p. 95). To avoid this, the materials and activities featured clear instructions, a decent amount of white spaces, images, suitably large text font, breaks in text, and an accessible amount of comprehensible input, so students did not feel paralyzed when tackling any activity so to be able to move ahead with their learning. Use of italics was generally avoided, and use of bold and underlining features was kept to a minimum, following recommendations from the British Council (2012). All printed resources were in black and white, but color versions were available to the students in the online platform and displayed on the white board in class.

Finding time for material creation as well as adapting the material did prove to be a timely task. Collaborating with other CLIL History teachers, coupled with the use of online platforms and social media, played a vital role in finding and creating material. While material creation and adaption was not an easy feat, it was made easier given how diversity and differentiation was attended to during the day-to-day; and the teacher’s mindset proved to be a determining factor (in line with findings from Roiha, 2014). Planning lessons that saw the content from a broader perspective, in addition to considering the students for whom they were, made differentiating materials and activities more seamless and routine⁷⁶.

⁷⁶ Cf. Appendix VII for sample activities from the intervention program.

4.3.7.11. Task design

For task design, all knowledge about differentiation and learner variance was considered at all times during the process. According to Tomlinson (2017), students can be differentiated according to three points: their readiness level, their interest, and their learning profile, a phenomenon explained by the author as how students learn individually according to their learning style, intelligence, preferences, gender, and culture. By keeping these three points in mind, task creation was undertaken. First, *readiness* proved to be the starting point for the activities, based on how competent (or ready) a student was for a particular topic. Following, *interests* were considered, since students were motivated by different things, related to gender, culture, individual preferences, and the like. Finally, the product to be created was kept in mind with a view to give the students as wide of a range as possible to choose from, so as to be conducive to effective, motivating learning. Touching more upon the learning profiles, explained by Tomlinson (2017) as the four factors that influence learning (learning style, intelligence preference, gender, and culture), the goal was to pair learners with an adequate learning mode in order to foment learning that would work for them best as an individual. However, students were always encouraged to test out new studying techniques and experiment with creative outputs.

Various modes to learning were presented whenever possible so students were not forced to complete an activity that did not serve them or their learning. In that same vein, creating multi-level or tiered activities was crucial, allowing for students to learn based on their needs and abilities and allowing students to feel comfortable with their learning pace and their learning needs was the core of the intervention program. Undeniably, the dedication to planning and task design can be daunting at first, which is precisely why Marsh's (2017) advice of not taking on too much at once was heeded, and it was done slowly and gradually, working through the curriculum step by step, at a pace that felt comfortable for the teacher, so as not to become overwhelmed, building always from activities that worked and drawing on the students for inspiration.

Learner variance and equity were the guiding principles during task creation in the intervention program, with a view to ensure that all students were going to be working on relevant and challenging, yet feasible activities. To begin, planning was done for the overachievers, or advanced students, as a way to set the bar high for learning and, working backwards other versions of the activities were created for the normal and underachievers, following advice from Tomlinson (2017), who argues that it is best to start with the overachievers when it comes to lesson planning and task design as a way to make them "richer and more robust" (p. 171). The goal was always to make sure that no student was neither under- nor overwhelmed in class and had something to work on at all times. Following Willingham (2010), a diary was also kept as a

way to record tasks and activities that worked best, to be able to use the same model for another topic, while constantly bettering the activities based on the success, or failure of any.

As for planning classes and activities, interests, strengths, and personal characteristics of the students were taken into consideration with a view to connect them as much as possible to the activities and content, something fundamental for the particular subject of History, given that not all students were highly interested or particularly motivated by the subject-matter, coupled with the relatively limited perspective of the subject from the view of the textbook when it came to race, minorities, indigenous populations and gender. Therefore, in addition to playing on previously existing interests in the students, the teacher consistently tried to arouse more intrigue in the students by bringing fun, dynamic angles to the content through the use of anecdotes, personal stories, lesser-known facts, as well as a plethora of multicultural views from a wide range of perspectives.

Input from Willingham (2010) was also heeded in the creation of tasks, per the author's advice that students, while naturally curious, are, generally, not good thinkers, thus, they must be given strategies to learn, in a straightforward, simple way to help teach them how to learn first. The same author (2010) waxes on the curiosity that is thinking, and how the human mind works:

People's minds are not especially well suited to thinking; thinking is slow, effortful, and uncertain. For this reason, deliberate thinking does not guide people's behavior in most situations. Rather, we rely on our memories, following courses of action that we have taken before. Nevertheless, we find successful thinking pleasurable. We like solving problems, understanding new ideas, and so forth. Thus, we will seek out opportunities to think, but we are selective in doing so; we choose problems that pose some challenge but that seem likely to be solvable, because these are the problems that lead to feelings of pleasure and satisfaction (p. 17).

In essence, task creation was guided by the principle of enjoyability: in hopes that the tasks created would be fun for the students, who would look forward to undertaking them. This is of course an individual preference.

When it came to designing tasks, Dörnyei et al. (2014) was a reference point so as to get students as motivated as possible, in line with their *Directed Motivational Current* (DMC), described by the authors as "an intense motivational drive which is capable of both stimulating and supporting long-term behavior, such as learning a foreign/second language" (p. 9). Thus, ideas were bounced off between teacher and students before any project or long-term task was set definitively in the hopes that the students would suggest activities that were most motivating to them, hoping to "spark their attention and act as a catalyst" for a sustained period of

motivational learning (idem, 2014, p. 9). Similarly, how to create an effective language task followed the DMC framework: clear instructions on where to start, a “well-defined pathway” on how to complete the task, and a “specific outcome” (p. 26). In that way, students knew where to start, how to make progression, and what was expected of them from the beginning. When designing tasks, extreme consideration was given to making sure students had “a clear perception of progress” since in this way, students would be able to see the evolution of the activity in an “incrementally perceptible” way and thus, could see it come together step by step (idem, 2014, p. 26).

Overall, task design was arguably one of the most essential parts of the intervention program, albeit without a doubt the most time-consuming. Nonetheless, the engaging activities provided to be more than worth the while, keeping the students motivated and interested throughout the year. In keeping with the differentiation instruction, pedagogical tact and intuition went a long way and task creation was a constant process throughout the year, drawing upon ideas that had worked and those that needed fine-tuning. As previously mentioned, the teacher herself was also learning throughout the year, and every task and activity served to better her understanding of how the students worked and learned.

4.3.7.12. Language use

While not the sole focus, academic language did play an important role in the class, since History as a subject requires a reasonable amount of academic language, its knowledge being crucial for the study and production of historical documents and their respective explanations. While colloquial language is approximately one thousand words and nouns, academic language has almost ten-fold that amount (Fields, 2017, referencing Cobbs & Hurst, 2004; Hu & Nation, 2000). This type of language was not ignored during the intervention program since it was the intention of the teacher to educate the students with a view for them to be successful both inside and beyond the CLIL classroom.

A relatively common phenomenon today was present in the intervention program: students who, colloquially, were familiar and able to manipulate the English language reasonably well, such as in day-to-day situations, following along with TV series, listening to music and online searches; however, when it came to academic language, many of the students were uncomfortable or unfamiliar with its use, some unable to use it at all, leaving them unprepared for the sophisticated vocabulary that comes with many subjects, such as History. This was particularly relevant, especially since success in employment impinges on functional, academic use of the L2 and most of the students in the class were colloquially-proficient in English but not nearly as academically competent, which proved to be true also for the native-English speaking

students. Following guidelines for “flexible language arrangements” (García, 2009) several pedagogical strategies were used during the lessons regarding language use, such as the use of cross-lingual comparisons, L1-L2 translations, L2-L1 translations and translanguaging. English was the language of instruction, but Spanish and the other home languages were valued, recognized, and used to facilitate content acquisition. Fields (2017) underlines the importance of translanguaging in the CLIL classroom, which, paradoxically:

is actually one of the basic principles of CLIL- to give that level of comfort necessary to students so they can continue moving forward. In these cases, not presenting some content in their home language would be detrimental to their learning. As long as students don't use it as a crutch, it's a valuable way to strengthen their skills (p. 27).

The teacher in the intervention program studied language acquisition theory formally, which was critical for the implementation of the intervention program so language could be taught properly. Especially since it has been argued (Fillmore & Snow, 2000) that teachers

need to know something about how language figures in academic learning and to recognize that all students require instructional support and attention to acquire the forms and structures associated with it. This is especially true for English language learners. [...] And they must know enough about language to discuss it and to support its development in their students. Academic language is learned through frequent exposure and practice [...] (p. 22).

Following recommendations from Llinares et al. (2007), who consider that language is used to express three main functions, more insight was had into the workings of language and how could be used specifically with the subject of History (p. 228):

- to represent reality (ideational function)
- to interact with others (interpersonal function); and
- to connect the ideas in a text (textual function).

With regard to English language teaching, albeit secondary to content acquisition, it was given serious consideration and importance in the planning of lessons. With strategic preparation prior to class, albeit the use of ‘technical’ vocabulary related to the content, scaffolding techniques were used, as well as pre-emptive attempts to define or explain any concepts or vocabulary that could possibly provoke confusion. Prior to each unit, students copied down the vocabulary that would be seen, building upon this from previous units, including historical definitions, as well as phrases and expressions commonly used in historical accounts. These words and phrase sets were referred to often, frequently featured in assessments and used for task and lesson design.

Real English (Pérez Cañado & Ojeda-Pinar, 2018) was fostered and all spoken and written language was manipulated by the teacher so as to make the English as communicative and accessible as possible. Empowering the students to feel relaxed and confident in their L2 competence played a major part in the classroom atmosphere, which is why the teacher allowed the students to speak freely and openly, generally avoiding correcting any language misuse in front of the class. To that end, verbal language mistakes were downplayed as a way to promote more candidacy in class. Furthermore, keeping the students' affective filter (Krashen, 1985) as low as possible was the goal when it came to language, by ensuring that students did not feel like their language use was constantly being *scrutinized* (García, 2009). Keeping this in mind, interactions in class were authentic and engaging without an abundance of pressure put on language use. Letting students make mistakes with a view to boost their confidence in their language use was important. The teacher recognized that other languages have different patterns and, quite possibly, students were interested in the content but were not participating because they were afraid of making mistakes and possible ridicule that might ensue. Thus, students were taught implicitly that they could express themselves in the L2. By letting grammatical correctness fall to the wayside, especially orally, the teacher aimed to prioritize use, fluidness, and motivation, letting down the affective filter so students would be willing and motivated to participate without inhibition or fear that they would be "wrong" (Fillmore & Snow, 2000; Krashen, 1987).

Regarding the use of the L1, general summaries at the end of class in the L1 were avoided; however, it was employed in certain situations systematically, per Roiha (2014), who points out this can prove to be quite effective in supporting the underachievers. This is why the teacher made sure to be consistent and punctual with the L1 use and convey its purpose in the CLIL class with the students: it served to facilitate and further foment content learning through the use of translations, glossaries, and subtitles.

Vocabulary acquisition was important for the CLIL class, and was subsequently fomented, practiced and encouraged by the teacher, who looked for engaging ways to introduce concepts and exposed the students to new vocabulary as often as possible in interesting ways (Fillmore & Snow, 2000). Concerning the teaching of vocabulary, which constituted an important part of the subject, instruction for teaching words was done using tactics put forth by Beck et al. (2002), who distinguish between different types of words to teach, considering that words "have different levels of utility" (p. 212). The previously mentioned authors propose a tier system for vocabulary use in class as a "lens through which to consider words for instructional attention":

- basic words (tier one)
- words that occur quite often and are for more advanced users (tier two)
- words of low frequency who are only used in specific fields (tier three).

The authors (2002) propose that neither tier one nor tier three words need to be given much dedication; instead, it is tier two that teachers should be particularly concerned about. To this end, words included on vocabulary lists and glossaries were given careful consideration, keeping in mind the *utility*, *frequency*, and *importance* they had for the subject of History. A series of notions were also heeded when deciding what words should be explicitly taught, in line with the authors (2002) advise, including (p. 212):

- frequency of use
- probability of being found in other texts
- degree of usefulness
- relation of the word to other words or ideas
- how powerful the word is in a sentence or text or situation.

Using this knowledge and criteria, vocabulary pertaining to the course was established for each unit and students were given an obligatory vocabulary list for use on projects and exams. It was found that the students were more in tune to the subject when they were not forced to memorize a long list of vocabulary words. Thus, by allowing the students to create and bring to class, and even exams, a personal glossary or *cheat-sheet* that they had created, they were able to progress much more in the subject, and as time went on. Even though they brought the list with them, they did not, in most cases, recur to its use; reassured with its presence, it served to get the students more focused on understanding the ideas, rather than memorizing vocabulary.

4.3.7.13. Assessment

For assessment, differentiation and personalization played a monumental role. The mentality behind assessment was a *show me what you know* and having students showcase their strengths was behind this pillar in the intervention program. Evaluation was a key factor for attending to diversity, and used with a view to respect each individual learner, as well as grade them on their personal achievements, and was not used to confuse them or highlight what they did not know. Students were never held to standards they would be incapable of reaching and one guiding principle was kept in mind when planning assessments and evaluations: in what way are the students going to be able to best demonstrate what they have learned? Heeding Julius and Madrid (2017), the criterion used to evaluate each student was "a way of operationalizing individual student learning assessment with respect to the educational objectives that act as benchmarks without the need to compare students directly" (Julius & Madrid, 2017, p. 18, referencing Heredia Manrique, 2009). Differentiation in the intervention program was based on individual assessment and personally assessing how each student grew in their learning trajectory through each specific unit, by keeping in mind what they knew via readiness, not what they were expected to know.

In the intervention program, the teacher checked individual progress daily, as well as assessing the students' personal evaluation of themselves and their learning via the statements previously mentioned regarding their self-assessments. Both formative and summative evaluations were used, but the former were given more weight in general. Assessment in the intervention program was not about testing following the completion of a unit or done at the end of a trimester and judging the results, but contrarily, was used as a diagnostic resource before, during and after a unit as a way to gauge the students' progress, stagnation, misunderstandings, or confusion. Negative results of an exam served as a highly functional resource, mainly for the teacher to reflect on her teaching, as a way to critically look at what had been done, and guide remedial teaching if the mode in which the content had been presented had not been functional for all the students. By assessing students constantly and consistently at the beginning and throughout the duration of a unit, the teacher was able to give the students a more personalized feedback based on where each student was in their learning trajectory for them as an individual, not as a student in fourth of CSE.

The final, or summative assessment, in the form of an exam, tried to serve as a fair means of assessing the students on the content. The question types were varied, including long and short answer, multiple choice, open cloze and matching. The exam featured core or mandatory questions, in addition to voluntary supplementary and extension questions. All students were given a full lesson to complete the exam and extra time was given to those that

needed it by coordinating with the other teachers if necessary, but, in general, the exams were created with a view to be able to be completed satisfactorily in 45 minutes. The assessments were in English and the use of academic language was encouraged, and as previously mentioned, the students were allowed to use a personal glossary on the exams. Some of the more formal assessments included two versions which mainly differed in the instructions used as a way to explain the tasks in more detail for those who did not understand completely. Students who were in need of more assistance were provided with an alternative version of the test that focused on assessing the same content as the rest of the students, but had more explanatory terms or translations, following suggestions and recommendations by Otto (2018), who says limited language proficiency should be taken into account. In that same vein, the correct correction of mistakes was also a part of the assessment process, and the same approach as suggested by Otto (2018) was taken in the intervention program: "[errors] should be corrected in such a way that they do not interfere with communication while encouraging students, and providing clear feedback and correct models" (p. 317).

Summative assessment was another element of this multifaceted component of the class and evaluation served primarily to allow the students to convey to the teacher what they knew and what they had learned; thus, with a view for this, periodic assessments were given out or undertaken, especially focused on the students with limited or low L1 or L2 proficiency, as a way to give their grade a double-aspect by assessing their performance in class, allowing them to express their content knowledge without hindrance of a deficiency in the L2. Students were also given autonomy in documenting their progress: they were encouraged to keep track of their grades in their notebooks. The superiority of the element of constructive feedback over numerical grades was conveyed to the students routinely, and they were reminded of this as a way to take pressure away from the final result, with a view to help them appreciate the journey, and prompt them to give more weight to the entire learning trajectory.

4.3.7.14. Conclusion

In the end, it is our "moral and legal" obligation as teachers to provide "a sound education" for all students, underachievers and overachievers alike, as Mitchell (2018, p. 94) wisely emphasizes. This change in how teaching happens starts with teachers, and taking on this labor with a new mindset means rethinking what it means to be an educator. If a student has failed at school, whose fault is it? Why should all students be expected to achieve the same standards when human variance principles tell us that this is unrealistic, or even impossible? Coupled with our knowledge that some students receive vastly more support at home than others is the fact that a student's background has a huge effect on their achievement in school.

For these very reasons, giving each student the best opportunity to showcase their skills, highlight their strengths, and come to class excited and motivated to learn drove this intervention program through the methodology, integrated use of IC and differentiation strategies, lesson planning, task design, and assessment.

Put quite simply by Tomlinson (2017), "teaching is difficult. Teaching really well is profoundly difficult" (p vii). However, it is the love of teaching that allows educators to stay constant in their strife for improvement and excellence, and this was at the core of the intervention program. Lifelong learning is no better understood than in the field of education, where professionals are teaching their students and simultaneously learning from them.

Chapter 5. Quantitative Results and discussion

5.1. Introduction

Following the review done in the previous chapters on the theoretical aspects of CLIL, relevant studies conducted on the continent and in this country, detailing of the instruments used and analysis protocol followed, the quantitative results will now be presented. For this chapter, all results from the previously mentioned quantitative instruments will be interpreted, through the use of the previously explained procedures, and will be put forth for consideration. The results will be presented first by detailing each of the three tiers individually, beginning with the underachievers, followed by the normal achievers, and then the overachievers. The variables are threefold: dependent (FL, content mastery, and L1); independent (the CLIL program) and moderating (gender, SES, verbal intelligence, and the four variables related to motivation: self-demand, anxiety in the face of exams, disinterest in study, and self-esteem). Various statistical analyses have also been calculated in order to gauge the effect CLIL has on the L1 and L2 competences, as well as its effect on content acquisition by tier, in addition to scrutinizing the differential effects of the intervening variables pertinent to this study for the students related to gender, SES and the motivational factors. Post-hoc analyses used paired sample t tests, ANOVA, and Wilcoxon signed-rank test. The effect sizes have been calculated using Rosenthal's *r*. Finally, the *Standardized canonical discriminant function coefficients* analyses were used to determine which variables, if any, are responsible for the effect on the dependent variables.

For the quantitative part of the study, the students were first broken down into their three respective tiers, as determined by their L1 and content grades from the previous academic year, the pre-test in the L2, as well as the verbal intelligence and motivation tests, all of which were used to assign of each student to their respective tier⁷⁷. Some of the students with special circumstances, such as the native English speakers, nationalities distinct to Spanish, or newcomers to the school, were manually sorted into a tier and will be discussed. The explanation for each tier also lists out these students with specific situations or circumstances that lend themselves to diversity.

The quantitative results stem from the instruments used during the information-gathering phase, which include the previously designed and original tests created specifically to probe CLIL as related to catering to diversity. The tests include the English pre- and post-tests, the instruments related to verbal intelligence and motivation, the former gauged by the *Factorial Assessment of Intellectual Aptitude*

⁷⁷ Cf. section 4.3.7.5. for detailing of the establishment of the tiers.

(Santamaria et al., 2016) and the latter by Pelechano's (2014) M-A test. As previously mentioned, test scores from the previous academic year were also consulted and taken into consideration, specifically regarding the L1 and content subject. All of the data recompiled sought to give clear insight as to the effect CLIL is having on students' L1 and L2 competences as well as content acquisition, as pertaining to three different types of achievers within the classroom, as well as to be fully reliable means of calculating students' baseline knowledge for FL, L1, and content.

The tiers will be described more in detail vis-à-vis the different motivational factors (including: *desire to work and self-demand, anxiety in the face of exams, interest or lack of interest in one's studies, and realistic personal self-esteem*) corresponding to the responses from Pelechano's (1994) M-A test. As regards the terms low, normal, and high scores for each factor, it should be noted that, in some cases, high does not correspond with overachiever nor does low correspond with underachiever, as will be examined further on.

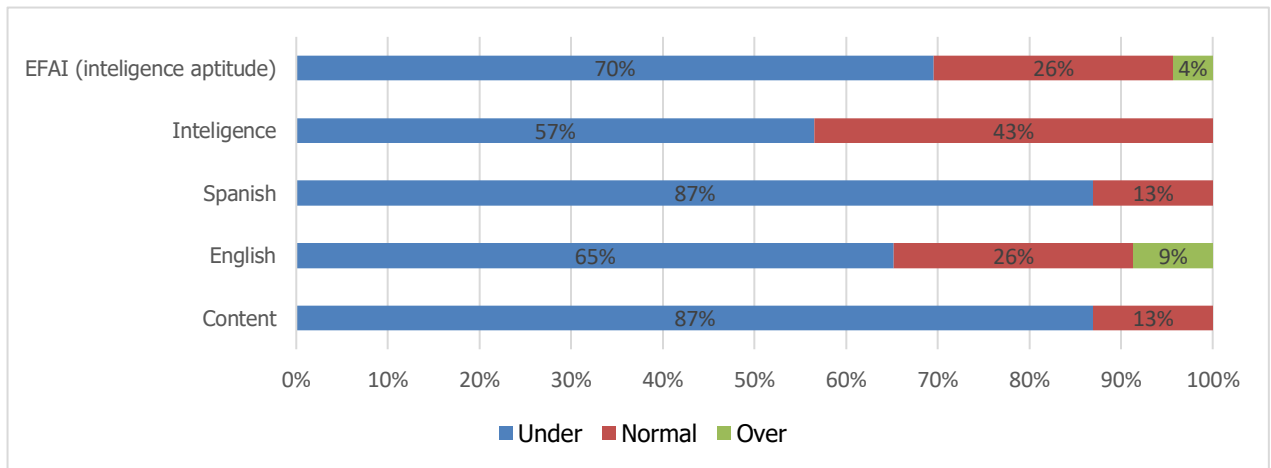
Following the discussion of each tier by grades, a within-cohort comparison is undertaken, specifically concerned with the L1, L2, and content subject knowledge grades according to the pre- and post-test scores. Then, we will compare the tiers according to the students in need of diversity measures depending on a variety of factors and finally, how the grades in content, L1, and L2 are being affected across the tiers will be examined. The underachievers will be discussed first, followed by the normal achievers, and then overachievers.

5.2. Underachievers

The underachievers consist of 23 students, or 38% of the student cohort. The first graph shows the underachievers sorted by the scores and results from the content, L1, L2, intelligence, and aptitude tests. Two students are categorized as overachievers in the L2 due to being native English speakers (as represented below in the graph). One student, who falls into the overachiever category for aptitude, is a newcomer to the school and has a learning disability (cf. Graph 34). The rest of the underachievers have cut-off points for content knowledge, L1, L2, verbal intelligence, and general intelligence scores taken from

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING:
A QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE STUDY. CHAPTER 5. QUANTITATIVE RESULTS AND
DISCUSSION

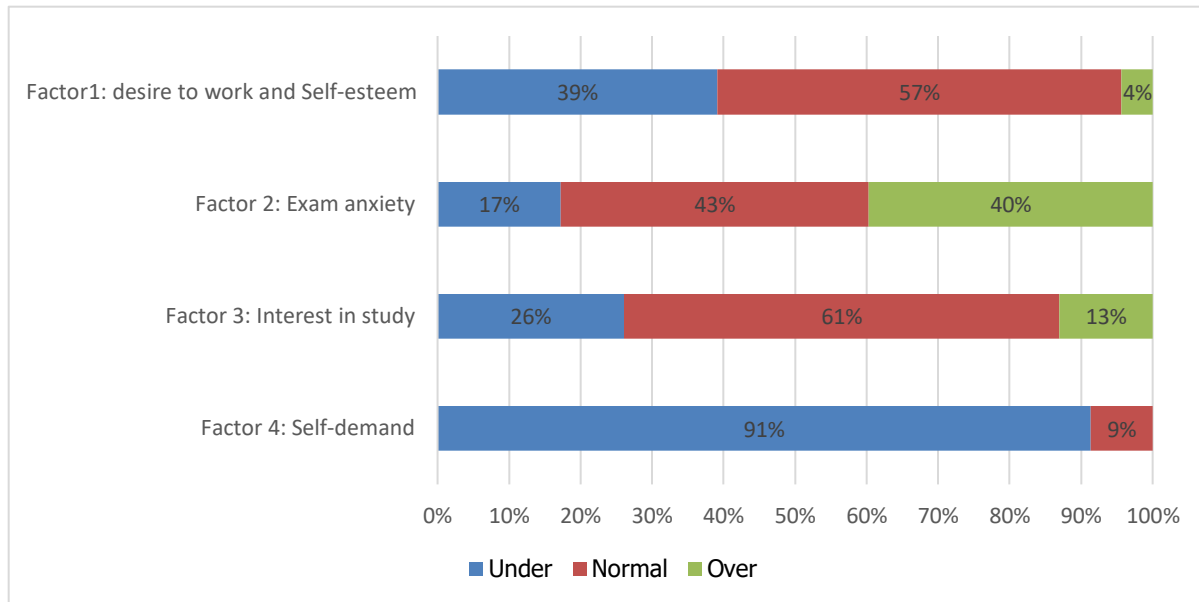
grades from the previous academic year which sort them, for a majority of the variables, into the underachiever category, and the rest into the normal achiever category.



Graph 34: Underachievers sorted by content, L1, L2, verbal intelligence, and aptitude scores

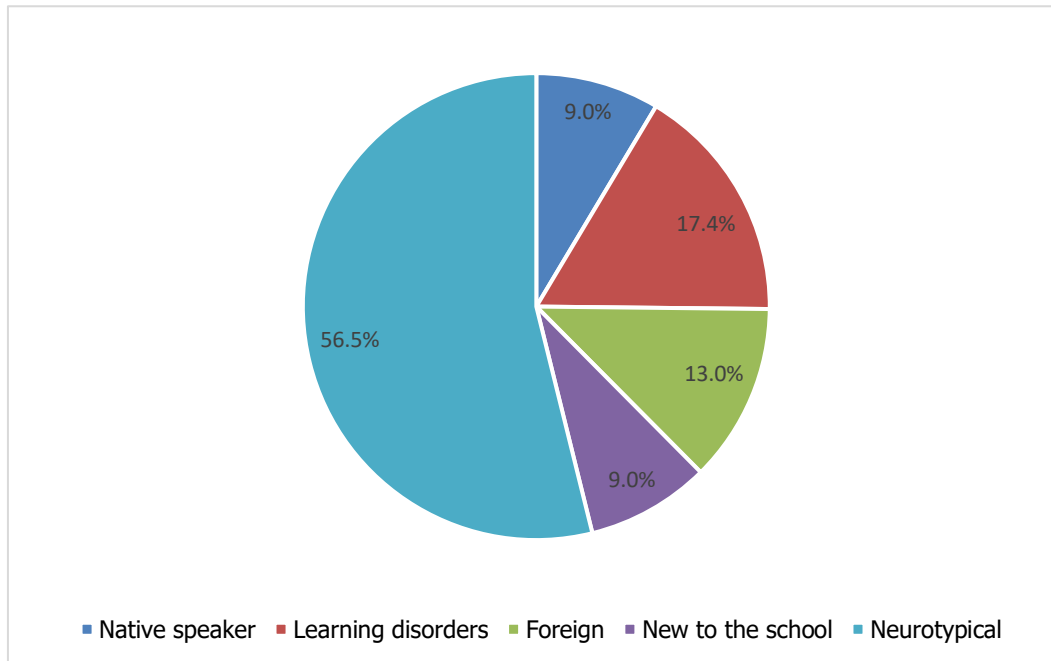
Next, we will consider this tier according to the different motivational factors (cf. Graph 35). Here, we can note some curious take-aways from the underachiever: for the motivational item of self-demand (factor 4), almost the entirety of the underachievers (91%) are categorized as having low realistic personal self-demand. Next, a significant percentage (26%) of this cohort expresses a low interest in studying (factor 3). When it comes to exam anxiety, the vast majority of the cohort (83%) report normal or high levels of anxiety in the face of exams (factor 2), with only a small minority (17%) having low exam-anxiety. Finally, with the exception of one student, all of the underachievers show low or normal levels of vain desire to work and self-esteem (96%, factor 1).

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING:
A QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE STUDY. CHAPTER 5. QUANTITATIVE RESULTS AND
DISCUSSION



Graph 35: Underachievers sorted according to the different motivational factors

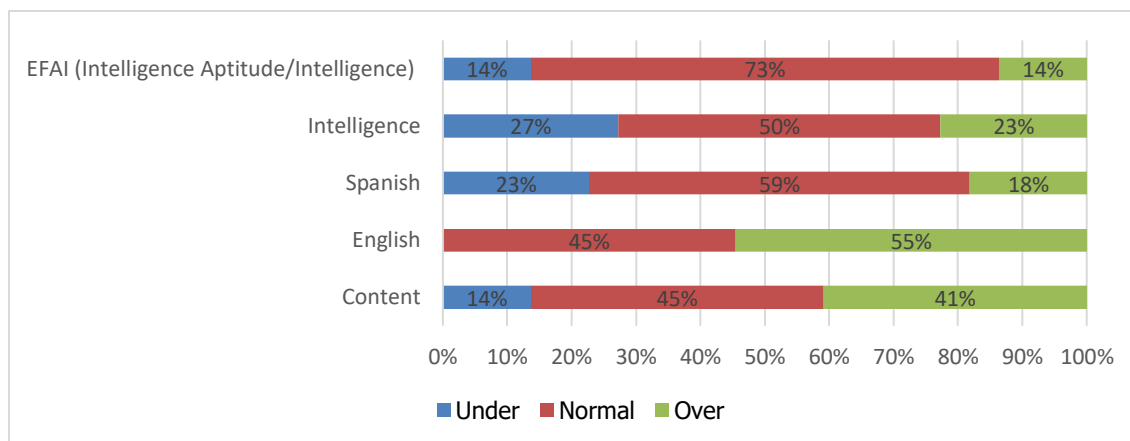
Regarding specific situations or characteristics in need of diversity measures, almost half of the cohort falls into this category (43.5%), whilst the slight majority are categorized as *neurotypical*, or in the absence of any notable condition or characteristic in need of attending to (56.5%) (cf. Graph 36). It should be noted that one of the students has two specific conditions in need of diversity measures, being both a newcomer student and having a learning disability: two of the two of the underachievers (9%) are native English speakers (4A, 18B); four of the students (17.4%) have learning disorders (5A, 13A, 6B, 10C); three students in this tier (13%) are foreign (15A, 11C, 22B); and two of the underachieving students (9%) are new to the school (6B and 21B).



Graph 36: Underachievers as pertaining to diverse needs

5.3. Normal achievers

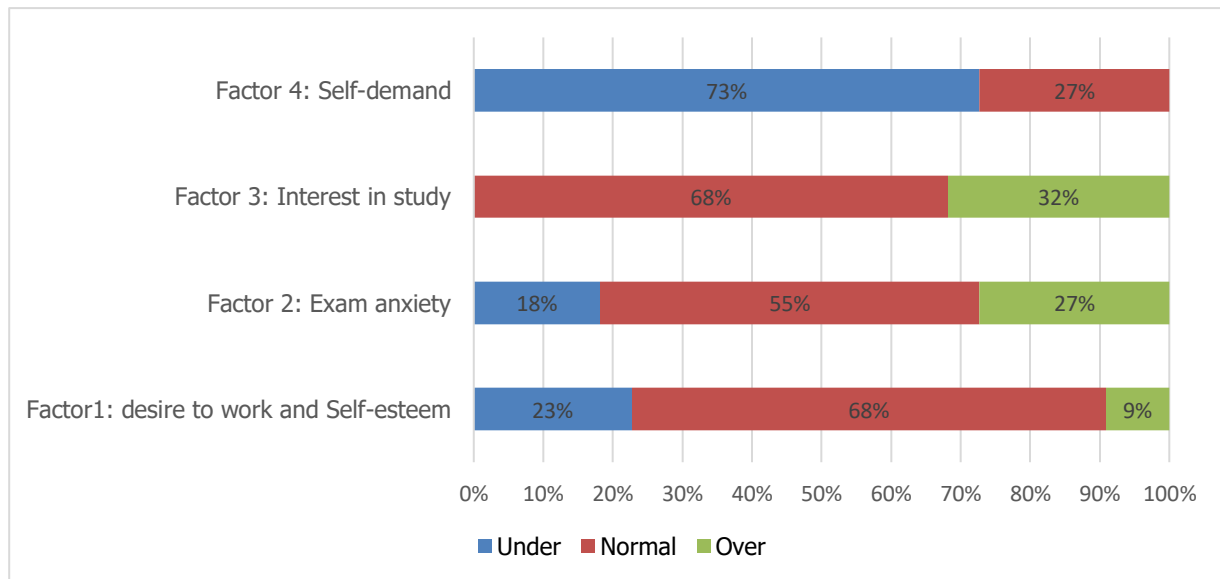
For the next section, the normal achievers will be scrutinized, repeating the same process as with the underachievers. The normal achievers included 22 students, or 36% of the student cohort. In this tier, there was a wide variety of scores, the majority of the students being categorized as a mixture of over-, under- and normal achievers, or high, normal, and low, in the various criteria. However, the majority of students in this tier (86%) are categorized with an intellectual aptitude score of normal, or under, and a slight majority (77%), are categorized as normal or under for the criteria of overall intelligence, related to general academic performance (cf. Graph 37).



Graph 37: Normal achievers sorted by content, L1, L2, verbal intelligence, and aptitude scores

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING:
A QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE STUDY. CHAPTER 5. QUANTITATIVE RESULTS AND
DISCUSSION

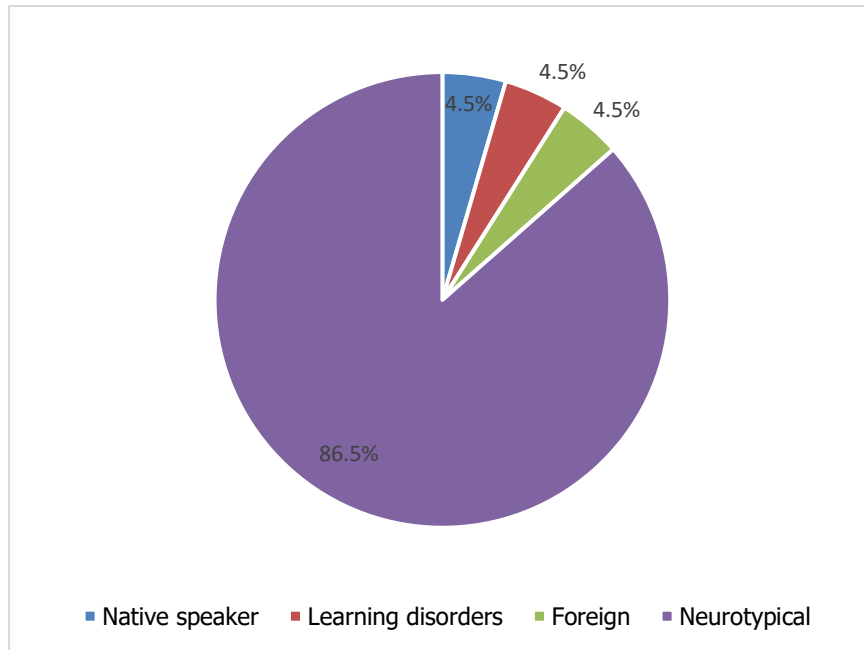
By taking into consideration the different motivational factors for this tier, the normal achievers will be listed according to the different factors, following Pelechano's (1994) M-A test (cf. Graph 38). The following can be remarked upon: a significant percentage of the normal achievers (22.7%) express a low desire to work and self-esteem (factor 1), while only two students show a high desire to work (9%), and the majority (68%) report normal levels of desire to work and self-esteem. As for exam anxiety (factor 2), a minority of this tier have low levels of anxiety in the face of exams (18%), contrasted with majority of this tier who have normal or high levels of exam anxiety (55% and 27%, respectively). Regarding interest in studying (factor 3), none of the normal achievers show disinterest in studying, unlike the underachievers, and all of the normal achievers express a normal to high interest in studying (68% the former; 32% the latter). Finally, for self-demand (factor 4), none of the normal achievers have high self-demand, the minority of this tier have normal self-demand (27%) and the rest (73%) have low levels of self-demand.



Graph 38: Normal achievers sorted according to the different motivational factors

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING:
A QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE STUDY. CHAPTER 5. QUANTITATIVE RESULTS AND
DISCUSSION

In terms of situations in need of diversity measures, three of the normal-achievers (13.7%) have specific conditions, whilst the rest (86.3%) are characterized as neurotypical, or in the absence of any known condition that was specifically in need of attending to (cf. Graph 39). More precisely three of the normal achievers (13.5%) have specific diversity characteristics: one normal achiever (2A; 4.5%) has a learning disorder; one (2B; 4.5%) is a native English-speaker; and one of the normal achievers is foreign (15B; 4.5%).

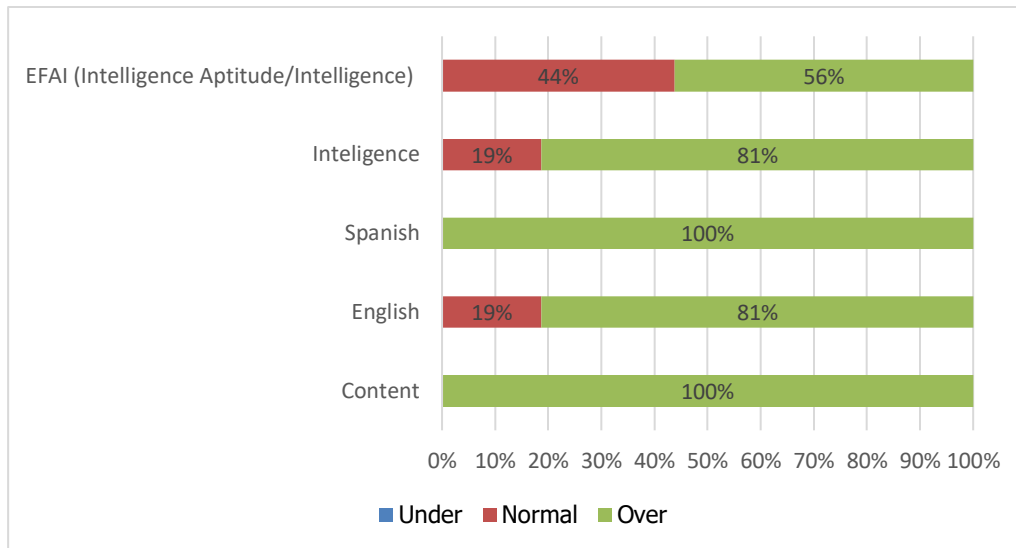


Graph 39: Normal-achievers as pertaining to diverse needs

5.4. Overachievers

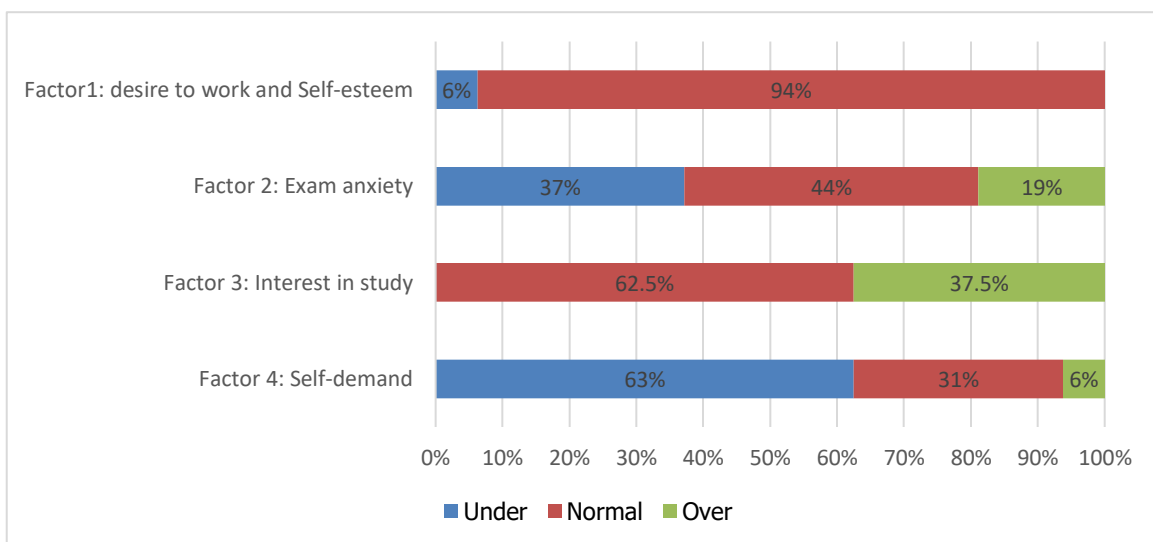
To complete the within-tier analysis, we will finish with the minority group, the overachievers, which made up 26% of the student cohort, with 16 students. Some of the overachievers have normal scores in English, some of whom are newcomers to the school and, therefore, does not have the same linguistic capacity as their peers but performed at or above them in the other variables and criterion. All of the other overachievers are sorted as overachievers in all of the criteria, or as normal achievers in a maximum of two criteria. As depicted graphically, the entirety of the students in this tier are categorized as overachievers in both variables of the Spanish language and content-subject knowledge (cf. Graph 40).

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING: A QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE STUDY. CHAPTER 5. QUANTITATIVE RESULTS AND DISCUSSION



Graph 40: Overachievers sorted by content, L1, L2, verbal intelligence, and aptitude scores

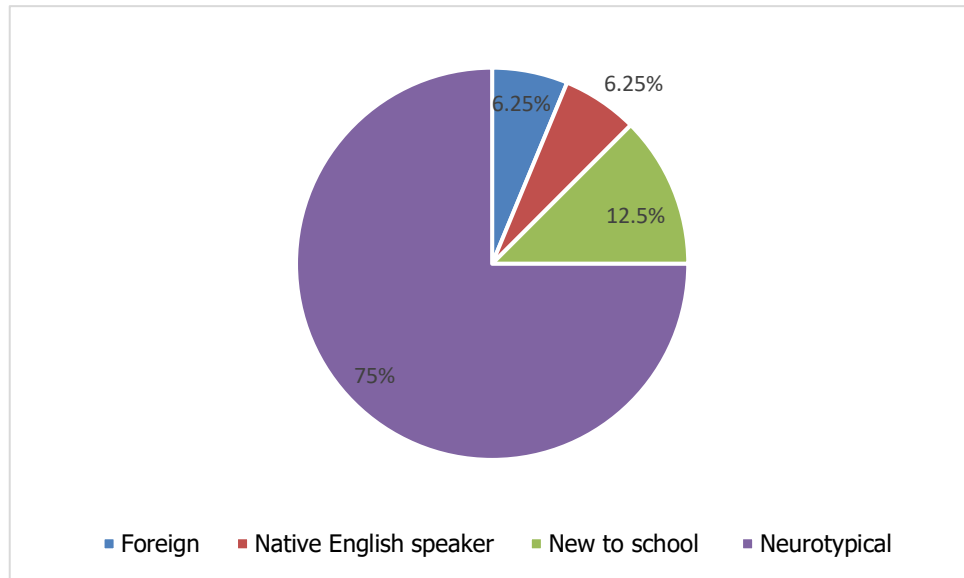
Regarding the overachievers and their categorization in the various motivational factors (cf. Graph 41), almost the entirety (94%) express a normal desire to work and self-esteem (factor 1). Regarding anxiety in the face of exams (factor 2), the minority (19%) show high exam anxiety, while the majority (44%) express normal levels of exam anxiety, and a relatively significant percentage (37.5%) show low levels of exam anxiety. Concerning interest in studying (factor 3), all of the overachievers have either a high (37.5%) or normal (62.5%) interest in studying, and none report low interest in their studies. Finally, over half of this tier (62.5%) have low self-demand (factor 4), whilst a minority (31%) have normal levels, and only one overachiever has high self-demand (6.5%).



Graph 41: Overachievers sorted according to the different motivational factors

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING: A QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE STUDY. CHAPTER 5. QUANTITATIVE RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

As for specific circumstances in need of diversity measures (cf. Graph 42), four of the overachievers (25%) have specific needs related to diversity, while the remaining students (75%) are categorized as neurotypical, that is, in absence of any known condition that needs attending to the fact that two students (12.5%; 8B, 22C) are newcomers, one student is a native English speaker (6.25%, 6A) and one student is foreign (6.25%, 8A).



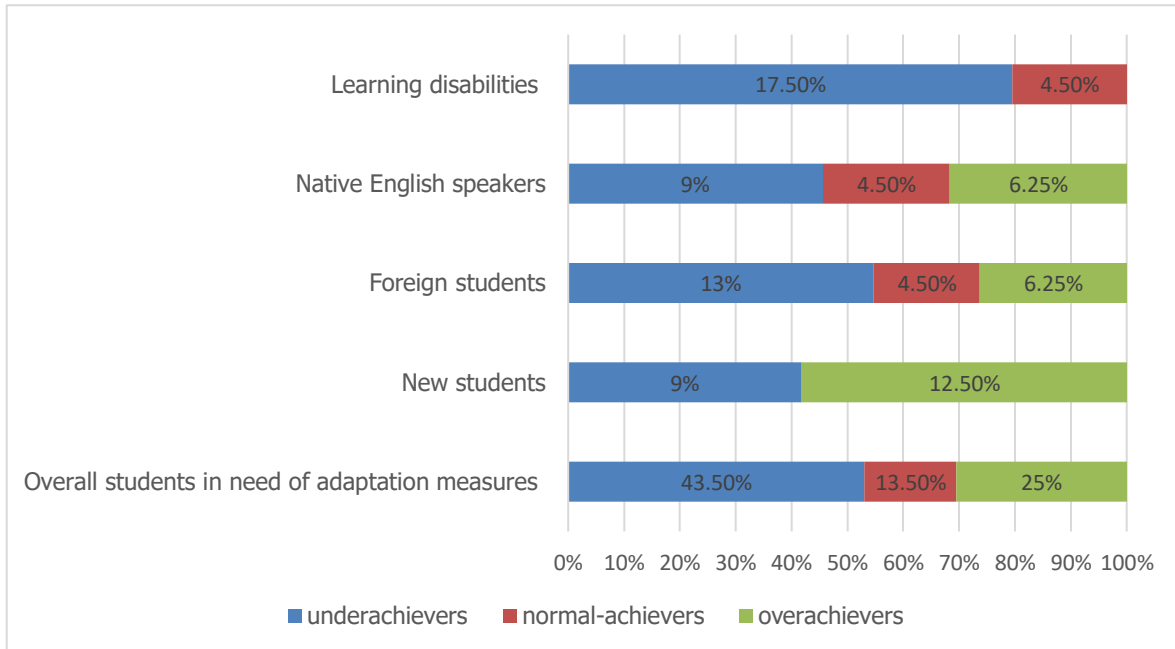
Graph 42: Overachievers as pertaining to diverse needs

5.5. Diversity within the tiers

Now turning to factors related to diversity across the tiers, specifically students who are newcomers, foreign, native English speakers, or have a learning disability, there are distinctions amongst the tiers (cf. Graph 43). Overall, the tier with the highest number of students in need of adaptation measures is the underachievers (43.7% of the tier⁷⁸), followed by the overachievers (25% of that tier) and finally, the normal achievers (13.7% of that tier). As for the specific conditions, both the underachievers and the overachievers have two new students and all of the tiers have foreign students, although the majority of them are concentrated in the underachievers (13%), whilst the normal achievers and overachievers each have one foreign student in their tier (4.5% and 6.25% of the cohorts, respectively). As for native speakers of English, the tier with the highest percentage (two students, 9%) is the underachievers, while the other native English speakers are concentrated in the normal achievers (4.5%,

⁷⁸ There were 10 overall underachievers with specific diverse needs. However, one student had two needs, being a newcomer student with a learning disability.

one student) and overachievers (6.25%, one student). The most concerning issue in terms of diversity measures would be related to the learning disabilities, since, of the five students present in the study with diagnosed learning disabilities, four of them are concentrated in the underachiever tier, the other falling into the normal achiever tier.



Graph 43: Diverse students in need of adaptation measures

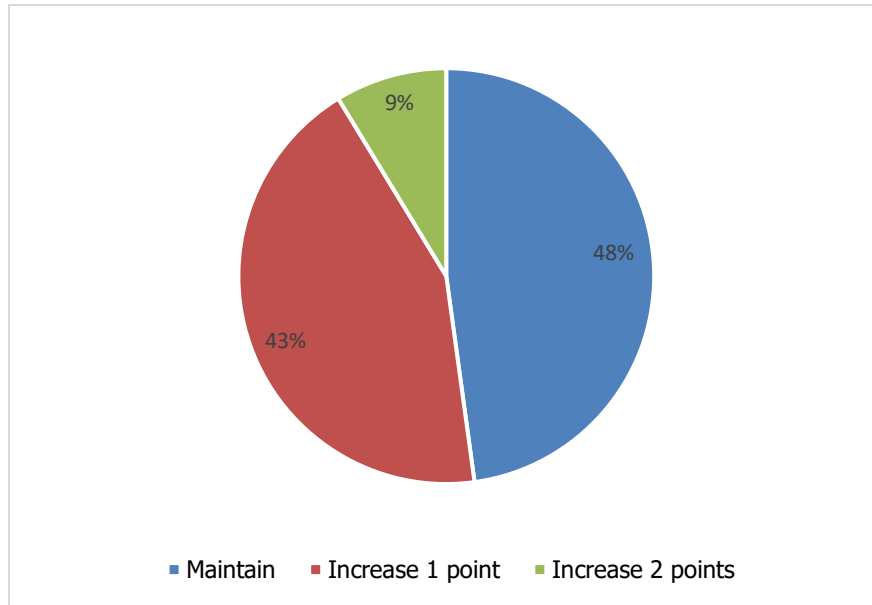
5.6. Effects of CLIL on FL (English) competence

5.6.1. By tier

Turning now to the analysis of the first linguistic competence by tier, specifically the L2 or English language (RQ1), we must turn to the instruments described in section 4.3.4., concretely, the pre- and post-English tests, by taking into consideration the results from both those administered at the beginning and end of the academic year. These tests, designed by experts, seek to measure the various dimensions of the English language: use of English, reading, vocabulary, listening, and speaking. We will begin with the underachievers, followed by normal achievers, and finishing with the overachievers. Following the layout of the three tiers by FL competence, we will look at the differential effect of the intervening variables and how these played a part in the students second language acquisition.

Related to L2 competence levels in the underachievers, concerning the pre- and post-test English grades, the majority of the cohort either maintained their grades or increased them by one point (48% and 43%, respectively), whereas a minority of the cohort increased their L2 grades by two points (9%) (cf. Graph 44).

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING:
A QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE STUDY. CHAPTER 5. QUANTITATIVE RESULTS AND
DISCUSSION



Graph 44: Underachievers: English (pre- and post-tests)

Specifically concerning the ten underachievers with diverse needs:

- The native English speakers (4A, 18B) maintained their grades of a 10;
- the students with learning disorders: one student (13A) improved their English grade by two points, one student (6B) improved by one point and the remaining two students (5A and 10C) maintained their grades;
- two of the foreign underachievers (15A, 11C) increased their grades by one point and one foreign underachiever (22B) maintained their English grade; and,
- both newcomers (6B and 21B) increased their English grades by one point.

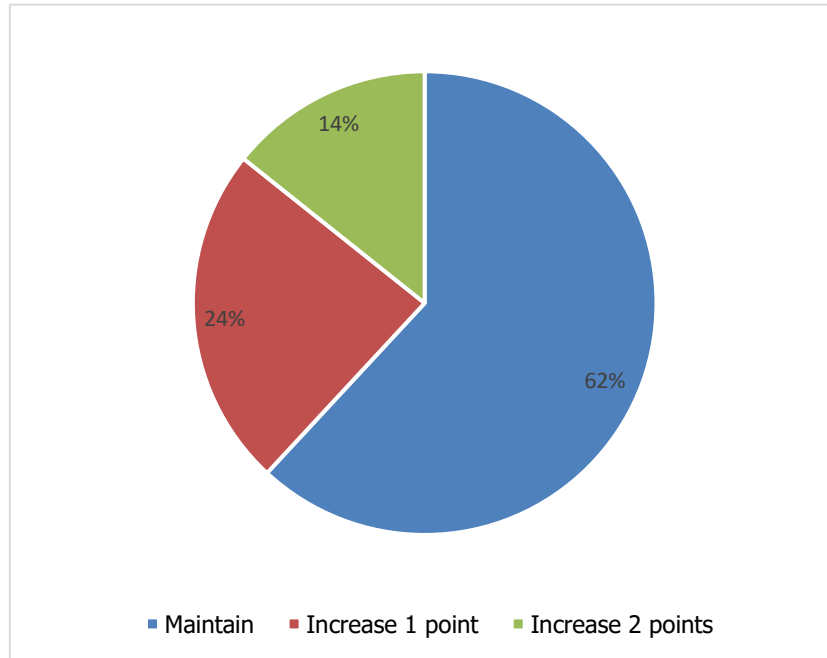
To determine if statistically significant differences could be found between the pre- and post-tests of the underachievers, the Wilcoxon-signed rank test and Rosenthal's r was used to calculate effect size, leading us to deduce that there are differences obtained since significantly better results are found in the post-test (cf. Table 1).

	N	Mean	SD	Rosenthal's r	p-value
Pre-test	15	4.80	0.77	0.807	0.002
Post-test	15	5.67	0.89		

Table 1: Statistically significant differences in underachievers pre- and post-tests in FL

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING: A QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE STUDY. CHAPTER 5. QUANTITATIVE RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Turning now to the normal achievers, this is the tier where the most improvement is concentrated. Regarding the results in the English pre- and post-tests, the bulk of the normal achievers maintained their English grades (62%), whilst one-fourth (25%) of the students increased their grades by one point, and a significant percentage (14%) increased their English grades by two grade points (cf. Graph 45).



Graph 45: Normal achievers English (pre- and post-scores)

Touching upon the normal achievers with conditions in need of catering to diversity, all three students with diverse needs (learning disorder, native English speaker, foreign) maintained their English competence levels.

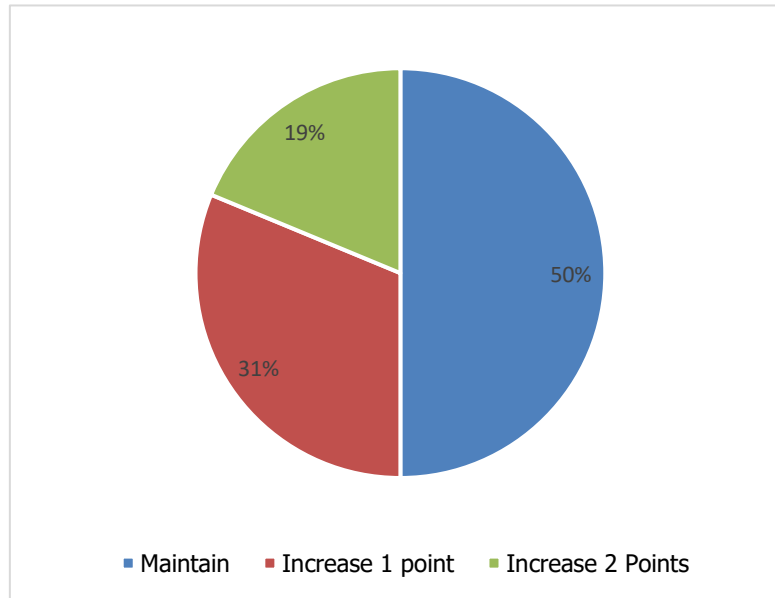
Applying the same test from Table 1, significantly statistical differences can be observed between the pre- and post-tests within the normal achieving group, shown by an overall increase of ability when comparing the means of the two tests (cf. Table 2).

	N	Mean	SD	Rosenthal's r	p-value
Pre-test	21	7.14	1.82	0.732	<0.001
Post-test	21	8.29	1.49		

Table 2: Statistically significant differences in normal achievers pre- and post-tests in L2

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING:
A QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE STUDY. CHAPTER 5. QUANTITATIVE RESULTS AND
DISCUSSION

As previously mentioned, the entirety of the overachieving cohort (100%) either maintained their L2 grades as a 10 or improved their grades to a nine or a 10. To briefly detail, half of the students maintained their grades in English, whilst 31% of the students improved their scores by one point, and 19% improved their scores by two points (cf. Graph 46).



Graph 46: Overachievers English (pre- and post-scores)

Finally, in the group of overachievers, an increase in this groups' average can be seen, and the result is statistically significant (cf. Table 3). The Wilcoxon-signed rank test was used once again with the corresponding effect size depicted by Rosenthal's r .

	N	Mean	SD	Rosenthal's r	p-value
Pre-test	23	8.09	1.16	0.888	<0.001
Post-test	23	9.39	1.03		

Table 3: Statistically significant differences in overachievers pre- and post-tests in L2

5.6.2. L2 competence: Differential effects of intervening variables

Following this presentation of the tiers by linguistic gains in the L2, we will now proceed to determine whether any statistically significant differences can be determined between the tiers regarding the intervening variables of gender, SES, four types of motivation, and verbal intelligence (RQ2). All

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING:
A QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE STUDY. CHAPTER 5. QUANTITATIVE RESULTS AND
DISCUSSION

calculations were done with the Wilcoxon signed-rank test and effect sizes were determined using Rosenthal's r .

5.6.2.1. Gender

As beheld in the table (cf. Table 4), we can see the influence of gender on students' L2 competence. As can be deduced, gender as a variable presents statistically significant differences in both tests, meaning both genders are benefitting from improvement after the methodology from the intervention program that has been employed.

Gender	L2	Mean	SD	Rosenthal's r	p-value
Male	Pre-test	6.76	2.01	0.790	<0.001
	Post-test	7.79	1.82		
Female	Pre-test	7.00	1.80	0.857	<0.001
	Post-test	8.27	1.89		

Table 4: Effect of gender on students' L2 competence

5.6.2.2. SES

When it comes to socioeconomic status's influence on L2 attainment (cf. Table 5), there are no statistically significant differences to be appreciated between the rungs in students with low- to medium-SES. However, when dealing with high-SES students, statistically significant differences do appear, which means that L2 acquisition is higher for students with higher-SES. However, when we step back and see those results from the perspective of the school, where the low-rung SES students are really, in a more general sense, medium- to high-SES students in the overall context of the school which mainly caters to medium-high to high-SES families, we can see that this result is justified by the fact that most of the students in the study were high-SES, so true discrimination is not taking place.

SES	L2	Mean	SD	Rosenthal's r	p-value
Low	Pre-test	5.25	1.49	9.0711	0.090
	Post-test	5.59	1.24		

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING:
A QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE STUDY. CHAPTER 5. QUANTITATIVE RESULTS AND
DISCUSSION

Medium	Pre-test	8.03	0.58	2.8827	0.285
	Post-test	8.20	0.46		
High	Pre-test	7.69	1.88	116.344	<0.001
	Post-test	7.76	2.01		

Table 5: Effect of SES on students' L2 competence

5.6.2.3. Self-demand

By analyzing the groups by their results obtained from the motivational factor of self-demand, using the Wilcoxon signed-rank test, we can behold that the students with low- to medium-levels of self-demand have improved the most from this intervention program when it comes to the FL (cf. Table 6). This means that the intervention program had a positive impact on L2 acquisition in students who did not have healthy levels of self-demand. This is a positive finding, since these are the most disenfranchised students, related to this aspect of motivation, yet the CLIL program here is giving them the process they need to overcome this.

Self-demand level	L2	Mean	SD	Rosenthal's r	p-value
Low	Pre-test	6	2.23	0.346	<0.001
	Post-test	6.31	1.97		
Medium	Pre-test	7.81	1.01	0.223	0.019
	Post-test	7.97	1.03		

Table 6: Effect of the variable self-demand on students' L2 competence

5.6.2.4. Anxiety in the face of exams

Taking into account anxiety in the face of exams as a variable that could possibly impact students' results, the results show statistically significant differences to be found in all three levels of anxiety (cf. Table 7). This means that students with low-, medium-, and high-levels of exam anxiety benefit from the Intervention Program and saw a reduction in the interference of this factor in their L2 acquisition.

Exam anxiety level	L2	Mean	SD	Rosenthal's r	p-value

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING:
A QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE STUDY. CHAPTER 5. QUANTITATIVE RESULTS AND
DISCUSSION

Low	Pre-test	7.37	1.87	0.281	0.050
	Post-test	7.56	1.71		
Medium	Pre-test	6.78	1.98	0.309	0.001
	Post-test	7.00	1.83		
High	Pre-test	6.43	1.99	0.305	0.009
	Post-test	6.64	1.84		

Table 7: Effect of the variable anxiety in the face of exams on L2 competence

5.6.2.5. Disinterest in study

Now taking into account the variable of disinterest in study as a possible factor in students' L2 results, statistically significant results can be seen for the students with medium levels of disinterest (cf. Table 8). While it is also expected that students with high levels of disinterest would also be affected, this does not discredit the fact that students with average levels of disinterest were affected the most positively by the intervention program and CLIL is helping give them the boost they need to succeed as well as their peers, linguistically speaking.

Level of disinterest in study	L2	Mean	SD	Rosenthal's r	p-value
Low	Pre-test	7.27	1.82	0.315	0.438
	Post-test	7.35	1.94		
Medium	Pre-test	6.89	1.89	0.234	<0.001
	Post-test	7.12	1.79		
High	Pre-test	4.52	0.93	0.500	0.080
	Post-test	4.98	0.58		

Table 8: Effect of the variable of disinterest in study on L2 competence

5.6.2.6. Self-esteem

Turning to the variable of self-esteem pertinent to the overall improvement, or not, of the L2 competence, the same holds true for the findings related to disinterest in study: those students with normal levels of self-esteem were affected the most by the intervention program and saw the greatest positive correlation when it comes to their L2 acquisition (cf. Table 9). Since students with average levels of self-esteem students are also disenfranchised, these are positive findings for the CLIL program.

Self-esteem level	L2	Mean	SD	Rosenthal's r	p-value
Low	Pre-test	6.82	2.24	0.369	0.433
	Post-test	7.31	1.97		
Normal	Pre-test	6.74	1.94	0.279	<0.001
	Post-test	7.48	1.81		
High	Pre-test	7.63	0.04	0.177	0.180
	Post-test	7.85	0.21		

Table 9: Effect of the variable of self-esteem on L2 competence

5.6.2.7. Verbal intelligence

Lastly, the role which the variable of verbal intelligence plays in L2 attainment was determined by the Wilcoxon signed-rank task, which results evincing that statistically significant differences are found in all three levels of verbal intelligence, from low to high, although there is a small effect size (cf. Table 10). This is a great discovery for the CLIL program and its effect on L2 acquisition since all students, across the board, are profiting linguistically.

Verbal intelligence level	L2	Mean	SD	Rosenthal's r	p-value
Low	Pre-test	5.45	1.23	0.363	0.002
	Post-test	5.77	1.99		

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING:
A QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE STUDY. CHAPTER 5. QUANTITATIVE RESULTS AND
DISCUSSION

Medium	Pre-test	7.15	1.61	0.279	0.004
	Post-test	7.33	1.52		
High	Pre-test	8.10	1.37	0.140	0.041
	Post-test	8.19	1.43		

Table 10: Effect of verbal intelligence level on L2 competence

5.6.2.8. Discriminant analysis of intervening variables

Finalizing Metaconcern 1, a discriminant analysis was executed to determine to which degree each variable influenced the quantitative results within each tier, the concern of which falls into our first Metaconcern, specifically RQ 7. By performing the discriminant analysis, we sought to determine what, if any, variables, caused the positive results for the L2 scores.

As we can infer from the data below (cf. Table 11), three variables affect students' English language attainment more so than the other variables: personal self-demand, verbal intelligence, and SES.

	Function 1
Desire to work and self-esteem	-0.234
Exam anxiety	-0.532
Disinterest in study	-0.121
Personal self-demand	0.528
EFAI (verbal intelligence)	0.302
Gender	0.185
SES	0.493

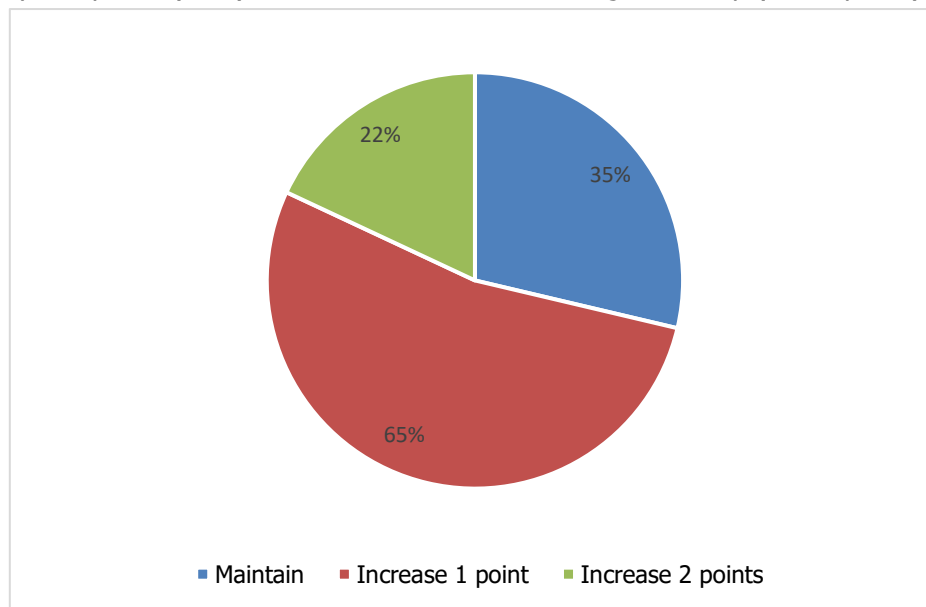
Table 11: Discriminant analysis for L2. Standardized canonical discriminant function coefficients.

5.7. Effects of CLIL on content acquisition

5.7.1. By tier

To begin the analysis of subject mastery by tier, we must turn to the pre- and post-test scores for the subject at hand, History, by referring and considering the content grades taken from the previous academic year and the final content test created through the History department. The post-content test was based off criteria and content points from the fourth grade of CSE, and students were assessed in June. The dimensions of the subject (History) were considered and a range of skills and knowledge were tested.

Turning to the underachievers in terms of subject knowledge, the majority of the students increased their grades by one point (65%), whilst a significant percentage (35%) maintained their grades or increased their grades by two points (22%). No underachievers saw their grades drop (cf. Graph 47).



Graph 47: Subject knowledge improvement in underachievers

As for the ten underachieving students with specific needs related to diversity, the two native English speakers both improved their grades by one point; two of the students with learning disorders increased their mark by one grade and two of the students maintained their grades; the three foreign underachievers increased their grades by one point each; and, the newcomers increased their grades by one point.

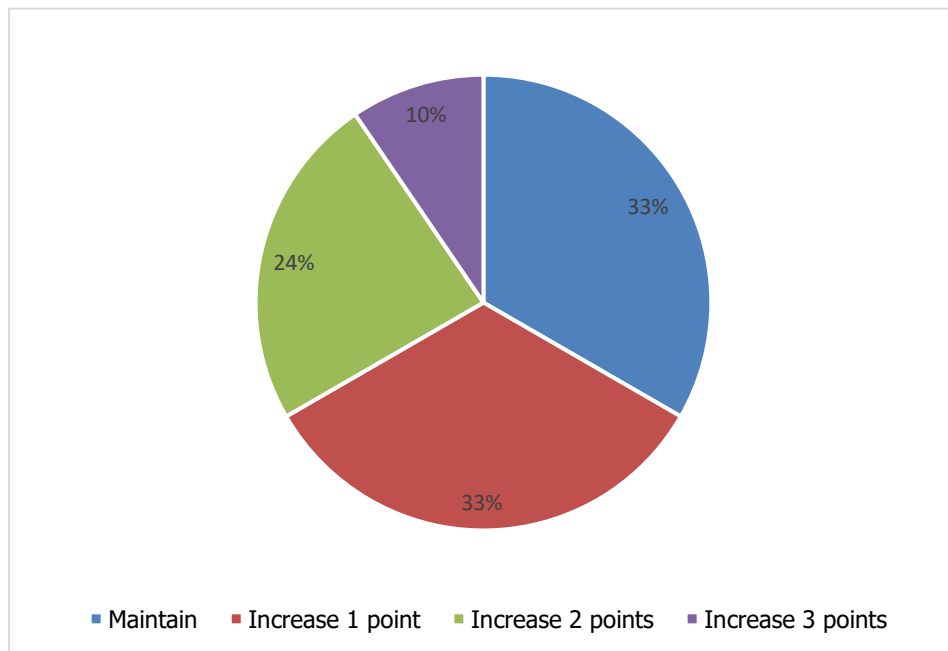
ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING: A QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE STUDY. CHAPTER 5. QUANTITATIVE RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

To determine if there were statistically significant differences in the means from the pre- and post-tests, the Wilcoxon signed-rank test was used which proved that the underachievers' post-tests did see an increase in results, specifically in the outcome of the mean obtained (cf. Table 12).

	N	Mean	SD	Rosenthal's r	p-value
Pre-test	15	4.93	0.45	0.807	0.002
Post-test	15	5.93	0.88		

Table 12: Statistically significant differences in underachievers pre- and post-tests in content knowledge

Concerning to the normal achievers' content grades, the same percentage of the cohort maintained or increased their grades in the pre- and post-tests by one point (33%, respectively), whilst a smaller percentage (24%) increased their scores by two grade points, and a minority (10%) increased their grades by three points (cf. Graph 48).



Graph 48: Subject knowledge improvement in normal achievers

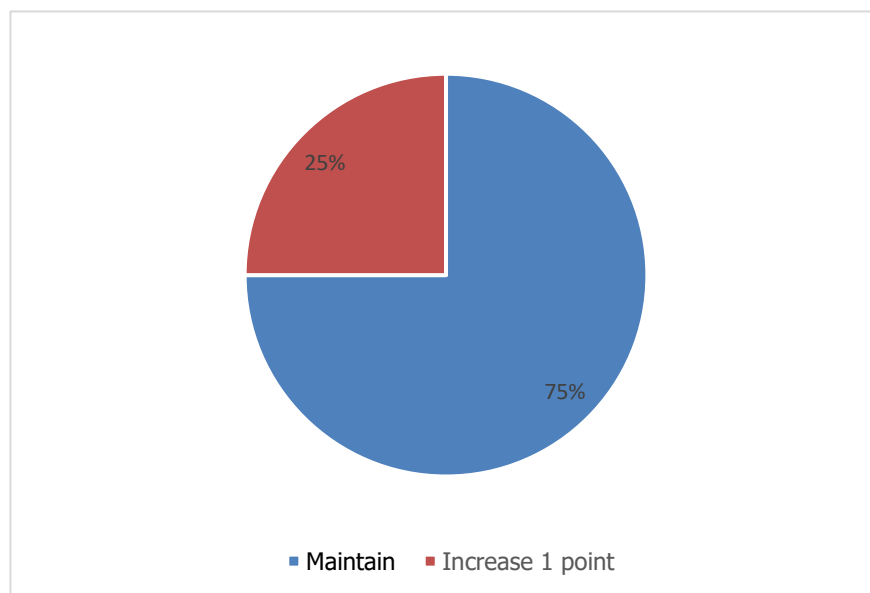
To determine if there were statistically significant differences from the pre- to post-tests that would be relevant for our study, the Wilcoxon signed-rank test contrast was used which found the post-test was in fact different from the pre-test, seeing an increase in the average grades (cf. Table 13)

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING:
A QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE STUDY. CHAPTER 5. QUANTITATIVE RESULTS AND
DISCUSSION

	N	Mean	SD	Rosenthal's r	p-value
Pre-test	21	6.71	0.90	0.732	0.001
Post-test	21	8.00	1.22		

Table 13: Statistically significant differences in normal achievers pre- and post-tests in content knowledge

Finally, with respect to the content acquisition for the overachievers, per the results of the pre- and post-scores, figures show that the majority of the cohort (75%) maintained their grades, whilst the remainder of the cohort (25%) saw their grades increase by one point. As commented on before, these scores pertain to students who had a ten at both the beginning and end of the academic school year or students who began the year with a grade of nine and finished with a 10 out of 10 (cf. Graph 49).



Graph 49: Subject knowledge improvement in overachievers

To determine if there were statistically significant differences from the pre- to post-tests that would be relevant for our study, the Wilcoxon signed-rank test was used again, finding once again that differences from the pre- to post-tests were statistically significant, with an increase in the mean (cf. Table 14).

	N	Mean	SD	Rosenthal's r	p-value

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING:
A QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE STUDY. CHAPTER 5. QUANTITATIVE RESULTS AND
DISCUSSION

Pre-test	23	9.60	0.49	0.466	0.025
Post-test	23	9.82	0.39		

Table 14: Statistically significant differences in overachievers pre- and post-tests in content knowledge

5.7.2. Content acquisition: differential effects of intervening variables

Having finished reviewing the results of content knowledge by tier, we will now look into the content mastery of the subject as affected (or not) by the intervening variables, in order to discern which of them are responsible for any statistically significant differences between the tiers: gender (male or female students) and socioeconomic status (medium or high). Given that both of these variables only had two rungs each, t tests were used.

For both gender and SES (cf. Tables 28 and 29), no statistically significant differences were found to be had between genders (male vs. female) or socioeconomic level (medium, high).

5.7.2.1. Gender

As we can see in the table below (cf. Table 15), the variable of gender does not generate statistically significant differences as related to content knowledge in the subject of History, which means the CLIL program is working evenly with both male and female students.

Gender	Mean	SD	Rosenthal's r	p-value
Male	7.00	1.81	4.178	0.480
	7.07	1.93		
Female	7.67	1.98	3.849	0.257
	7.78	2.12		

Table 15: Effect of gender on students' content knowledge

5.7.2.2. SES

As regards SES (cf. Table 16), students' socioeconomic status, via their parents' level of education, does affect students in the high-SES rung, but does not affect the students with low- to medium-SES levels. As stated before, given the context of this school, and higher-SES characteristic in general, this finding is not peculiar.

SES	Mean	SD	Rosenthal's r	p-value
Low	5.50	1.22	0.612	>0.999
	6.00	1.26		
Medium	8.33	1.53	0.577	0.109
	8.67	1.53		
High	7.69	1.88	0.539	<0.001
	7.76	2.01		

Table 16: Effect of SES on students' content knowledge

5.7.2.3. Self-demand

Analyzing the scores from the variable of self-demand as the focal point, it was deduced that statistically significant differences are found in the means obtained in the pre- and post-tests in the group of underachievers, albeit with a large effect size (cf. Table 17). We can behold that the students with the lowest levels of self-demand are profiting the most in their acquisition of the content from the CLIL program. Those students with the lowest levels of self-demand are being the most affected positively when it comes to content.

Self-demand	Content	Mean	SD	Rosenthal's r	p-value

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING:
A QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE STUDY. CHAPTER 5. QUANTITATIVE RESULTS AND
DISCUSSION

Low	Pre-test	7.18	1.91	0.993	<0.001
	Post-test	7.80	1.86		
Medium	Pre-test	8.50	1.62	1.073	0.066
	Post-test	9.17	1.34		

Table 17: Effect of the variable self-demand on students' content knowledge

5.7.2.4. Anxiety in the face of exams

Turning to anxiety in the face of exams as a variable that must be isolated on its own, it was found that students with medium to high levels of exam anxiety were the most affected and those who improved the most significantly from the pre- to post-tests. This can allow us to conclude that the intervention program was most functional with the students who suffered more from this type of delimitation and were, therefore, quite positively influenced by the intervention program since the most stressed students were given a more even playing field when it came to being tested in the subject and their content knowledge (cf. Table 18).

Level of exam anxiety	Content	Mean	SD	Rosenthal's r	p-value
Low	Pre-test	8.46	2.22	0.439	0.083
	Post-test	8.69	2.18		
Medium	Pre-test	7.44	1.81	1.203	0.007
	Post-test	8.15	1.81		
High	Pre-test	6.88	1.69	0.612	0.008
	Post-test	7.65	1.58		

Table 18: Effect of exam anxiety level on content acquisition

5.7.2.5. Disinterest in study

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING:
A QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE STUDY. CHAPTER 5. QUANTITATIVE RESULTS AND
DISCUSSION

The Wilcoxon signed-rank test was used once again to determine how students' interest, or disinterest, in study(ing) affected their content acquisition throughout the intervention program. There were statistically significant differences in those students that have low and medium levels of disinterest. There was no improvement, or worsening, for students who had high levels of disinterest in study. This means the intervention program, when it came to content acquisition, was able to help students who were very or semi-interested in studying (cf. Table 19).

Level of interest in study	Content	Mean	SD	Rosenthal's r	p-value
Low	Pre-test	8.24	1.95	1.007	0.038
	Post-test	8.76	1.82		
Medium	Pre-test	7.33	1.90	1.028	0.001
	Post-test	8.03	1.79		
High	Pre-test	6	0.58	0.500	0.317
	Post-test	6.25	0.50		

Table 19: Effect of level of interest in study on content acquisition

5.7.2.6. Self-esteem

For self-esteem, the program has yielded differences for students of medium self-esteem, which means the intervention program was the most effective, when it came to assimilating the content, for students with medium levels of self-esteem, although, as we can behold, the effect size is large. Overall, this is a positive finding, since these students tend to fall by the way side and the CLIL program seems able to be able to affect them in their content acquisition (cf. Table 20).

Self-esteem level	Content	Mean	SD	Rosenthal's r	p-value
Low	Pre-test	6.92	1.85	0.870	0.132
	Post-test	7.31	1.89		

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING:
A QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE STUDY. CHAPTER 5. QUANTITATIVE RESULTS AND
DISCUSSION

Medium	Pre-test	7.64	1.95	0.983	<0.001
	Post-test	8.29	1.79		
High	Pre-test	8.5	2.12	2.121	0.317
	Post-test	10	0.00		

Table 20: Effect of self-esteem level on content acquisition

5.7.2.7. Verbal intelligence

Using the same statistical calculations from the Wilcoxon signed-rank test, it is found there are statistically significant differences in the students with low to medium levels of verbal intelligence, with a medium effect size. Thus, these students, who are the ones we want to be reaching with the bilingual model, are the students who profited the most, subject-wise, and are taking the most advantage of the CLIL program when it comes to learning the content (cf. Table 21).

EFAI	Content	Mean	SD	Rosenthal's r	p-value
Low	Pre-test	6.00	1.23	0.795	0.013
	Post-test	6.59	1.38		
Medium	Pre-test	7.68	1.86	1.116	0.004
	Post-test	8.62	1.72		
High	Pre-test	8.64	1.69	1.016	0.131
	Post-test	9.07	1.44		

Table 21: Effect of verbal intelligence level on content acquisition

5.7.2.8. Discriminant analysis of intervening variables

Finally, for content knowledge, a discriminant analysis was executed to determine to which degree each variable influenced the quantitative results within each tier, directly related to the seventh Metaconcern (cf. Table 30). As we can see, the three variables that influenced students' content knowledge the most were interest in study, personal self-demand and verbal intelligence (cf. Table 22).

	Function 1
Desire to work and self-esteem	-0.214
Exam anxiety	-0.310
Disinterest in study	0.052
Personal self-demand	0.146
EFAI (intelligence)	0.322
Gender	-0.245
SES	0.673

Table 22: Discriminant analysis for content knowledge: Standardized canonical discriminant function coefficients

5.8. Effects of CLIL on L1 competence

The next examination that will be presented is the effect the CLIL program has on L1 competence, in this case, Spanish language. It should be stated that not all the students present in the study held Spanish as their first language. As previously mentioned, L1 competence was measured through the compilation and consideration of exam grades from the previous (2017/2018) academic year as well as the year that the study took place (2018/2019). For this examination of the influence on CLIL, we will see the L1 scores by tier and then isolate variables (gender, SES, self-esteem, exam anxiety, disinterest in study, self-demand) to determine whether they account for statistically significant differences within the group.

5.8.1. By tier

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING:
A QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE STUDY. CHAPTER 5. QUANTITATIVE RESULTS AND
DISCUSSION

Within the three groups, there can be differences observed only in the underachieving group, in which the scores between pre- and post-tests were statistically significant, with improvement between the scores, and a medium effect size. The rest of the students are not affected by the program, and their grades remained the same, (cf. Table 23), as has been previously resolved in a plethora of studies (e.g. Lorenzo, 2019; Madrid & Barrios, 2018; Merisuo-Storm, 2007; Pérez Cañado, 2018d, 2018e; San Isidro, 2017; Seikkula-Leino, 2007).

Tier	L1	Mean	SD	Rosenthal's r	p-value
Underachievers	Pre-test	7.28	1.81	0.428	0.046
	Post-test	7.50	1.98		
Normal achievers	Pre-test	7.79	1.87	0.524	0.655
	Post-test	7.74	2.08		
Overachievers	Pre-test	7.05	2.09	0.552	0.414
	Post-test	7.15	2.13		

Table 23: Spanish competence by tier, pre- and post-scores

5.8.2. L1 competence: differential effect of intervening variables

Having considered the L1 competence by tier, we will now look to determine the effect of each intervening variable on overall Spanish language competence, and analyze whether statistically significant differences can be appreciated between the tiers in terms of gender, SES, the four motivational variables and verbal intelligence. All variables were analyzed using Related-Samples Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test.

5.8.2.1. Gender

Turning to the first variable, gender, as revealed by the p-values for both males and females, there are no statistically significant differences to be had between the two academic years (cf. Table 24). Thus, neither gender significantly improves in L1 competence from the pre- to the post-testing phases.

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING:
A QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE STUDY. CHAPTER 5. QUANTITATIVE RESULTS AND
DISCUSSION

Gender	L1	Mean	SD	Rosenthal's r	p-value
Male	Pre-test	7.00	1.81	0.131	0.480
	Post-test	7.07	1.93		
Female	Pre-test	7.67	1.98	0.218	0.257
	Post-test	7.78	2.12		

Table 24: Effect of intervening variable of gender on L1 competence

5.8.2.2. SES

As for SES, the p-values (cf. Table 25) reveal no statistically significant differences, thereby confirming the hypothesis that SES does not play a role in the achievers L1' outcomes. This also is in line with the intervention program focus, which was mainly on the L2 and content, which confirms the L1 was not greatly affected.

SES	L1	Mean	SD	Rosenthal's r	p-value
Low	Pre-test	5.67	0.82	0	>0.999
	Post-test	5.67	0.82		
Medium	Pre-test	8.33	1.53	0.5774	0.317
	Post-test	8.67	1.53		
High	Pre-test	7.69	1.88	0.139	0.366
	Post-test	7.76	2.01		

Table 25: Effect of intervening variable of SES on L1 competence

5.8.2.3. Self-demand

In this particular variable of motivation, only the students with normal levels of self-demand were positively affected in the L1 grades, with a moderate effect size. This means that the intervention program influenced students' Spanish language capacity for medium-levels of self-demand only (cf. Table 26).

Self-demand level	L1	Mean	SD	Rosenthal's r	p-value
Low	Pre-test	7.11	1.90	0.505	0.763
	Post-test	7.14	2.02		
Medium	Pre-test	8.08	1.83	0.492	0.046
	Post-test	8.42	1.83		

Table 26: Effect of level of self-demand on L1 competence

5.8.2.4. Anxiety in the face of exams

Taking into account anxiety, when it comes to exams, no statistically significant differences were ascertained for either of the three tiers (cf. Table 27). This means students' grades, with low to high levels of exam anxiety, stay the same in the L1. Again, this can be explained in the fact that the intervention program was not focusing on the L1, but had much more emphasis on content and L2 gains. On a positive note, while the L1 was not positively affected, there was also no negative effect on the students' mother tongue, as all three tiers improved from the pre- to the post-testing phases, albeit not with statistical significance.

Level of exam anxiety	Content	Mean	SD	Rosenthal's r	p-value
Low	Pre-test	8.31	2.02	0.453	0.083
	Post-test	8.54	2.07		
Medium	Pre-test	7.33	1.88	0.474	0.414

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING:
A QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE STUDY. CHAPTER 5. QUANTITATIVE RESULTS AND
DISCUSSION

	Post-test	7.41	1.99		
High	Pre-test	6.71	1.72	0.612	>0.999
	Post-test	7.71	1.86		

Table 27: Effect of anxiety level on L1 acquisition

5.8.2.5. Disinterest in study

For the motivational variable related to interest in studying, there is only one statistically significant difference observed (cf. Table 28) in the students with low levels of disinterest, meaning the intervention program only improved students' L1 competence in students who were already highly interested in studying, with a moderate effect size. This means that the CLIL program failed to captivate the interest of the students with high and medium levels of disinterest when it came to Spanish language acquisition. Again, this would be a specific side effect of the particular intervention program carried out that emphasized L2 and content learning.

Disinterest in study	Content	Mean	SD	Rosenthal's r	p-value
Low	Pre-test	8.12	1.87	0.437	0.046
	Post-test	8.35	1.84		
Medium	Pre-test	7.22	1.90	0.531	0.527
	Post-test	7.28	2.04		
High	Pre-test	5.50	0.58	0.500	0.317
	Post-test	5.25	0.50		

Table 28: Effect of level of interest in study on L1 acquisition

5.8.2.6. Self-esteem

When it comes to self-esteem, once statistical operations are carried out, it is deduced that there are no statistically significant differences found between the pre- and post-tests in any of the levels of self-esteem (cf. Table 29), meaning the intervention program did nothing positive, nor negative, for students' L1 competence as pertinent to their self-esteem.

Self-esteem level	Content	Mean	SD	Rosenthal's r	p-value
Low	Pre-test	6.77	1.83	0.577	>0.999
	Post-test	6.77	2.09		
Medium	Pre-test	7.48	1.94	0.484	0.206
	Post-test	7.57	2.01		
High	Pre-test	9.00	1.41	0.707	0.317
	Post-test	9.50	0.71		

Table 29: Effect of self-esteem level on L1 competence

5.8.2.7. Verbal intelligence

Finally, taking into account the results from the EFAI questionnaire, that gave us an overall depiction of the students' verbal intelligence scores, we can see that there are no statistically significant differences in the averages between the pre- and post-tests. This means that the intervention program had no effect on students' L1 knowledge as pertinent to their level of verbal intelligence, meaning it worked equally with all students and did not affect one level more so than the next (cf. Table 30).

Verbal intelligence level	Content	Mean	SD	Rosenthal's r	p-value
Low	Pre-test	5.82	1.23	0.500	>0.999
	Post-test	5.82	1.18		

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING:
A QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE STUDY. CHAPTER 5. QUANTITATIVE RESULTS AND
DISCUSSION

Medium	Pre-test	7.65	1.86	0.516	0.257
	Post-test	7.77	1.98		
High	Pre-test	8.71	1.49	0.534	0.317
	Post-test	8.86	1.70		

Table 30: Effect of verbal intelligence level on L1 competence

5.8.2.8. Discriminant analysis of intervening variables

Finally, for L1 (Spanish) knowledge, a discriminant analysis was executed to determine to which degree each variable influenced the quantitative results within each tier, specifically tied to the seventh Metaconcern (cf. Table 31). As we can infer, two variables affects the students' L1 grades: personal self-demand, meaning those students with medium levels of personal self-demand saw the greatest improvement in their L1 scores.

	Function 1
Desire to work and self-esteem	-0.230
Exam anxiety	-0.794
Disinterest in study	-0.139
Personal self-demand	0.091
EFAI (intelligence)	0.797
Gender	0.384
SES	0.548

Table 31: Discriminant analysis for Spanish language. Standardized canonical discriminant function coefficients.

5.9. Conclusion

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING:
A QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE STUDY. CHAPTER 5. QUANTITATIVE RESULTS AND
DISCUSSION

Now that we have thoroughly sorted through and determined the presence, or absence, of statistically significant differences as well as the impact of intervening variables and performed the subsequent statistical calculations on the pre- and post-test scores, we can extract certain several major takeaways when it comes to the effect of the CLIL program on L2, content and L1 acquisition as relevant to the effect had on these by gender, SES, the four motivational variables, and verbal intelligence.

Regarding the effect of CLIL on the FL, in this particular instance English, all the achievers significantly improve in the CLIL class when it comes to English knowledge; however, there are some intervening variables that do have an effect on the L2. First, prior L2 knowledge leads to increased scores. In this respect, the overachievers outperform the other achievers and are more competent in their English capacity. The post-hoc scrutiny confirms this: previous knowledge in the L2 awards students more of an advantage in their English competence, thus, the already knowledgeable students are even more knowledgeable through CLIL. These findings chime with those obtained in a recent investigation (Pérez Cañado, 2024), where students' prior English level has been found to be a success factor for CLIL to work with all types of achievers. As for gender and SES, these are also playing a role in how students are assimilating the L2, and male and female students are equally benefitting from the CLIL program, as well as the medium- to high-rung SES students. This finding cannot be disputed, since all the students were treated equally in the classroom and both female and male students were catered to. Also, as noted before, the context of the school is medium to high SES, and thus, even those students categorized as low-SES were really, in a broader sense, medium-SES. When it comes to self-demand, students with low and medium levels self-demand are benefitting most from the intervention program when it comes to their FL acquisition. For CLIL, this means that the most disenfranchised students are gaining the most in the L2. Another positive find comes for the motivational variable of anxiety: all three levels of anxiety are benefitting from the intervention program as all saw an increase in averages from pre- to post-tests and thus, this debilitating variable is being capped by CLIL. In this same vein, the statistical operations yield statistically significant results for medium levels of self-esteem. This means that these students, which are not usually tailored to, are benefitting most from the CLIL program. Another poignant finding comes to the verbal intelligence scores: there are statistically significant results for all three groups, low, medium and high, which means this CLIL program is benefitting all three groups equally, with no discrimination when it comes to intelligence level.

Vis-à-vis the effect of the CLIL program on content knowledge, similar results arise from the quantitative data. To begin with, all three rungs of achievers significantly increase from the pre- to the post-tests in terms of content attainment, something which points to the effectiveness of the intervention program. For SES and gender, the CLIL program does not seem to be favoring either sex. For students with low levels of self-demand there are high proportions of content acquisition, as the program yields

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING:
A QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE STUDY. CHAPTER 5. QUANTITATIVE RESULTS AND
DISCUSSION

statistically significant results for those students with low levels of self-demand. As for exam anxiety, the most vulnerable students, those with medium to high levels of exam anxiety, are seen to be improving the most, and this cannot be downplayed, since these students are usually the most disenfranchised given the tedious nature of this variable, and yet, CLIL seems to be evening the playing field for students who suffer from anxiety. As for disinterest, the intervention program was only seen to be helping the students with low and medium levels of disinterest. For self-esteem, the students with medium levels of this variable improved the most, and this is crucial, since they are also the students that need this extra push to take their learning farther, in this case, with content knowledge. Finally, related to verbal intelligence, students with low and medium levels of intelligence are gaining the most when it comes to subject mastery. This is a very positive sign since it tells us CLIL is helping those students that are lagging behind in intelligence catch up in the content.

Finally, the effect of CLIL on L1 knowledge, or the Spanish language in this case, sees much less of an impact from the intervention program: only the underachievers improved significantly from the pre- to the post-testing moments, a positive finding in and of itself. The program does not seem to have had that great of an impact in terms of almost all of the intervening variables. To begin with, no significant differences were detected in terms of gender and SES. In that same vein, there was no impact on any level of exam anxiety, nor was there any statistically significant impact in terms of levels of self-esteem or verbal intelligence. There was however a positive impact on students with medium levels of self-demand, meaning these students were helped in their Spanish language competence. For interest in study, the intervention program really only helped students, linguistically in the L1, if they were already quite interested in academia and studying. Thus, in terms of the L1, it is working equally for all students as there were not any significant differences between the pre- and post-tests. This can be explained by the focus of the intervention program, which was mainly on L2 and content acquisition. As there really were not activities nor exams geared at L1 knowledge, these findings are more than logical.

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING:
A QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE STUDY. CHAPTER 5. QUANTITATIVE RESULTS AND
DISCUSSION

Chapter 6. Qualitative Results and Discussion

6.1. Introduction

The next part of the analysis will concentrate on the qualitative results of the study, concerning information gleaned from the three cohorts (students, parents, teachers), via the scrutiny of the data recompiled from the questionnaires, interviews, focus groups, and direct observations. The stakeholders will be examined individually, beginning with the students, followed by the teachers and ending with the parents, looking at each instrument and data set separately. The questionnaires are analyzed in their entirety first, followed by a statistical appreciation of the responses related to the intervening variables for each cohort, and by a synthesis of the data obtained from the focus groups and class observations. Finally, overall conclusions will be drawn and examined according to the various themes, in line with those from the questionnaires, pooling data from the three data points.

Following the review of the results for each cohort individually, there will be an across-cohort comparison to liken any findings based on the thematic blocks, including linguistic aspects, methodology and groupings, materials and resources, assessment, and teacher training and collaboration. The across-cohort comparison seeks to reveal where there is harmony, or discrepancy, amongst the stakeholders in their perceived notions about the CLIL workings in this particular program.

6.2. Students

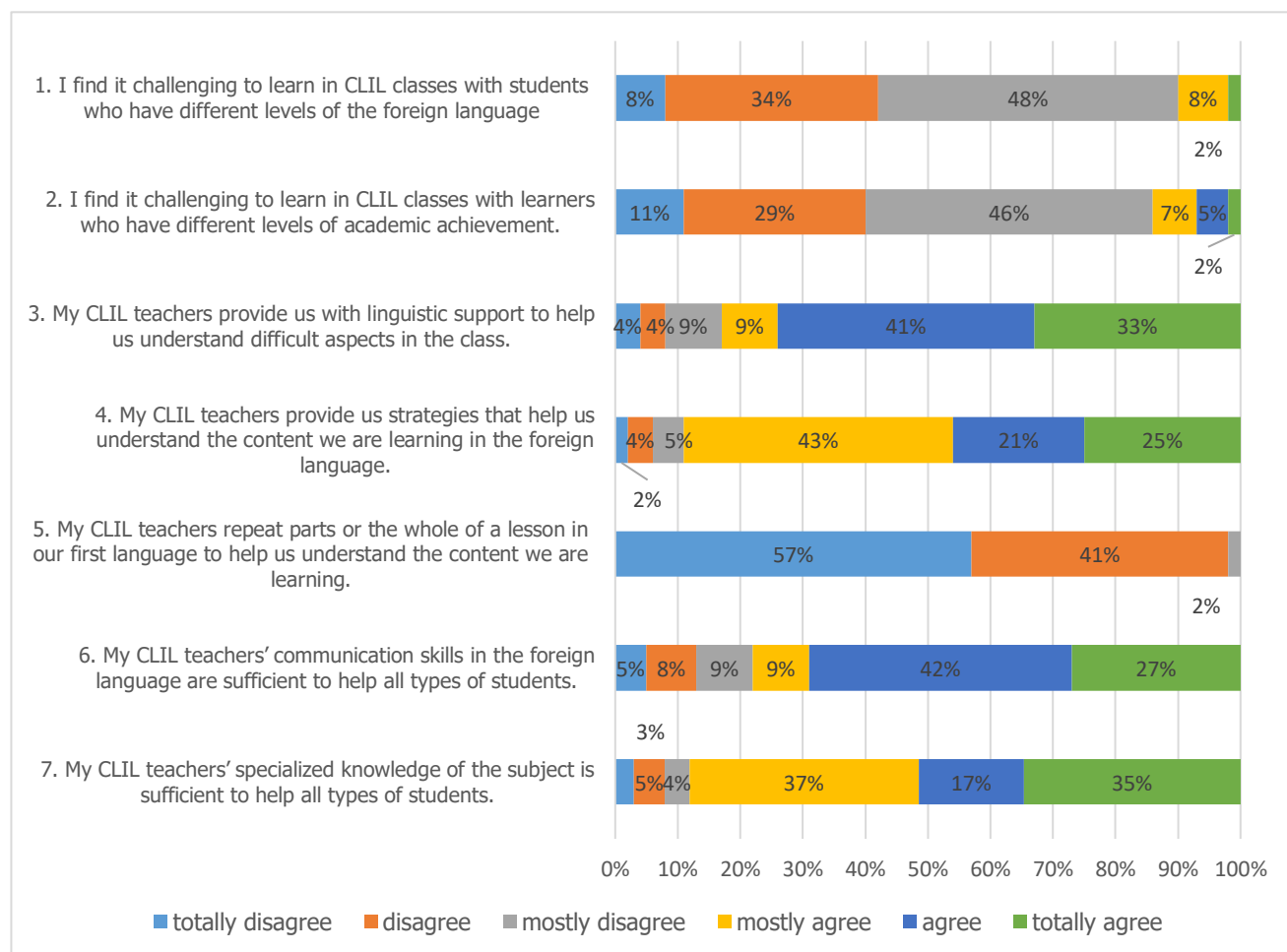
6.2.1 Questionnaires

The results of the student questionnaires will be analyzed by the five thematic blocks. The specific themes are *linguistic aspects, methodology and groupings, materials and resources, assessment, and collaboration and teacher training*. The questionnaire for the students begins with a title page in which students can fill out SES information related to age, gender, nationality, and years spent in a bilingual program. It is based on the Likert scale from one to six, which equates to *in complete disagreement with* (1), *in disagreement* (2), *partial disagreement* (3), *partial agreement* (4), *in agreement* (5) and *in complete agreement with* (6). The student questionnaire in its original version can be found in Appendix II.

Beginning with *linguistic aspects*, there are seven phrases related to how diversity is being attended to linguistically (cf. Graph 50). Per the responses, it is concluded that attention to diversity places an increased demand on students. A slight majority of the cohort does not find their learning in the CLIL class to be negatively affected by their peers' English competence levels (item 1) and a similar amount of the cohort disagree that their CLIL classes are made more

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING: CHAPTER 6. QUALITATIVE RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

challenging when students with various degrees of academic achievement are present (item 2). As confirmed by the responses, scaffolding is regarded as the widely used strategy for both linguistic- and content-related material (items 3 and 4, respectively). Regarding teachers' use of L1 (item 5), the entirety of the cohort affirms no significant percentage of Spanish instruction is being used. Finally, the responses reveal that all the students believe their teachers possess a high command of English, highly valuing their teachers' communicative language proficiency and academic language knowledge as a means to cater to diversity (items 6 and 7, respectively).



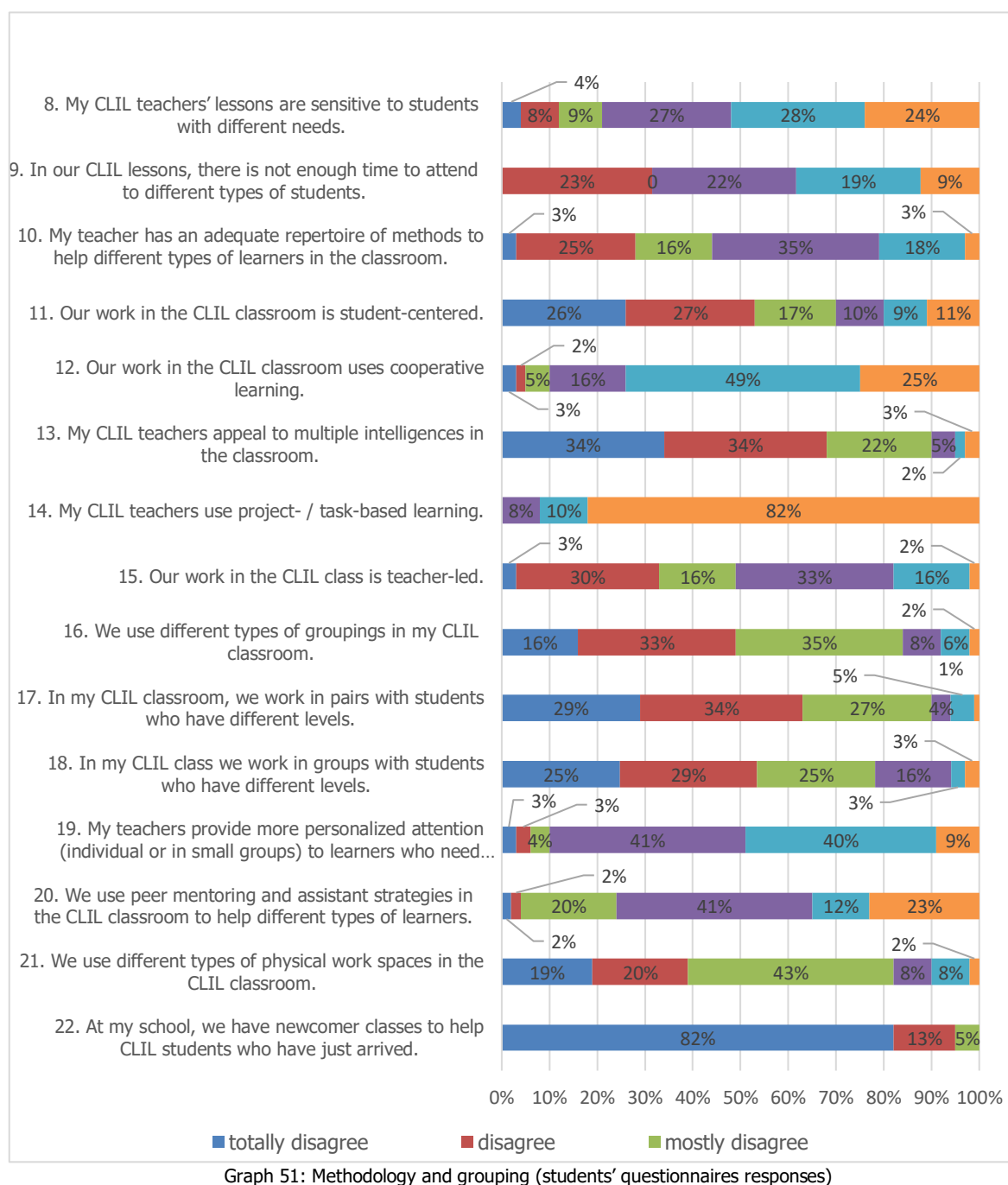
Graph 50: Linguistic aspects (students' questionnaires responses)

Regarding **methodology and groupings**, the majority of the students concede that their CLIL teachers are using a wide range of strategies to cater to learner variance (cf. Graph 51). Most believe that teachers are sensitive to learner needs (item 8), while, time-wise, an important percentage of the students do not agree there is enough time to attend to the diverse learners (item 9), quite possibly a reflection of the afternoon periods which have a duration of 45 minutes. Half of the cohort affirm the teachers have a sufficient range of methods to facilitate learning from the varying levels of achievement (item 10); however, the majority of the students do not believe their CLIL classrooms are student-centered (item 11), although the cohort is less harmonious on the occurrence of teacher-led learning (item 15), with a slight majority agreeing

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING:
CHAPTER 6. QUALITATIVE RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

that it is taking place. For types of groupings (item 16), the students do not see a vast gamut being deployed. When it comes to mixed-ability pairings (item 17), this is, according to the cohort, not taking place, given the overwhelmingly negative response to this statement, a sentiment which was later reinforced in the focus groups. Likewise, the majority of the students disagree that mixed-ability groups are being organized (item 18). As for other specific practices, students affirm that cooperative learning is being used (item 12), and almost the entirety of the cohort agrees that the classes are project- or task-based (item 14). There is insignificant testimony of multiple intelligences being utilized (item 13), although responses reveal that personalized and individualized attention is happening (item 19), as well as peer-mentoring and assistance strategies (item 20), albeit to a lesser degree. Finally, there is no report of varied physical work spaces being utilized (item 21) and newcomer classes (item 22) are nonexistent.

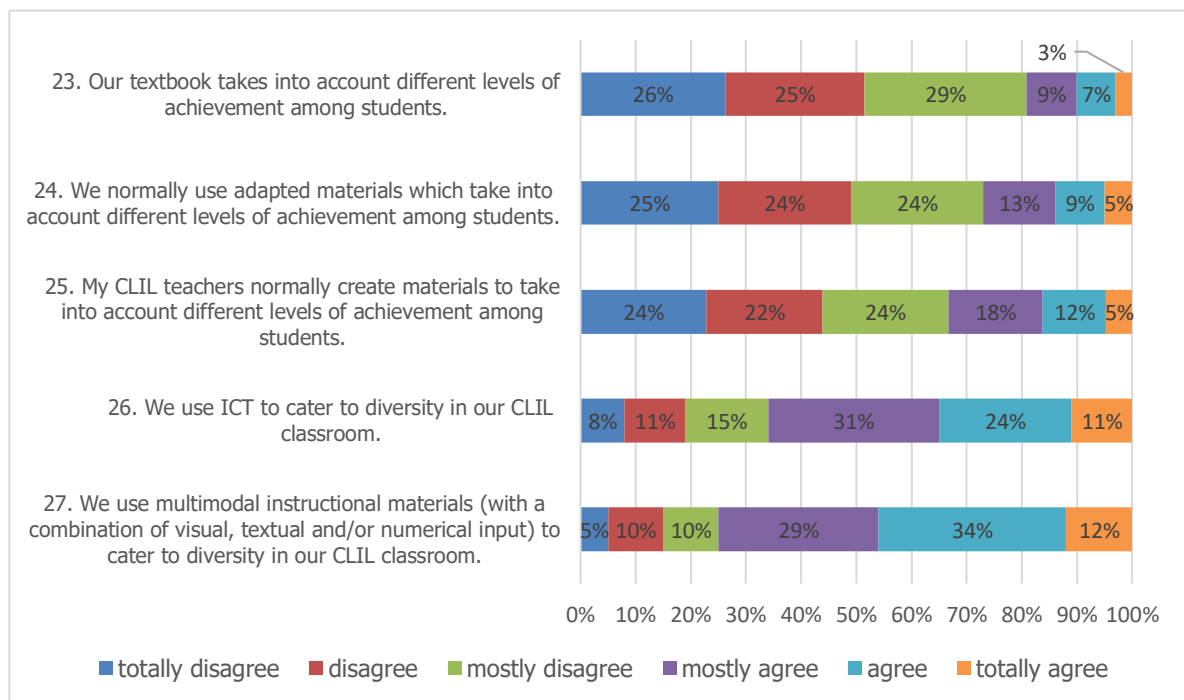
ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING: CHAPTER 6. QUALITATIVE RESULTS AND DISCUSSION



Concerning **materials and resources**, the questions intend to query respondents about the textbook and materials in their original and adapted forms or those that have been created by the teacher (Graph 52). The majority of students affirm that the textbook is no longer a viable means in the classroom (item 23). In fact, the majority of the CLIL classes in this grade at this school did not have physical textbooks. Materials are skeptically viewed by the students as having been adapted to take diversity into account (item 24), with most of the students reporting the use of one activity or worksheet for all students. Similarly, the students do not respond positively to their teachers creating materials that take achievement levels into account (item 25). Optimism is shown regarding technology, as students' responses affirm that ICTs are widely used in their

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING: CHAPTER 6. QUALITATIVE RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

CLIL classrooms, as well as multimodal didactic materials (items 26 and 27, respectively). As for specific platforms used in the classroom, this portion of the questionnaire included a short answer response for item 27, in which students were asked to write down specific examples. The students wrote down a few, although the overwhelming majority stated a mix of five options: the school's intranet, Kahoot, Quizlet, YouTube, and Google Slides.



Graph 52: Materials and resources (students' questionnaires responses)

Touching upon **assessment**, the questionnaire probes students' opinion of the evaluation facet of the CLIL courses and how it is, or is not, being used to incorporate differentiation according to ability (cf. Graph 53). On the whole, the students believe the evaluation criteria are fair (item 28). Likewise, the students believe their CLIL teachers are taking the diverse levels of achievement into account (item 29) and similarly affirm that both formative and summative assessment are catering to learner variance (items 30 and 31, respectively). The students' responses reveal uncertainty in the use of grading rubrics (item 32), although the majority of the students believe that their overall performance has improved as a result of catering to diversity (item 33). When it comes to support during the formative assessment, students uphold that the teachers are providing more detailed guidelines (item 34), as well as personalized and regular feedback (item 35). However, this cohort does not believe that the teachers are attuning either the level of activities or homework to cater to diversity (items 36 and 37, respectively). As for exam adaptation for diversity, including highlighting key words and vocabulary adaption, the cohort is divided down the middle (item 38). Finally, only a small percentage of the students sustain that different versions of the same exam are used or more time is given for exam completion (item 39).

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING: CHAPTER 6. QUALITATIVE RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

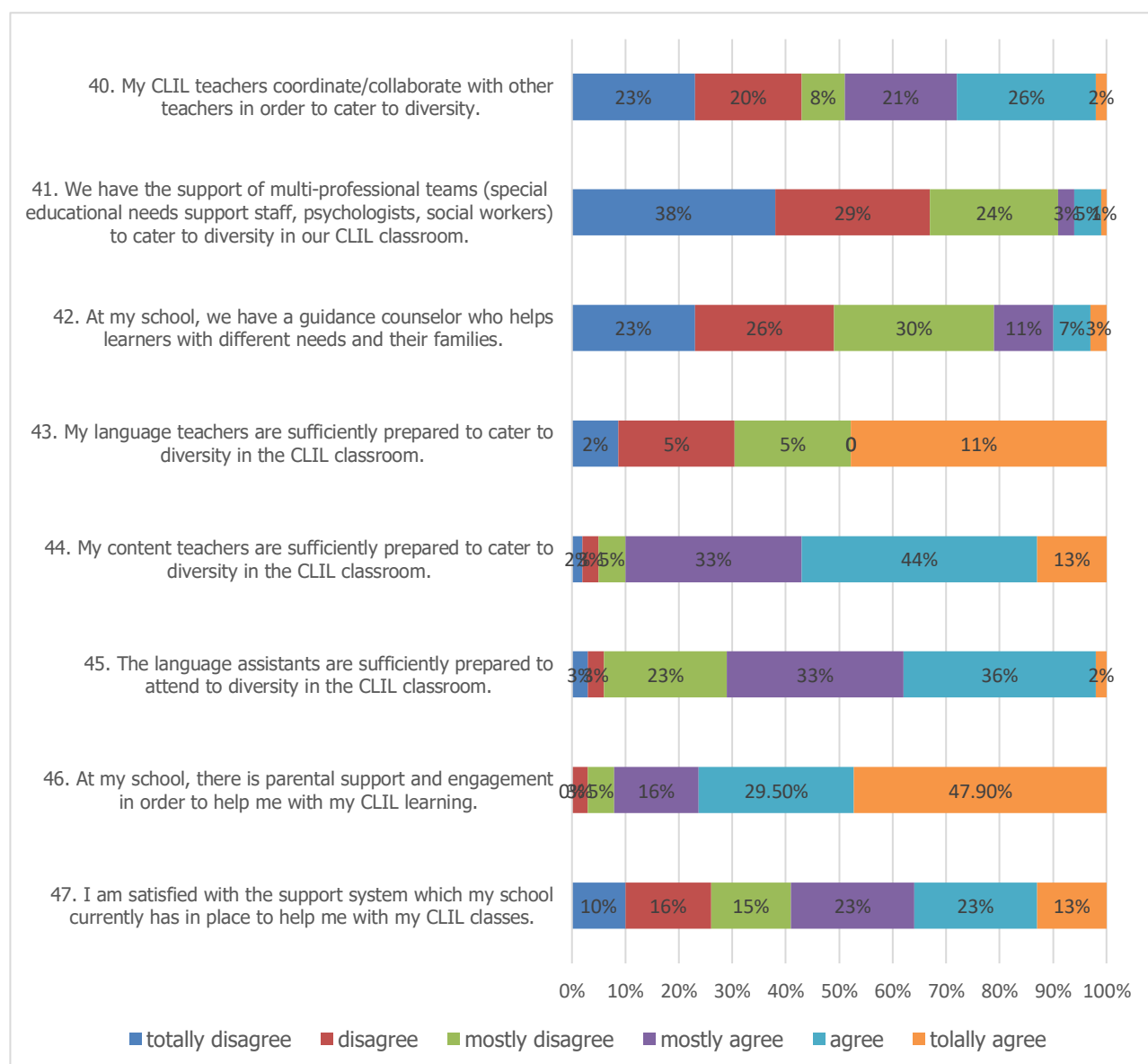


Graph 53: Assessment (students' questionnaires responses)

Finally, the last thematic bloc, **collaboration and teacher training**, probes students about their opinions regarding collaboration between teachers, presence of supplementary professionals, as well as their perception of their teachers' education levels (cf. Graph 54). The students are unsure if the teachers are collaborating amongst themselves (item 40), and, likewise, this cohort evinces miniscule confidence regarding the support of a multi-professional team being

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING: CHAPTER 6. QUALITATIVE RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

used to cater to diversity (item 41). Nor is the presence of a guidance counselor noted in the majority of the responses (item 42). On the other hand, the students appreciate and deeply value their teachers' training in both language and content areas (items 43 and 44, respectively). Similarly, a majority of the students value the language assistants' ability to attend to diversity (item 45). Parental support and engagement is highly regarded by the students (item 46); however, only a slight majority of the students are satisfied with the support system offered by the school (item 47).



Graph 54: Collaboration and teacher training (students' questionnaires responses)

6.2.2. Statistical differences related to variables

Taking into consideration the intervening variables (SES, gender, nationality), the t test was employed to discern which have an impact on the qualitative outcomes for these

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING: CHAPTER 6. QUALITATIVE RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

stakeholders⁷⁹. It was found that the greatest number of statistically significant differences appeared on one variable: socioeconomic status. The other variables (gender and nationality) did not cause any statistically significant differences between the items considered.

For the first block, **linguistic aspects**, three items (2, 3, 4) were found to be statistically significant in terms of differences concerning students of medium- or high-SES (cf. Table 32). For item 2 ("I find it challenging to learn in classes with students who have different levels of academic achievement") the medium-SES students find these classes more challenging than their high-SES peers. As for items 3 ("My CLIL teachers provide us with linguistic support to help us understand difficult aspects in class") and 4 ("My CLIL teachers provide us with strategies to help us understand the content we are learning in the FL"), the high-SES students are more complacent in their view of teachers' linguistic and content support during the classes. In this way, our results differ to the study carried out by Ramón Ramos (2023), who found that lower-SES students, or those from more disenfranchised contexts, appreciated more the diversity measures put in place.

Item	SES	N	Mean	SD	Rosenthal's R	p-value
2	Medium	6	3.50	1.05	-0.355	0.048
	High	25	2.56	1.16		
3	Medium	6	3.50	1.76	0.403	0.025
	High	25	5.16	0.94		
4	Medium	6	3.17	1.72	0.417	0.02
	High	25	4.72	1.02		

Table 32: Statistically significant differences within the student cohort for linguistic aspects in terms of SES

For the fifth and last block on the questionnaires, **collaboration and teacher training**, statistically significant differences were had between students of medium- and high-SES on two items (43 and 44). For both item 43 ("My language teachers are sufficiently prepared to cater to diversity in the CLIL classroom") and 44 "My content teachers are sufficiently prepared to cater

⁷⁹ The ANOVA test was not used for SES since there were only two rungs for SES (medium/high) in this particular set of stakeholders sampled.

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING:
CHAPTER 6. QUALITATIVE RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

to diversity in the CLIL classroom”), the medium-SES students valued their language and content teachers’ preparation more so than their high-SES counterparts. This means that the more socially advantaged students are more appreciative of the collaboration between teachers, similar to findings by Ramón Ramos (2023), who found that higher SES students tended to better evaluate the bilingual program (cf. Table 33).

Item	SES	N	Mean	SD	Rosenthal's R	p-value
43	Medium	6	3.83	0.98	0.380	0.035
	High	25	4.68	1.07		
44	Medium	6	3.83	0.75	0.376	0.036
	High	25	4.60	1.15		

Table 33: Statistically significant differences within the student cohort for collaboration and teacher training in terms of SES

6.2.3. Focus groups

In addition to the questionnaires, student focus groups complemented the qualitative data for this cohort. For the focus groups, specific *ADIBE* interview protocol was followed, and questions related to each thematic block previously explained from the questionnaire were given, in addition to a final, sixth block concerning overall appraisal of the CLIL program and classes. The focus groups and direct observations took place after the questionnaires had been completed. The focus groups used specific prompts which are presented below, followed by any pertinent commentary from students:

Regarding the first block, **linguistic aspects** (BICS and CALP) the following open-ended questions were used as prompts:

- Do you find it challenging to learn in classes with students who have different levels of English/academic achievement?
- Do your teachers provide you with linguistic support to help you understand difficult aspects in the CLIL classroom?
- Do your CLIL teachers provide you with strategies to help you understand the content you are learning in the foreign language?
- Do your CLIL teachers repeat parts or the whole of a lesson in your first language to help you understand the content you are learning?
- Do you think that your CLIL teachers’ communication skills in the foreign language and specialized knowledge of the subject are sufficient to help all types of learners?

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING:
CHAPTER 6. QUALITATIVE RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The students' opinions concluded that it was not challenging to learn in classes with students of different academic achievement levels nor with different levels of English competence, adding that since teachers tended to give out personalized and individualized attention to the students that needed it, they were unaffected by these students in their own learning.

"Even though some of the students are new, or don't understand English, the teacher still talks in English."

"I don't mind working with students that don't speak English."

Interestingly, some students did seem to notice that while some students have been in the school for many years, their English level was still relatively low:

"Some students have been in the school many years and we know English but some kids come here now, in fourth of ESO, and don't know English but some kids have been here all these years and also don't know English."

A general consensus that was shared during the focus groups was that CLIL teachers are linguistically prepared to support the students in their learning with difficult CLIL aspects and use a variety of strategies to help them understand the content, such as videos, visuals, glossaries and presentations. Parallel to the questionnaire responses, students were very confident in their teachers' communication skills in English and specialized subject material knowledge. Likewise, as reflected in the questionnaires, the students did not agree with the statement that CLIL teachers were repeating whole classes in Spanish. There were some instances where Spanish was used, specifically for new students and code-switching was commonly referred to:

"For those students who don't know English."

"Important vocabulary are [sic] given [to us] in Spanish."

"It depends on the teacher; some teachers don't even know Spanish."

"Some teachers use it [the L1] more."

"Our [CLIL] teachers only speak in English. They never speak in Spanish."

"If I don't understand, sometimes my teachers will say the word in Spanish."

Concerning block two, **methodology and groupings**, two open-ended questions were given:

- Are your CLIL teachers' lessons sensitive to students with diverse needs?

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING: CHAPTER 6. QUALITATIVE RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

- Is there enough time in your CLIL lessons to attend to different types of learners? If so, which methodologies, types of groupings, and activities are employed to do it? Would you say they are traditional or innovative / teacher-fronted or student-centered / deploy higher-rank or lower-order cognitive processes? Examples: student/teacher-centered methodologies, cooperative learning, multiple intelligences theory, task-based language teaching, project-based learning, lockstep lecturing, pair/group work, personalized attention (individual or in smaller groups), peer mentoring strategies, newcomer classes, activities which involve memorizing, understanding and applying vs. those which entail analyzing, evaluating and creating.

The students tended to agree that CLIL lessons were apt for students with diverse needs, mentioning that students who were struggling with the lessons were grouped or paired with academically strong students. Despite this, the students reported mixed-feedback regarding the types of methodologies being employed in the classroom, with students saying that both traditional and innovative strategies were being used, emphasizing that almost all the entirety of CLIL teachers required them to memorize concepts that they later forgot "*the next day*". However, the students also agreed that many teachers were utilizing innovative methodologies that required them to create products on their own, although PowerPoint presentations are still the most commonly assigned project. The cohort denied carrying out self-assessments or peer evaluations on a regular or even frequent basis. As for the examples of methodologies, many students responded positively to their frequent use, save for multiple intelligences. The overwhelmingly popular response was project-based learning.

"All of our classes have projects. All the time."

"The MYP is projects."

"The projects sometimes can be boring. It is making posters or PowerPoints [usually]."

"We are all in the same class and do the same work, we all know what we have to do, except the kids that don't speak English good [sic], because they are new. The teacher sometimes helps them."

The students did not seem to be entirely sure about the presence of newcomer classes or not, although the newcomer students confirmed their nonexistence and expressed a desire for them, as a way to help "integrate" them and close the gap, mainly in the L2, between them and their more bilingual peers who have been attending the school for several years.

"We need newcomer classes."

Group work was criticized by some of the overachievers during the focus groups, claiming that they preferred to "*work alone*", arguing that the majority of the project workload falls on their shoulders. Some of the higher achieving students scorned mixed-ability groupings, saying this was "*unfair*". However, all of the students who expressed these notions did admit that

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING:
CHAPTER 6. QUALITATIVE RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

individual-based rather than group-based grading could be used to combat any issues with disproportionate workloads:

"Some students don't do anything, and I always do all of it. I like working alone."

"I don't think it's fair that we have to work with students who don't do anything."

"Some kids don't want to do the work and that's why they don't work ... And that is why they have lower grades."

"I don't think any student needs that much more help."

Regarding the third block, **materials and resources**, one question related to materials and resources was used as the prompt:

- Which materials and resources do your teachers use to take into account different levels of achievement among students? Examples to be shown to the students to help them in their responses: textbook, adapted materials, materials created by your teachers, ICT, multimodal instructional materials, and instructional materials which promote the development of pluriliteracies.

None of the CLIL classes were entirely dependent on a textbook, and the vast majority of the students regarded this as a positive feature, noting that the textbooks were usually hard to understand or, more so, boring. The students said that most of the materials they were using they believed the teachers had created or had found "*on the internet*", and they were usually fill-in-the-gap or multiple-choice worksheets. Students were enthusiastic about ICT use by their teachers, and agreed that they were more motivated to work in class when they were allowed to use their devices, which, according to the cohort, was the overwhelming majority of class time. Some students did mention that some of the ICTs were repetitive, "*boring*", and that some teachers used the same ones "*over and over*". Students mentioned a considerable amount of videos or clips being watched, the majority of which were in English with subtitles on, either in Spanish or English. However, the majority of the students said these videos were hardly ever accompanied by a worksheet or activity and it was hard to get interested in them or follow along.

"We always use our devices. We use them every day."

"Some of our teachers let us do the work on the iPad instead of the notebook. It's the same."

"There's always a video, or a YouTube video."

For the fourth block, **assessment**, the following open-ended questions were used:

- How is evaluation/assessment carried out to take into account different levels of achievement?
- Is it formative or/and summative?

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING: CHAPTER 6. QUALITATIVE RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

- Which instruments and criteria are used?
- Do you find that your performance improves as a result of taking into account attention to diversity?
- Examples to show to students: grading rubrics, detailed guidelines as extra support (formative evaluation), more personalized and regular feedback (formative evaluation), in-class activities attuned to level (formative evaluation), homework attuned to level (formative evaluation), key words highlighted and vocabulary adapted in the exam (summative evaluation), different versions of the same exam and more time to carry it out (summative evaluation).

When it came to assessment, there were less harmonious responses. Some of the CLIL classes were noted as not using formative assessment and some classes were deemed as being heavily based on formative assessment and used summative assessments to a lesser degree. Grading rubrics were used in most cases, but the majority of students said that they “*changed*” throughout the term or weren’t followed precisely. Feedback was generally agreed upon to come at the end of the evaluation period, with only a couple of their CLIL teachers giving them regular feedback. Grading also seemed to take a long time, with some students saying that it could take “*over a week*” to get a grade back for a project or a test. Not many students saw that teachers were attuning in-class activities or homework for varying levels, with the vast majority saying that the same in-class activities and homework were required for all the students. Some of the teachers do highlight key words on the exams and even translate some of the exams into Spanish, as agreed upon by the bulk of the students in the focus groups. It was commented that some of the, mainly new, students were allowed to write in Spanish on exams that required longer answers, but this happened very rarely and only with specific CLIL teachers. None of the students said they had seen different versions of an exam given out, but teachers did correct or edit the exam question on the spot. The students did respond positively to being allotted more time on certain exams, but again, only in the case of certain students and with specific teachers. Fairness was discussed quite at length in the focus groups, with some students criticizing the “extra” help that some students received during the class and on tests.

“Our teacher comes around a lot during the class to ask us if we need help.”

“Sometimes I just get up and ask the teacher for help.”

“I am asked to help out other students a lot. I don’t mind.”

“My teacher lets me write some words in Spanish on the exam. Sometimes I can’t remember a word or I don’t know how to say it in English.”

Regarding the fifth thematic block, ***teacher collaboration and development***, four open-ended questions were used:

- Do your CLIL teachers coordinate/collaborate with each other in order to cater to diversity?

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING: CHAPTER 6. QUALITATIVE RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

- Do you have the support of multi-professional teams (special education needs support staff, psychologists, social workers) to cater to diversity in your CLIL classrooms?
- Do your language teachers have sufficient preparation to cater to diversity in the CLIL classroom? And your content teachers? And the language assistants?
- Are you satisfied with the support offered to your parents?

When it came to teacher collaboration and coordination, the students generally responded negatively to seeing their teachers collaborate with each other. They mentioned two subjects which had a shared unit in common but said their English classes never included any vocabulary from any of their CLIL classes or vice-versa, and there was criticism about never having any overlap in their English classes. The support of a multi-professional team was not affirmed by the students, although two students mentioned they had been to see the school psychologist more than once. On the other hand, when it came to teacher training, the students were very confident in their teachers' preparation both for language and content, noting that half of their CLIL teachers were native English teachers, expressing the sentiment that this ultimately meant more than sufficient content-subject knowledge. There were two language assistants but the students in the study had very little contact with them, although all experiences with them were deemed to be generally positive and very functional. It should be noted that the language assistants were not utilized for the content classes, but held speaking classes with a reduced number of students during their English lessons. Parental support was highly satisfactory according to the students, many noting that their parents were in regular contact with their teachers.

"My mom always talks to my teachers."

"Our teachers are native. They know a lot."

Finally, a sixth block, **overall appraisal**, was included for the focus groups, that was not present in the questionnaires, which featured several open-ended questions regarding general perceptions about the CLIL classes at the school:

- Which are, in your opinion, the chief difficulties which you have encountered in participating in a bilingual program that takes into account students with different levels of achievement?
- Which are the best teaching practices used to attend to diversity in the CLIL classroom?
- Are you satisfied with the support system which your school currently has in place to help you with your CLIL classes?
- What is your overall appraisal of catering to diversity in the CLIL classroom?

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING: CHAPTER 6. QUALITATIVE RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The overall appraisal of the CLIL program by the students at the school was reasonably positive. The main difficulties in this particular bilingual program seemed to be concentrated on participation issues with students of different achievement levels, group-work and videos. Group-work was criticized for being very monotonous. Regarding videos, these were criticized by the underachievers for being too difficult to understand when they were shown in English. Equally, the support measures were deemed unsatisfactory, specifically the lack of newcomer classes and general inability to follow along in the lessons in the L2. Many students reported feeling a sense of being “lost” in the class and lamented the lack of diversity measures, such as adapted exams, functional explanations in the L1, subtitles on videos, and ability-attuned activities.

As for satisfaction, there were three main points of overwhelming appreciation: the consistent parental support; the high degree of technology integrated into the curriculum; and, the high percentage of native English speakers and corresponding advanced proficiency L2 levels the students were able to achieve.

6.2.4. Thematic findings

The opinions, suggestions, criticisms, behaviors, and commentaries from the questionnaires, focus groups, and direct observations will now be compiled and overarching findings are sorted according to thematic block, beginning with a block dedicated entirely to attention to diversity, followed by the previously mentioned five (linguistic aspects, methodology and groupings, materials and resources, assessment, and collaboration and training). The findings from this study will be compared and contrasted with conclusions from previous studies as previously delineated in the literature review.

6.2.4.1 Attention to diversity

Regarding the general topic of diversity, the majority of the students were completely unaware of diversity existing in any other sense than that of race or nationality, congruent with findings from Bauer-Marschallinger et al. (2023), who evince the same sentiment from students: that they do not seem to be aware or conscious of diversity beyond what the eye can see, especially related to academic achievement. The students in this study at hand did not voice a coherent understanding of diversity and ability, hence leading us to the conclusion that these students are not properly informed about diversity, achievement or inclusion, given the misalignment of their perceptions and general unfamiliarity with these terms. Accordingly, diversity was included as a specific point to be addressed in the focus groups since it emerged that the majority of the students did not have a deep understanding of the topic, congruent with Bauer-Marschallinger et al. (2023), where diversity, as a singular topic, was deemed necessary to be added to the discussion. For her part, Ting (2023) found that students were adamant

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING:
CHAPTER 6. QUALITATIVE RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

teachers must be more aware of diversity, a sentiment the students in this study did not hold, since the general consensus was that the students who were diverse (linguistically, racially, and the like) were attended to and the teachers themselves were diverse racially.

Most of the students expressed the sentiment that their peers have similar ability levels, and some alluded to the fact that grades and ability differ amongst students owing mainly to the amount of work done, attributing low scores to laziness or disinterest and not on ability or neurodiversity. Although the students did not, initially, respond positively to the statement that heterogeneous ability existed amongst them, beyond new and foreign students, upon further discussion, they did note the strengths of certain students, increased ability in varying subjects, and how certain students in a group were given different roles based on their particular abilities, in line with findings from Bauer-Marschallinger et al. (2023).

As previously mentioned, personalized and individualized attention seems to be the way that most teachers are providing support to struggling students, as evinced by the students' responses via questionnaires and focus groups, as well as during classroom observation. This was similar to studies carried out by Nikula et al. (2023) and Ramón Ramos (2023), which also saw individual attention as one of the main diversity techniques being deployed but contrasts with Siepmann et al. (2023) and Ting (2023), who found less positive appreciation from the students on the use of individualized support.

6.2.4.2. Linguistic aspects

On the whole, linguistically-speaking, the students evaluate the CLIL scheme positively, in line with the teachers and parents and congruent with findings from several previous studies (e.g. Chaieberras & Rascón Moreno, 2018; Lancaster, 2016; Mahan & Norheim, 2021; Ocaña Peinado, 2019; Oxbrow, 2018; Ting, 2023). Regarding specific linguistic aspects, the students thoroughly agreed that their teachers possess specialized knowledge in their respective subject matters, as well as high language proficiency in the L2, in line with Ramón Ramos (2023); however, it is in direct contrast with the findings from Ting (2023), consistent with the fact that teachers in that study were non-native English speakers. The students' opinion in our study coincides with the fact a relatively high percentage of the teachers at the school were native English speakers, although students viewed their teachers' English and content competence levels as equally proficient, regardless of nationality or mother tongue. The students in this study highly value their CLIL teachers' BICS and CALP, in line with Pérez Cañado (2023) and to a lesser degree, Casas Pedrosa and Rascón Moreno (2023). However, regarding BICS, these findings are inconsistent with Siepmann et al. (2023), where students disagreed that teachers' communication skills were sufficient enough for catering to diversity.

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING: CHAPTER 6. QUALITATIVE RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Regarding their own English proficiency, many of the students in this study were very self-complacent and proud of their L2 competence: many of the students at this grade level possess a B2 certificate, contrasted with Siepmann et al. (2023), where the student cohort presented a mixed-English ability level and some professed having lower English level than average, conveying the sentiment that they were fearful of speaking in the L2 and were hesitant to participate for fear of making a mistake. Scaffolding was the most common response by the students for linguistic-related material, affirmed in both the questionnaires and focus groups, for how their teachers aided them with more linguistically-challenging content and, similarly, it was the most common practice seen during the direct observations.

The majority of the students confirm they are receiving linguistic support from their teachers, in line with Bauer-Marschallinger et. al. (2023), Casas Pedrosa and Rascón Moreno (2023), Pérez Cañado (2023), Ramón Ramos (2023), and Ting (2023), in a lesser degree, with Siepmann et al. (2023), where students only slightly agree that linguistic support is happening. As for content support in the form of scaffolding, the majority of the students agree that this is taking place, in line with Casas Pedrosa and Rascón Moreno (2023) and Ramón Ramos (2023), but contrasted with Bauer-Marschallinger et. al. (2023), where teachers report a greater use of content-scaffolding compared to the student response. The students in our study do not find it challenging to learn in these classes with students of varying levels of achievement, neither academically nor linguistically; however, this is directly contrasted with findings from Nikula et al. (2023) and Ramón Ramos (2023), in which student responses responded positively to these statements. Regarding diversity, the students were not entirely aware of specific measures that were being used to cater to differing levels of academic ability, but did perceive the varying English proficiencies catered to through videos and translations, consistent with Bauer-Marschallinger et al. (2023). As for content knowledge improvement, as pertaining to the CLIL methodology, students believed they have improved in the content subject in line with Chaieberras & Rascón Moreno (2021) and Oxbrow (2018). Findings by Ting (2023) report a desire by students for more contents to be offered in the FL, a sentiment that did not resonate with the students in our study, most likely given the wide offering of subjects in the CLIL curriculum at this particular school.

Regarding L1 use, as perceived by the students, the entirety of this cohort disagree that this is happening on any major scale. This is in direct misalignment with Oxbrow (2018), in which students polled wished to see less L1 used, yet in alignment with Ting (2023), whose findings saw students asking for more L1 used. The students in our study note that the native English teachers rarely, if ever, use the Spanish language, whilst the Spanish-born teachers do use the L1 to some degree, consistent with Siepmann et al. (2023), who found that students report varying levels of the L1 are used, varying from class to class. In that same study (idem, 2023)

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING:
CHAPTER 6. QUALITATIVE RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

students were more likely to see L1 use than the teachers reported using, also consistent with our findings. Opposite this, Bauer-Marschallinger et al. (2023) found that students did not report as much of an L1 use as the teachers claimed to be using and the teachers interviewed reported using the L1 in their lessons to more of a degree than perceived by the students. However, students' perceptions in our study are in direct contrast with findings from Casas Pedrosa and Rascón Moreno (2023), Pérez Cañado (2023), and Ramón Ramos (2023), all of whom report there is L1 use in the CLIL classroom, whereas the Spanish language was not reported by any of the students in this study to be used to repeat any significant amounts of class and was never used to cover an entire CLIL lesson. In that same area, in certain studies (e.g. Bauer-Marschallinger et al., 2023) students demand a more systematic integration of the L1 in the CLIL classroom, as a lack of scientific knowledge in their mother tongue seems to distress them. Similarly, translanguaging, or alternating concepts in the L1 and L2 was another finding from Ting (2023) and was highly valued by the students in that study, who wished to see more use of L1 in order for them to make more connections. Findings from Oxbrow (2018) also coincide from our findings in that the students regard the CLIL class to improve their FL skills. Other studies have also shed light on the L1-L2 connection, students evincing an enhanced understanding of how languages work (e.g. Chaieberras & Rascón Moreno, 2018; Oxbrow, 2018).

Similar to Bauer-Marschallinger et al. (2023), where the majority of the teachers in the study were native speakers, half of the teacher cohort in this study were as well. However, contrasted with these findings (2023), the majority of the student cohort, having been enrolled at this school for many years, were quite accustomed to the CLIL classes being entirely in English given the presence of native English teachers who have limited proficiency in the Spanish language. The majority of the students at this school were not critical of the monopolized L2. The students who were critical of the exclusive L2 use constituted a minority of the cohort. Many of the students said they relied on Google translate or peer support if they were confused, since some of the CLIL teachers were unable to give them detailed explanations in the L1, although, like the previously mentioned study (2023), the use of L1 did vary in some other content classes, mainly with native Spanish teachers, who the students reported used more of the L1. In line with findings from Ting (2023), the students were very happy with having native-English speaking teachers, and applauded their teaching abilities. Some of the students in the focus groups did mention that it would be beneficial if these native English speakers were also able to manipulate the Spanish language; however, this was not agreed upon by all and some argued that this would lead to more L1 use in class and, therefore, less L2 gains by the students. A portion of the students were willing, and eager, to have classes entirely in English for academic and employment purposes; therefore, they prefer the CLIL classes to be in English. Only a minority of students, mostly foreign and new students, were the exceptions, and expressed a desire for more Spanish instruction during the lessons. However, almost the entirety of the cohort agreed it would be

helpful if the native English teachers were able to communicate in Spanish, although this led to a discussion that this might possibly lead to more Spanish instruction. This is consistent with findings from Ting (2023), who found that the majority of the students wanted native English teachers who were also willing and able to speak the mother tongue of that country (Italian). Correspondingly, only a minuscule use of the Spanish language was seen put into practice during the classroom observation hours: only in one of the observations was Spanish used and the other class was conducted entirely in English.

6.2.4.3. Methodology and groupings

Regarding methodology and groupings, student-centered learning is taking place, as affirmed by students in the questionnaires and focus groups interviews. The majority of the student cohort agrees that the teachers' methodology is sensitive to diversity, mostly consistent with Casas Pedrosa and Rascón Moreno (2023), in which students partially agreed with this statement, and Siepmann et al. (2023), in which students generally agreed with this sentiment. Most studies that have taken place recently, including the one in this Thesis, have evinced students' positive sentiment overall with methodology and groupings, as the majority see their teachers using varied methodology.

An overwhelmingly positive response on behalf of the students is had when asked about the use of project- and/or task-based learning, which almost the entirety of the cohort affirms takes place in their classrooms and was later confirmed in the focus groups and seen in the direct observations, consistent with previous findings (Bauer- Marschallinger et al., 2023; Barrios & Milla Lara, 2020; Casas Pedrosa & Rascón Moreno, 2023; Chaieberras & Rascón Moreno, 2018; Lancaster, 2016; Ocaña Peinado, 2019; Oxbrow, 2018; Pérez Cañado, 2018b, 2023; Siepmann et al., 2023) but in direct contrast with findings from Ramón Ramos (2023). There were few notable mentions of mixed-ability groupings and these were not seen during the classroom observations, in line partially with Nikula et al. (2023) and to a lesser degree Siepmann et al. (2023). The former had disagreements between the cohort, as the teachers in the study (2022) did note a use of heterogeneous grouping as a way to avoid gaps in learning; however, the student cohort did not perceive this taking place and the perceptions from the students reveal inconsistencies between how the stakeholders are evaluating the CLIL program in regard to groupings. Other studies did find different groupings to be used such as Ramón Ramos (2023). As confirmed by the students themselves (and later the teachers), most group- and project-work takes place in groups that students choose for themselves, and usually correspond to similar-ability students. Thus, it can be confirmed that heterogeneous groupings and pairings are not being used, in line with Siepmann et al. (2023), who conclude that students do not report this being used to as much of a degree as teachers do. On the other hand, students in Casas Pedrosa and Rascón Moreno's (2023) study partially agreed that their teachers do use different types of

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING:
CHAPTER 6. QUALITATIVE RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

groupings. For group work, the students in this study were adamant in the focus groups that they prefer to be able to pick their own groups and argued they work better in this way. The majority lamented being forced to work with students the teachers had selected and did not see that as profiting anyone. However, in contrast to what the students mentioned in the previously cited study (Bauer-Marschallinger et al., 2023), the students did not report learning more when the information was presented by a peer, but preferred the teacher to present and explain the material.

As for teachers' repertoire of strategies, the student cohort was divided on this, similar to Pérez Cañado (2023), Bauer-Marschallinger et al. (2023) and Siepmann et al. (2023), all of whom conclude that students do not see as much of an assortment of practices taking place methodologically and are generally less affirmative than the teachers about a varied methodology. In contrast, Casas Pedrosa and Rascón Moreno (2023) find that students partially agree to this statement and believe the teachers are employing a wide variety of mechanisms.

When it comes to student-based vs. teacher-led learning, the students are more pessimistic in their views that their CLIL classes are the former. The students do not seem to be overwhelmingly certain that the classroom is student-based and maintain that teacher-fronted methodology is taking place, inconsistent with findings from Pérez Cañado (2023). When appreciating the responses from the questionnaires, there is incongruity in the responses: a slight majority disagree with the statement about student-centered methodology and the cohort is divided on a teacher-fronted methodology. This is in line with Bauer-Marschallinger et al. (2023), since the teacher cohort is more confident they are using student-centered methodologies, although the students are still confirming the use of student-based learning in other studies (Casas Pedrosa & Rascón Moreno, 2023; Pérez Cañado, 2023; Siepmann et al., 2023). For their part, Casas Pedrosa and Rascón Moreno (2023) find that students partially agree that teacher-led methodology is being used. Divergent findings might be attributed to the students' knowledge deficiency when it comes to the methodology and teaching process, and it cannot be assumed that many of these students are perceiving or even thinking about what is going on outside of the classroom, as proposed by Bauer-Marschallinger et al. (2023).

Another one of the almost entirely unanimous response from the questionnaires is had when polled about the use of cooperative learning, which almost the entirety of the cohort affirms takes place in their classrooms, later agreed upon in the focus groups and seen in the direct observations, consistent with previous findings (Pérez Cañado, 2023; Casas Pedrosa & Rascón Moreno, 2023), in which students partially agreed that this is being used). However, these findings are in direct contradiction with Bauer-Marschallinger et al. (2023) and Siepmann et al. (2023) in which students did not see cooperative learning taking place. Personalized teaching was also highlighted by the students as being implemented frequently throughout their lessons

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING:
CHAPTER 6. QUALITATIVE RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

and the direct observations reinforced this sentiment. Conversely, no students or teachers seemed to be making use of the multiple intelligence theory, in line with previous findings (Casas Pedrosa & Rascón Moreno, 2023; Pérez Cañado, 2023).

Regarding other specific strategies, some of them are taking place, as perceived by the students, such as the previously mentioned cooperative learning and personalized teaching, in addition to peer mentoring and assistance strategies, while others, such as varied classroom layout and newcomer classes, are not. The latter two strategies are not reported by students to be used in the class in other studies: Casas Pedrosa and Rascón Moreno (2023), where the student cohort partially disagreed that varied classroom layouts are used, and slightly disagreed that newcomer classes are utilized; similarly, findings from Pérez Cañado (2023) do not see different classroom layouts or newcomer classes being employed. For their part, in Siepmann et al. (2023), students do not see varied classroom layouts and Bauer-Marschallinger et al. (2023) finds inconsistencies between teachers' and students' perspectives regarding this strategy: students are much less optimistic that this is taking place, with only a third of the students reporting it happening, whereas double the percentage of the teachers report using it. As for the strategies that are seen by the students to be employed (personalized attention and peer mentoring/assistance strategies), our findings are consistent with Casas Pedrosa and Rascón Moreno (2023), who find these to be partially agreed upon by the students. However, Pérez Cañado (2023) did not find these to be confirmed to be taking place and, for their part, Siepmann et al. (2023) found that students did not perceive them to be as frequently utilized as the teachers did.

In line with Bauer-Marschallinger et al. (2023), spontaneous and individual help was one of the main strategies identified by the students for teacher support in their learning, as was the case in the study at hand. The students, in line with previously mentioned author (2023), mentioned in the focus groups that individual support happened all the time, and regularly calling the teacher over for help was precedent, be it for more explanation, guidance, reassurance, suggestion, or anything else.

6.2.4.4. Materials and resources

As for materials, the students do not seem have a good grasp of this facet of the CLIL program: the majority of these students disagree they are using adapted or originally created materials from the teacher, in line with Ramón Ramos (2023) and Siepmann et al. (2023), who found that students are, generally, unaware that teachers are creating and adapting materials for them to use. However, for their part, Casas Pedrosa and Rascón Moreno (2023) found that students did see the employment of adapted materials, although there was a mixed response from the students if the materials were created by the teachers. Our findings diverge from findings

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING:
CHAPTER 6. QUALITATIVE RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

from other studies in which students did find the materials to be interesting, innovative, communicative and innovative (e.g. Barrios & Milla Lara, 2020; Casas Pedrosa & Rascón Moreno, 2023; Chaieberras & Rascón Moreno, 2018; Lancaster, 2016; Ocaña Peinado, 2019; Oxbrow, 2018; Pérez Cañado, 2023).

Students lamented the scarcity of "*interesting*" CLIL materials, many of them expressing the viewpoint that the worksheets were "*boring*" and repetitive, in line with findings from Ting (2023), who found that students expressed the desire for more up-to-date materials. The teachers in this study say they are putting a lot of effort into material adaption and creation, but the students are not entirely aware of this process, in line with Siepmann et al. (2023) and Ramón Ramos (2023), certainly due to the fact that the students are not in tune to the behind the scenes work of a teacher (idem, 2023). Juxtaposed with Pérez Cañado (2023) and Siepmann et al. (2023), the students in our study are satisfied with the materials being used, especially related to online materials and ICT. However, findings from Ramón Ramos (2023) found that students positively viewed ICTs and Oxbrow's (2018) study also gave evidence from students that ICTs and online resources were used frequently. The inconsistency between findings from previous studies regarding materials is undoubtedly related to the integrated use of ICT at this school, high percentage of personal devices, and online platform which, in turn, could explain the high degree of satisfaction evinced from the students when it came to technological resources.

Along these same lines, ICTs are a big part of these classes, as confirmed by the students, and in line with findings from Pérez Cañado (2023), and to a lesser degree, Casas Pedrosa and Rascón Moreno (2023). Alternatively, the findings digress from Siepmann et al. (2023), where students did not agree that a high degree of ICT is being employed. The students in this particular study seem starved for more innovative ICT, although games, activities and projects are reported by all three cohorts (students, teachers and parents) to be standard in the CLIL classrooms: a few popular ICTs are being utilized across the curriculum, including Kahoot, Quizlet, Google Suite, and Plickers. This is in direct contrast with Siepmann et al. (2023) whose results found that there were limited technological options in the CLIL program according to the students.

The textbook is not working for these students, as evinced by the learner responses and evidenced by the fact that many of the classes did not use a physical textbook, but revolved around an online platform. Findings by Casas Pedrosa and Rascón Moreno (2023), Pérez Cañado (2023), Ramón Ramos (2023), and Siepmann et al. (2023) agree in this regard, as the students polled in their respective studies communicate the belief that the textbook is not fitting the bill for CLIL classes today. The students responded positively to no longer using textbooks in the majority of their classes, and were content with being able to access most of the materials and resources for the class on their devices. The students were critical of the textbooks that were still required for some classes.

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING: CHAPTER 6. QUALITATIVE RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A combination of input is being used, consistent with findings by Pérez Cañado (2023). As for findings by Casas Pedrosa and Rascón Moreno (2023), students slightly agree that the CLIL classes make use of a combination of input to cater to diversity. Likewise, student agreement was higher than the teachers for multimodal input, the latter whom report it is being used to a lesser degree (in line with Siepmann et al., 2023). The findings from this cohort are aligned with findings from Ramón Ramos (2023), in that visual textual support is being given.

As for diversity measures when it comes to materials and resources, our students did not see these being adapted as a way to cater to the different learners in the classroom, in line with Ramón Ramos (2023) and Nikula et al. (2023). The students evinced the same sentiment as those in the study carried out by Ting (2023) in that more materials were needed. Classroom materials and homework were believed by this cohort to be the same for all, the same sentiment found by Nikula et al. (2023) in which students did not see any diversity, other than L1 heterogeneity, being attended to. The students in our study also expressed the same perception: all students are given the same work and materials.

6.2.4.5. Assessment

The evaluation facet of the course, from the students' perspective, generally associates the assessment techniques at the school as being fair and positively appraised, in direct contrast with previous findings from Casas Pedrosa and Rascón Moreno (2023) and Pérez Cañado (2023) who did not see assessment as being as positively perceived. A positive overall appraisal by the students does coincide with other studies (e.g. Barrios & Milla Lara, 2020; Chaieberras & Rascón Moreno, 2018; Lancaster, 2016; Ocaña Peinado, 2019; Oxbrow, 2018; Pérez Cañado, 2018b). The students find that assessment procedures are delineated clearly and there are diverse evaluation techniques taking place such as rubrics, self- and peer-assessment, personalized feedback and guidelines.

Most of the students affirm that the teachers are using criteria which evaluate all students fairly (inconsistent with Casas Pedrosa & Rascón Moreno, 2023), although the majority state that the evaluation criteria, exams, and homework are the same for students across the board (in line with Casas Pedrosa & Rascón Moreno, 2023; Nikula et al. 2023; Siepmann et al. 2023; Pérez Cañado, 2021b). As San Isidro and Pérez Cañado (2023) underline, diversity in the classroom has added a new aspect to the classroom that was not taken into consideration before, and while assessment measures might have been more positively appreciated in the past, when attention to diversity is factored in, students are much less optimistic about this facet. Despite this, the students in our study were generally positive in their rating of this block.

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING: CHAPTER 6. QUALITATIVE RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The students agree that the CLIL teacher is taking into account different levels of achievement, inconsistent with Nikula et al. (2023) and Siepmann et al. (2023). Personalized feedback is seen as happening according to this cohort, in line with Pérez Cañado (2023), but contrasted with findings from Casas Pedrosa and Rascón Moreno (2023) and Siepmann et al. (2023). Differentiated activities are not taking place, as perceived by the students, consistent with previous studies (e.g. Casas Pedrosa & Rascón Moreno, 2023; Nikula et al., 2023; Pérez Cañado, 2023; Ramón Ramos, 2023; Siepmann et al., 2023). In that same vein, differentiated homework is also not perceived to be happening via data from the questionnaires and focus groups, nor seen to be given out during the direct observations, in line with Casas Pedrosa and Rascón Moreno (2023), Nikula et al. (2023), Pérez Cañado (2023), Ramón Ramos (2023), Siepmann et al. (2023), and Ting (2023).

As for grading rubrics, the students are divided over whether they are being used to cater to diversity (consistent with Pérez Cañado, 2023), although grading rubrics of varying degrees of detail, in a digital form, were seen to be utilized for projects during a classroom observation and were generally perceived to be the norm by the teachers and students. Detailed guidelines are used, according to the students, consistent with Pérez Cañado (2023). However, previous findings concluded that not all students agreed this is happening (e.g. Casas Pedrosa & Rascón Moreno, 2023) or students disagreed directly with this sentiment (Siepmann et al., 2023).

When it comes to the summative evaluation, while the students do see key words being highlighted and/or adapted vocabulary being used (contrasted with findings from Casas Pedrosa & Rascón Moreno, 2023), the majority of the students do not affirm the use of different exam versions in line with Nikula et al. (2023), Pérez Cañado (2023) and Ramón Ramos (2023), although a minority of the students in this study do say that extra time is given, in line with the teachers' findings.

The students agree that the formative evaluation caters to diversity, in line with Pérez Cañado (2023), who finds that students see formative assessment as a better means to catering to diversity than summative assessment. However, these findings are inconsistent with Casas Pedrosa and Rascón Moreno (2023), Ramón Ramos (2023) and Siepmann et al. (2023). In line with Siepmann et al. (2023) the students felt like their grades were based more so on formative assessment regarding in-class participation and performance, and less weight was given to the summative exams in some of the CLIL courses. The students affirmed they were mostly assessed for content knowledge, and rarely evaluated on language performance.

Overall, a majority of the students believe their performance has improved as a result of CLIL teachers taking into account diversity, consistent with findings from Pérez Cañado (2023),

but inconsistent with findings from Casas Pedrosa and Rascón Moreno (2023), who found that students slightly disagreed that their performance has improved.

6.2.4.6. Collaboration and training

In line with previously mentioned studies, and conclusions from San Isidro and Pérez Cañado (2023), this might be the most well-perceived facet. The students in the study show high levels of optimism in their teachers' preparation and parental engagement, in line with previous findings from Casas Pedrosa and Rascón Moreno (2023), Chaieberras and Rascón Moreno (2018), and Oxbrow (2018), but show less enthusiasm for the support system at the school. The students positively view the language teachers' preparation for diversity, in line with Pérez Cañado (2023), but this diverges from the findings of Casas Pedrosa and Rascón Moreno (2023), who found no agreement to be had by students concerning this statement. The students believe the content teachers are prepared to deal with diversity, consistent with previous findings (Pérez Cañado, 2023; Casas Pedrosa & Rascón Moreno, 2023). In line with Ting (2023), the students in our study have almost complete faith that their teachers are knowledgeable and competent; however, as this same author adverts, some students might be hesitant to criticize teachers and one-off interviews might not be able to accurately depict true feelings. However, the general sentiment sees the majority of students who consider their teachers more than well prepared to teach the classes.

The students are not satisfied with the support of multi-professional teams, consistent with Pérez Cañado (2023) and Ramón Ramos (2023), but incongruent with Casas Pedrosa and Rascón Moreno (2023). The presence of a guidance counselor is not positively viewed by the students, consistent with Pérez Cañado (2023), but diverging from the findings of Casas Pedrosa and Rascón Moreno (2023).

Collaboration with other teachers is practically nonexistent, as perceived by the student cohort, which is in direct contrast with findings from Oxbrow (2018), in which there was a high degree of coordination perceived by the students to be taking place between FL and NLA teachers. Conversely, the students in our study lamented a lack of consistency and coherence amongst their CLIL and English teachers. However, the students have faith in the language assistants' preparation, consistent with Pérez Cañado (2023) but incongruent with Casas Pedrosa and Rascón Moreno (2023), although it was noted in the direct observations and focus groups that the CLIL classes do not make use of the language assistants, and these supplemental teachers are used to support students who require more assistance linguistically, or who are preparing for external language exams. Thus, students' perceptions via questionnaire responses could be skewed since they could have been evaluating the language assistants based on their experience

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING: CHAPTER 6. QUALITATIVE RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

with them in the English classroom, and not in the content classroom, since from a content perspective, the student cohort would be totally unsatisfied given they have no access to them.

Overall, the school support system is not coming through for the diverse students, and satisfaction on behalf of this cohort is lukewarm, in line with Casas Pedrosa and Rascón Moreno (2023) and Pérez Cañado (2023), who found that overall satisfaction with the school support team is low.

Conversely, parental support is highly valued, with almost the entirety of the cohort responding positively to sufficient collaboration and communication with parents. As for parental support and engagement, and the majority of the students affirm this is taking place on a regular, consistent basis, contrasted with Ramón Ramos (2023) who did not find students to perceive parental coordination. Similarly, Casas Pedrosa and Rascón Moreno (2023) found that students slightly agreed with this statement.

Overall, the CLIL program is held in high regard, generally, across the board by these students in line with several of the other studies previously mentioned. In line with sentiments expressed by the students in findings from Nikula et al. (2023) and to somewhat a degree Ting (2023), the students in our program believe they are given more prestige given their participation in CLIL classrooms and are not overly critical of the program since they believe it is helping them. However, they are the cohort with the most skepticism and do not have as much confidence when it comes to several aspects, mainly, the inclusive methodology and assessment.

6.3. Teachers

The next section is dedicated to a complete detailing and examination of the teacher cohort. Although the least numerous of the three stakeholders with just six participants, considerable time was spent with these subjects and plethora insights were gleaned. For these stakeholders, the multifaceted data collection process includes questionnaires, interviews and classroom observations, all of which encompassed important facets to the CLIL curriculum, including linguistics aspects, methodology and groupings, materials and resources, evaluation and assessment, and teacher collaboration and training. First, the teachers were asked to fill out, individually, a questionnaire and subsequently, an individual interview was conducted with each teacher. Finally, the researcher observed two standard CLIL classes (duration of 60 minutes each) in the subjects of Biology and Business. The results from the questionnaire will be examined first, and a statistical analysis of the responses by variables will be given for this data set, followed by a thorough dissection of the individual interviews and classroom observations, examined in the same order as the student cohort, following the thematic blocks. It will finish with a summary of

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING:
CHAPTER 6. QUALITATIVE RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

the themes from all three data collection points to see where harmony was found between theoretical and practical notions and how findings coincide or digress from previous findings.

Given the relatively small number of teachers sampled, each interviewee has been identified with a number and biographical information is displayed (cf. Table 34).

Teacher	Age (years)	Subject Area / coordinator	Foreign/Spanish	Years of teaching experience overall (in a bilingual school)	Permanent contract
1	50-55	Social Science / Non-coordinator	Native English speaker	7 (5)	Yes
2	35-40	Science / Non-coordinator	Spanish (C1 English certificate)	9 (9)	Yes
3	35-40	Humanities / Coordinator	Spanish (B2 English certificate)	10 (10)	Yes
4	30-35	Humanities / Non-coordinator	Spanish (C2 English certificate)	2 (2)	Yes
5	40-45	Technology / Non-coordinator	Native English speaker	1 (1)	No
6	30-35	Technology / Non-coordinator	Native English speaker	2 (2)	No

Table 34: Teacher cohort (modulating variables)

6.3.1. Questionnaires

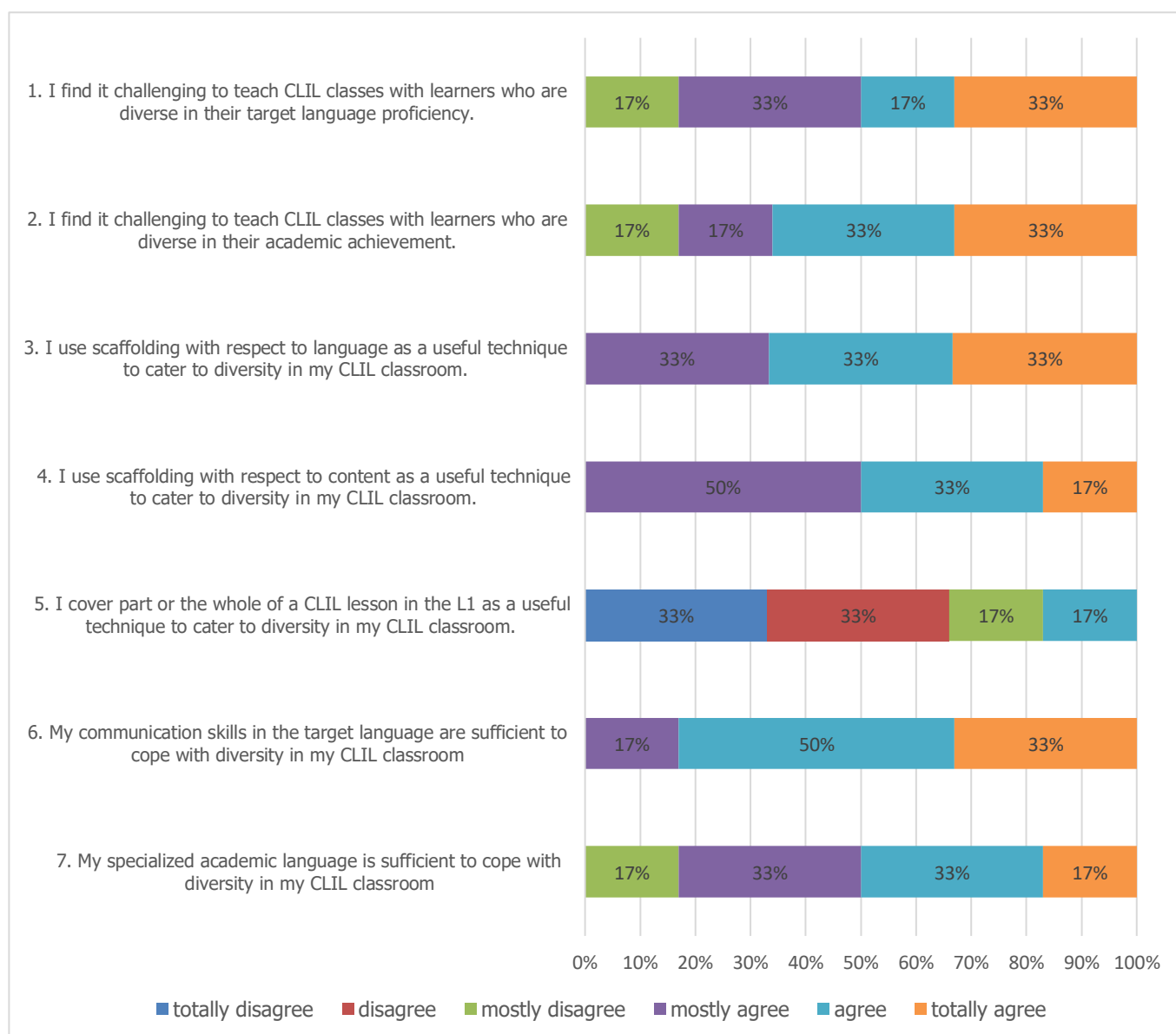
Regarding the questionnaire, it begins with a title page which includes 13 questions, encompassing personal details such as age, administration situation, coordinator status, English language competence, and various questions about the specific classes taught, such as subjects, grade level, and percentage of the class taught in the FL, and ends with two questions pertaining to teaching experience. The teacher questionnaire follows the same format as the student questionnaire and is similarly based on the Likert scale, which equates to (from one to six) in *complete disagreement with*, *in disagreement*, *partial disagreement*, *partial agreement*, *in*

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING:
CHAPTER 6. QUALITATIVE RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

agreement and *in complete agreement with*. Detailed below are the statements found on the questionnaires, separated by thematic block. For the teacher questionnaire in its original version, see Appendix III.

Per the response from this cohort, overall, **linguistically**, all the teachers agree that these classes are more laborious (cf. Graph 55). It is challenging for them to teach CLIL classes with diverse learners both academically (item 1) and linguistically (item 2). All the teachers affirm they are using scaffolding when it comes to both language (item 3) and content (item 4). Regarding L1 use, only one teacher totally agrees to covering part or the whole lesson in Spanish (item 5) as a way to cater to diversity, whilst the majority do not use Spanish in their CLIL lessons or only a minimum amount is used. All of the teachers respond positively to having sufficient levels of BICS in the target language to cope with diversity (item 6) and only one teacher believes they have insufficient knowledge of academic language to deal with diversity (item 7). For item 7, the three native teachers account for the percentage of teachers who agree their CALP is adequate, whilst the teachers who mostly agreed (33%) and mostly disagree (17%) account for the non-native English teachers. It should be noted that two items from the original questionnaire are not included in this analysis since they deal with perceptions related to CLIL and non-CLIL students which is not applicable to for this particular set of teachers.

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING: CHAPTER 6. QUALITATIVE RESULTS AND DISCUSSION



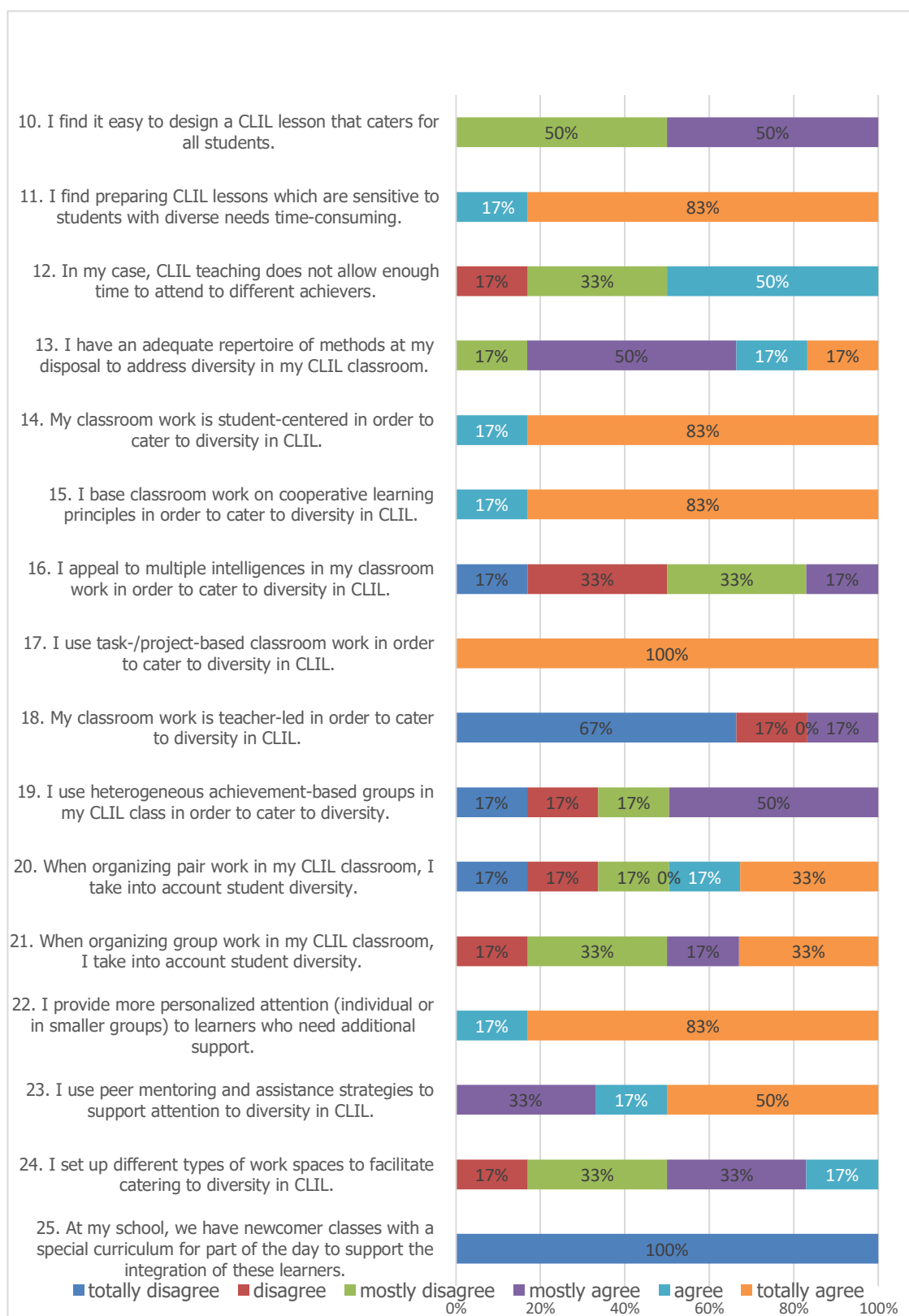
Graph 55: Linguistic aspects (teachers' questionnaires responses)

As for **methodology and groupings**, the teachers are divided when probed about this facet (cf. Graph 56), such as the easiness of planning a lesson that caters to diversity (item 10). The entirety of the cohort believe planning CLIL classes is time-consuming (item 11). Similarly, half of the teachers affirm that CLIL classes are not long enough to allow time to attend to diversity (item 12). Almost the entirety of the cohort believes they have an adequate repertoire of strategies to use with diverse students (item 13), with a majority self-reporting an elevated use of student-centered methodologies (item 14). Similarly, all six teachers confirm they are using cooperative learning (item 15), as well as task- and project-based work (item 17). However, only one teacher responds positively to using multiple intelligences (item 16), while the rest deny ever using it in their lessons. The majority of the cohort does not use teacher-led learning (item 18), save one teacher who affirms its use as a measure to cater to diversity. There is a degree of

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING:
CHAPTER 6. QUALITATIVE RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

uncertainty about taking student diversity into account when organizing group-/pair-work and mixed-ability groupings (items 19, 20 and 21). The entirety of the cohort affirms they are giving personalized attention to learners who need more support (item 22), as well as using peer mentoring and assistance strategies in class (item 23), notably experienced students in the class acting as translators for newcomer students who are struggling with the English language. Half of the cohort are utilizing varied work spaces to cater to diversity (item 24). In line with the other cohorts, the teachers do not report the presence of newcomer classes at the school (item 25).

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING: CHAPTER 6. QUALITATIVE RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

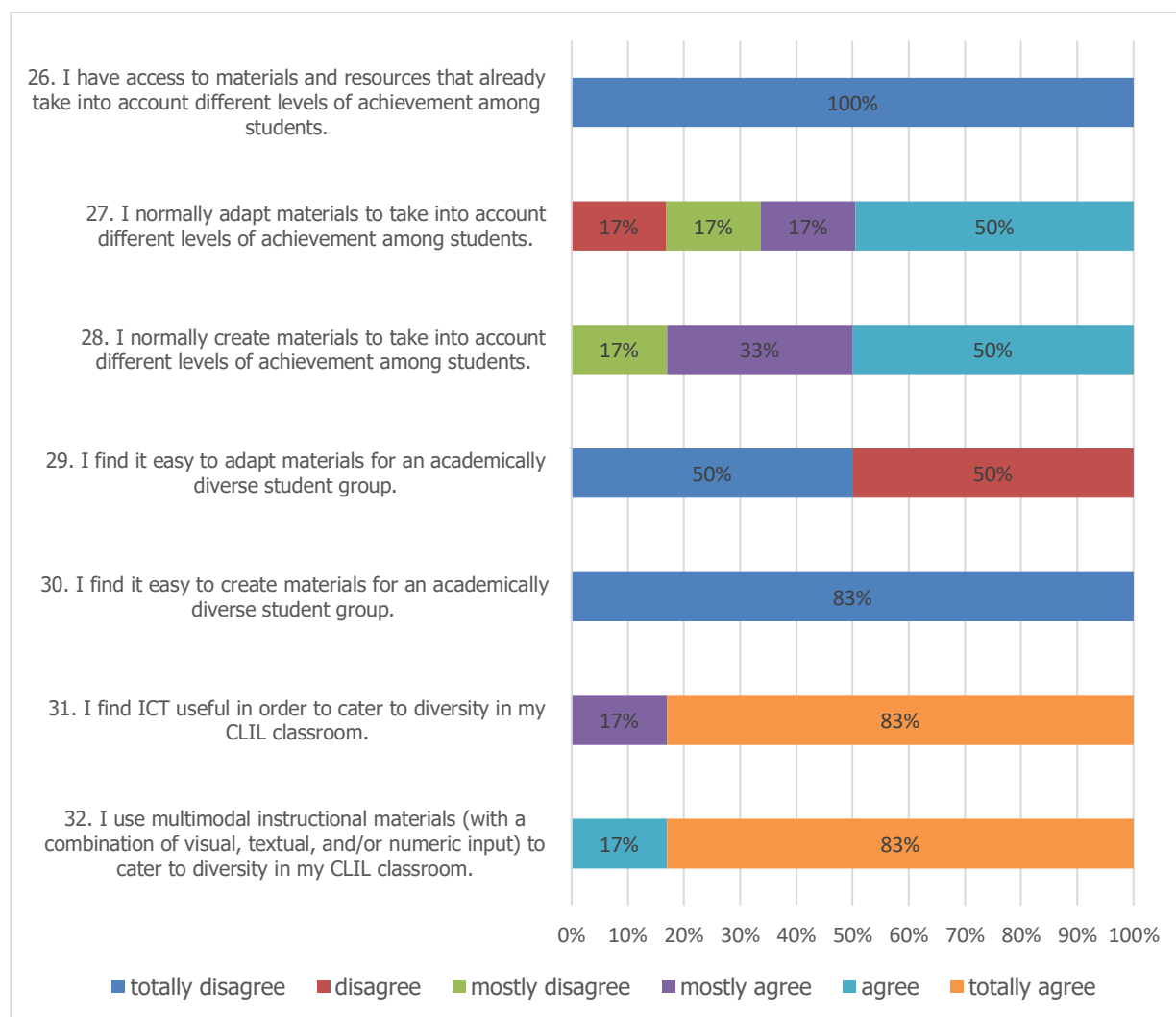


Graph 55: Methodology and groupings (teachers' questionnaires responses)

A rather concerning area, **materials and resources**, are heavily impugned on the questionnaires and throughout the interviews (cf. Graph 57). None of the teachers have access to materials and resources that take diversity and levels of achievement into account (item 26)

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING: CHAPTER 6. QUALITATIVE RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

and most of the teachers are adapting and creating the materials themselves (items 27 and 28). In turn, this very process is found to be putting added pressure on the teachers, as per the responses, the entirety of the cohort affirms that material creation (item 29) and material adaption (item 30) for catering to diversity are not easy. Technology also plays a big role in these CLIL classrooms: all of the teachers believe that ICT is useful for catering to diversity (item 31). And, finally, the entirety of the cohort agrees to using multi-modal instructional materials to cater to diversity (item 32).



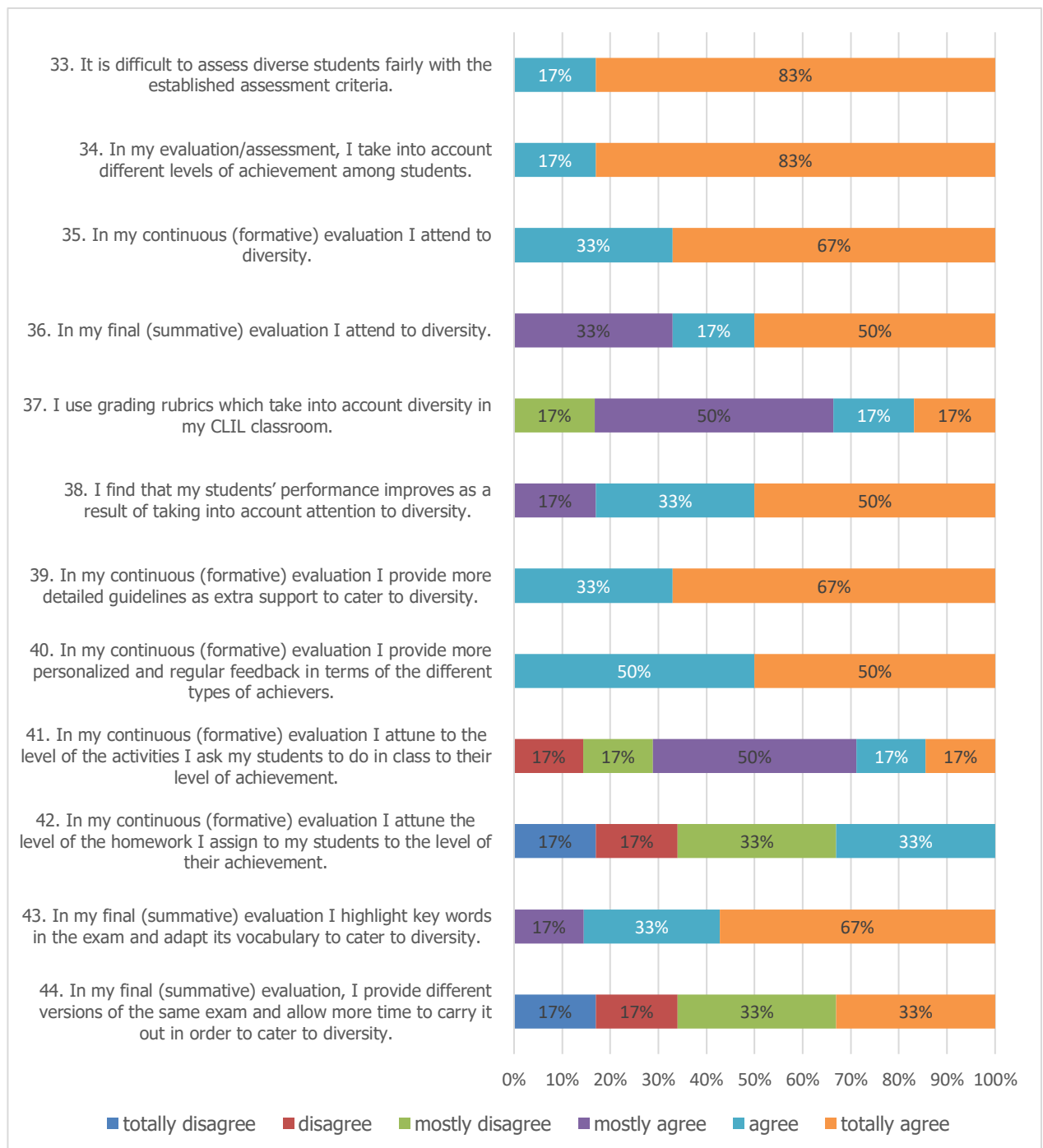
Graph 56: Materials and resources (teachers' questionnaires responses)

When it comes to **evaluation and assessment**, the teachers display high levels of confidence (cf. Graph 58). All of the teachers agree it is difficult to assess students fairly with the established assessment criteria (item 33), and all affirm they are taking levels of achievement into account in their evaluation and assessment (item 34). The entirety of the cohort confirms they are attending to diversity in the continuous assessment (item 35) as well as in the formative assessment (item 36). Almost the whole cohort is using grading rubrics which take diversity into account (item 37) and all of the teachers confirm that taking diversity into account improves

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING:
CHAPTER 6. QUALITATIVE RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

students' performance (item 38). Likewise, the cohort is providing more detailed guidelines and more personalized, regular feedback in the formative evaluation (items 39 and 40), whereas only a slight majority are adapting activities based on achievement level in the formative evaluation (item 41). However, per the responses, there is very little confirmation that differentiating homework based on achievement level is taking place (item 42). For the exams, highlighting key words and adapting vocabulary as a way to cater to diversity is reported to be happening (item 43), although only a minority of the teachers affirm they are creating different versions of exams and allowing for more time for exam execution (item 44).

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING: CHAPTER 6. QUALITATIVE RESULTS AND DISCUSSION



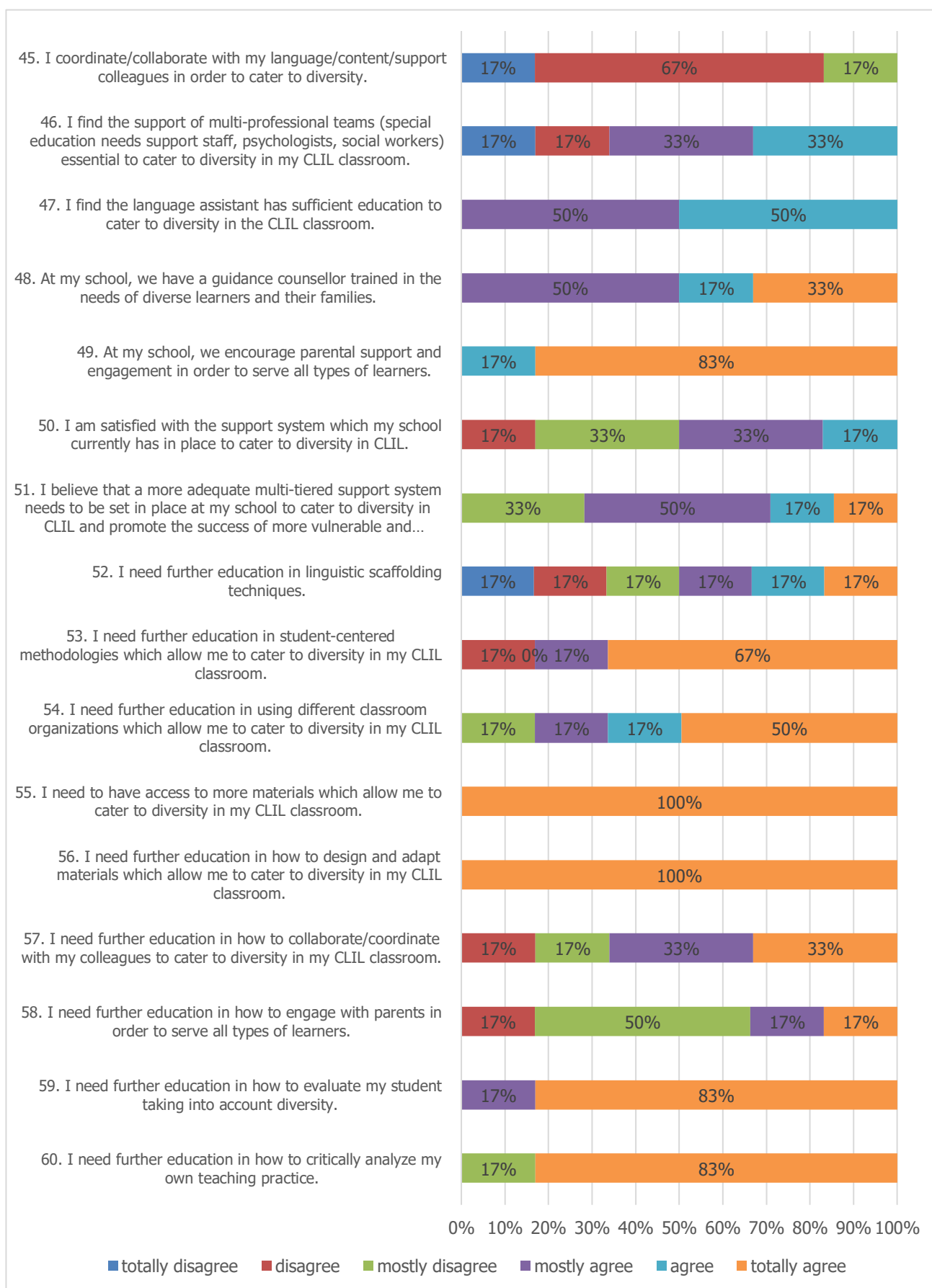
Graph 57: Evaluation and assessment (teachers' questionnaires responses)

Quite contrary to the previous theme of assessment, **teacher collaboration and support and training** is a notably problematic area as highlighted by the cohort (cf. Graph 59). None of the teachers are coordinating or collaborating with their colleagues (item 45) and, despite the lack of such at the school, the majority of teachers believe the support of a multi-professional team is necessary to cater to diversity (item 46). On a positive note, the cohort believes the language assistants have sufficient knowledge to cater to diversity in the classroom (item 47) and affirm that the guidance counselor at the school is trained in the needs of diverse students (item 48). The entirety of the cohort encourages parental support and engagement (item 49); however

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING:
CHAPTER 6. QUALITATIVE RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

only half of the cohort is satisfied with the support system at the school (item 50). The majority believes that a more adequate multi-tiered support system is needed (item 51) in order to properly cater to diversity. When it comes to teacher training needs, the cohort is divided: the three native teachers disagreed in various degrees whilst the three non-native teachers agreed in varying degrees (item 52). When it comes to teaching practices, the majority of the cohort confirms they need more education in student-centered methodologies (item 53) and in classroom organization strategies (item 54). Likewise, the teachers corroborate their need to access more materials and resources (item 55) and to be provided with further education in designing and adapting resources (item 56). However, only a slight majority of the teachers desire more education in collaboration and coordination with colleagues (item 57). Parental support is confirmed by the teachers to be highly satisfactory at the school: only one teacher believes they need more education in parental support and engagement (item 58). When it comes to assessment for diversity, the cohort pleads for more education (item 59) and confirms the need for training in regard to critical analysis of teaching practices (item 60).

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING: CHAPTER 6. QUALITATIVE RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

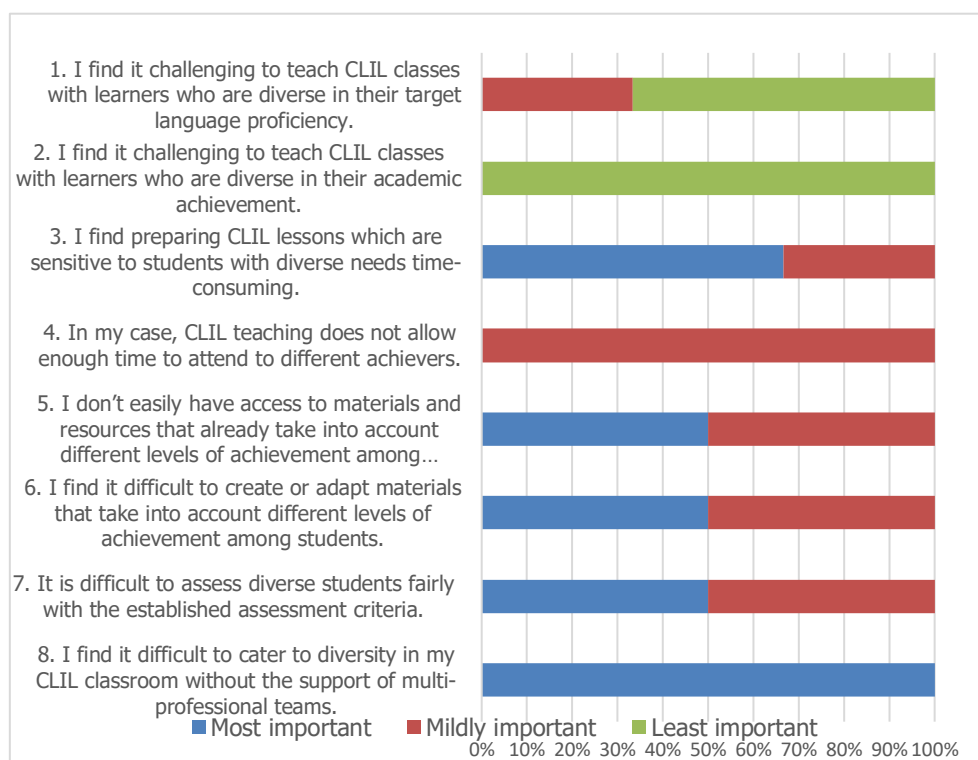


Graph 58: Teacher collaboration and development (teachers' questionnaires responses)

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING: CHAPTER 6. QUALITATIVE RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

At the end of the teacher questionnaires there is a phrase bank with eight statements in three categories (difficulties, best practices and teacher development). The participants are instructed to rank the three most important aspects from 1 to 3 (from most to least important). Below are how each category and their corresponding eight items were considered in varying degrees of importance by the teachers.

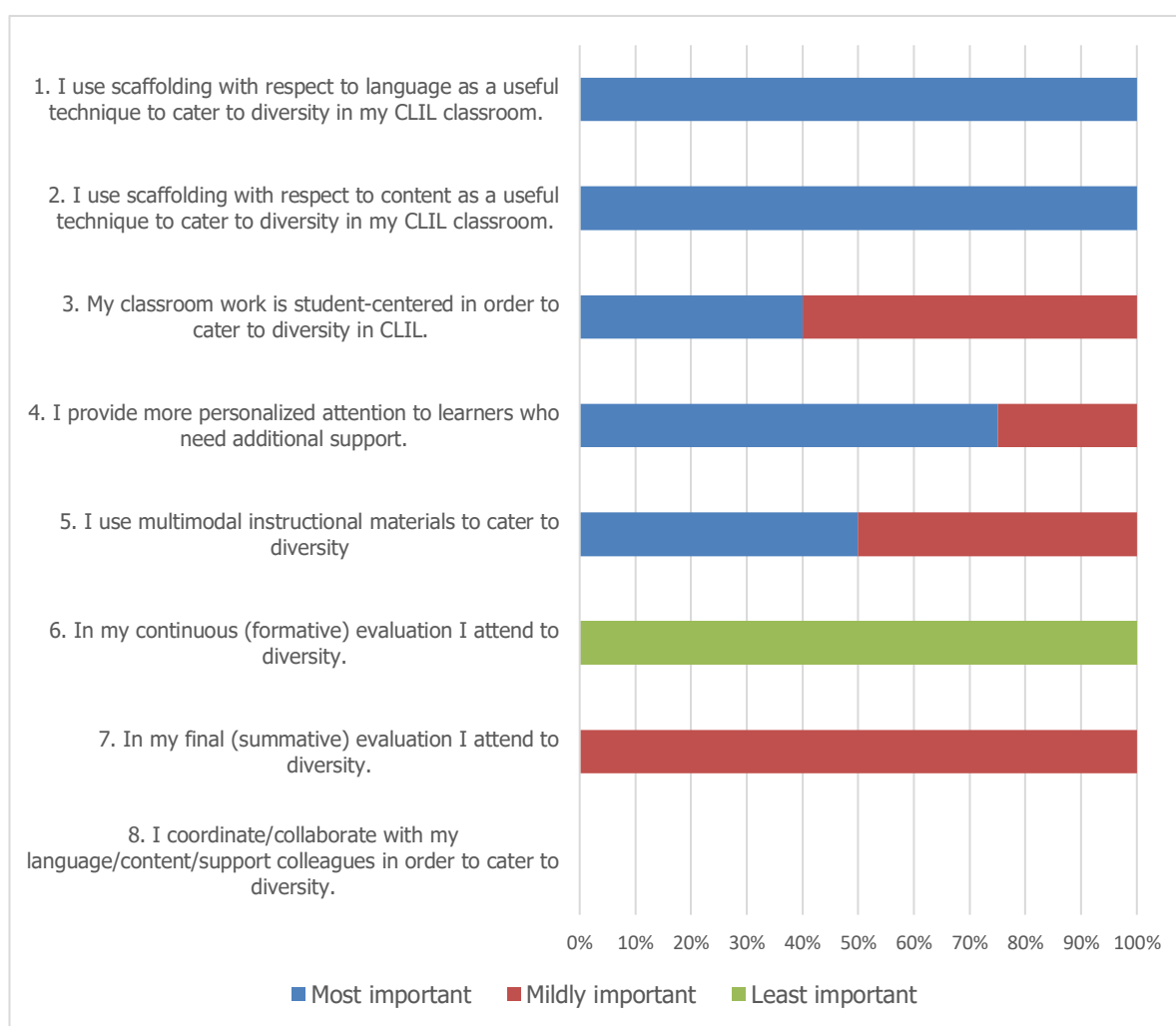
The first category, difficulties, reveals that when it comes to obstacles for these teachers, first and foremost is the time-consuming nature of these classes when it comes to proper preparation (item 3): two teachers listed this as the most important, one teacher listed it of mild importance and no teachers listed it as having the least importance (cf. Graph 60). Also of concern to the teachers is their access to materials (item 5), marked of great importance to one teacher and of mild importance to another. The fact that CLIL classes are not long enough to properly attend to diversity (item 4) is also mention-worthy, as one teacher highlighted this as being of mild concern. Likewise, the difficulty of material creation and adaption (item 6) is listed as greatly important and mildly important to two teachers, respectively. Finally, fair assessment of students related to diverse needs (item 7) was of great importance and mild importance to two teachers, respectively, and the lack of support of a multi-professional team (item 8) was reported as the chief difficulty according to one teacher. The least important aspects by far were the diverse conditions of the class, specifically, the challenge faced by teachers in dealing with students with diverse FL proficiency (item 1) (two teachers marked this of the least importance) and in academic achievement (item 2), given that four teachers listed this as the least important challenge they faced.



Graph 59: Difficulties by importance (teacher questionnaire)

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING: CHAPTER 6. QUALITATIVE RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The teachers' best practices were, for the most part, in line with the responses from the questionnaires (cf. Graph 61). Scaffolding, both content and linguistically, was regarded by two teachers as being the most important (items 1 and 2) and, similarly, student-led methodology (item 3) was considered the most important by two teachers and mildly important by three. Personalized attention (item 4) was widely regarded as being the most important practice, as heralded by three teachers and by one as being mildly important. The use of multimodal materials (item 5) was also seen to be very important and mildly important by two teachers, respectively. Attending to diversity in the evaluations, both summative and formative (items 6 and 7), did not seem to warrant such confidence and none of the teachers listed coordination or collaboration with colleagues as having any significant in their best practices (item 8).

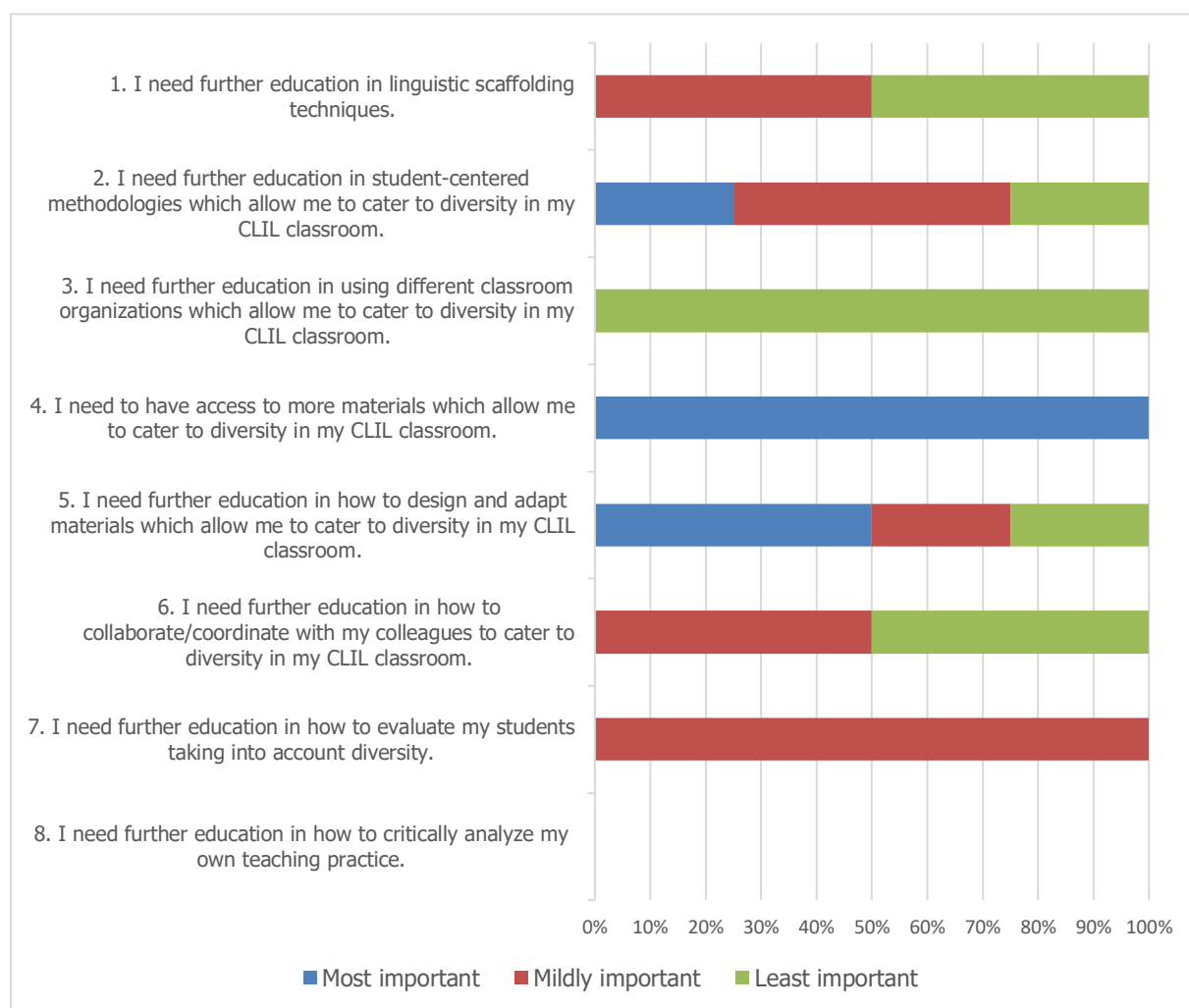


Graph 60: Best practices by importance (teacher questionnaire)

Teacher training needs are curious in that the teachers desire training in the exact areas they affirm they are undertaking, allowing us to conclude that teachers desire more additional guidance in the areas that they are using but are unfamiliar with or are eager for more knowledge about (cf. Graph 62). This accords directly with the findings of Pérez Cañado (2023). As for scaffolding related to linguistic techniques (item 1), one teacher confirms this to be mildly

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING: CHAPTER 6. QUALITATIVE RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

important, whilst another saw it of the least importance. Teachers respond confidently to using student-centered methodologies in the questionnaires and yet one teacher says this is the most important area in need of further training (item 2) and two others say it is of mild importance. The teachers do not believe they need training in classroom organizations (item 3), and two teachers list this as the least important item. In line with the responses regarding materials, three teachers name having access to more materials (item 4) as the most important training need, whereas two teachers label more education in material design and adaptation (item 5) as the most important, one lists it as mildly important and another as the least important. The teachers do not desire much more education in collaboration and coordination (item 6): one teacher marks this as mildly important and one teacher marks it as the least important. Finally, evaluation is not deemed to be high on their teacher training needs (item 7) and none of the teachers desire education related to critical analysis of their teaching (item 8).



Graph 61: Teacher development needs by importance (teacher questionnaire)

6.3.2. Statistical differences by variable

Regarding the intervening variables that cause a greater number of statistically significant differences within the cohort, two come to the forefront: gender and years of teaching experience (cf. Table 35). The other variables did not show any statistically significant differences. For this relatively small number of subjects, the Mann-Whitney U test was used to analyze the responses.

Turning to the first variable, gender, two items in the first block, linguistic aspects, item 6 (use of scaffolding with respect to content to cater to diversity) and item 9 (specialized academic knowledge) were found to be statistically significant pertaining to differences related to the teachers' sex. For both items, the male teachers exude more confidence in themselves than their female counterparts: they believe they are scaffolding content to a higher degree (item 6) and are more positive in their view of their CALP than their female counterparts (item 9).

Item	Gender	N	Mean	SD	Rosenthal's R	p-value
6	Male	3	5.33	0.58	-0.866	0.034
	Female	3	4.00	0.00		
9	Male	3	5.33	0.58	-0.826	0.043
	Female	3	3.67	0.58		

Table 35: Statistically significant differences within the teacher cohort for linguistic aspects in terms of gender

Gender, as an intervening variable, was also responsible for statistically significant differences in teachers' perceptions regarding the fifth block, collaboration and training (cf. Table 36), for two items: item 50 (satisfaction with the support system currently in place at the school) and item 52 (desire for more education in linguistic scaffolding techniques). Regarding item 50, the male teachers are more satisfied with the support system in place at the school, whilst the female teachers report more need for linguistic scaffolding education (item 52).

Item	Gender	N	Mean	SD	Rosenthal's R	p-value
50	Male	3	4.33	0.58	-0.826	0.043
	Female	3	2.67	0.58		
52	Male	3	2.00	1.00	0.802	0.050
	Female	3	5.00	1.00		

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING: CHAPTER 6. QUALITATIVE RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Table 36: Statistically significant differences within the teacher cohort for collaboration and training in terms of gender

Regarding the second intervening variable responsible for statistically significant differences in the teachers' perceptions, years of teaching experience was also found to be at work cf. (Table 37). For the second block, methodology and groupings, one item, item 12 (CLIL teaching does not allow enough time to cater to diversity) was found to be affected by how many years the teachers had spent in the school: those with only one to five years' teaching experience were in more agreement with this sentiment compared to their more experienced counterparts (those with six to 10 years teaching experience).

Item	Years of teaching experience	N	Mean	SD	Rosenthal's R	p-value
12	1-5	3	5.00	0.00	-0.866	0.034
	6-10	3	2.67	0.58		

Table 35: Statistically significant differences within the teacher cohort for methodology and groupings in terms of years' teaching experience

For the fifth block, collaboration and training, two items were found to be statistically different in terms of the teachers' years of teaching experience: item 47 (language assistant's education) and item 48 (presence of a guidance counselor at the school) (cf. Table 38). For item 47, the teachers with less experience (one to five years) regarded the language assistants' preparation more positively. Alternatively, for item 48, the teachers with more experience (six to 10 years) viewed more positively the presence of a guidance counselor.

Item	Years of teaching experience	N	Mean	SD	Rosenthal's R	p-value
47	1-5	3	5.00	0.00	-0.913	0.025
	6-10	3	4.00	0.00		
48	1-5	3	4.00	0.00	0.913	0.025
	6-10	3	5.00	0.00		

Table 36: Statistically significant differences for teacher cohort in collaboration and training in terms of years' teaching experience

6.3.3. Teacher interviews

Upon the completion of the questionnaires, one-on-one interviews were undertaken with each of the six subjects, and, following the completion of the six interviews, two classroom

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING:
CHAPTER 6. QUALITATIVE RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

observations took place in the subjects of Biology and Business. For a complete account of the interviews, see Appendix V, where the transcripts can be found in their entirety. The statements from the questionnaire served as the starting point for the interviews, chunked into their larger thematic blocks as detailed below.

Concerning the first block, **linguistic aspects (BICS & CALP)**, the following open-ended questions were used as prompts:

- Do you find it challenging to teach CLIL classes with learners who are diverse in their target language proficiency or/and academic achievement?
- Do you find it just as challenging to teach CLIL and non-CLIL learners who are diverse in their target language proficiency or/and academic achievement?
- Do you use scaffolding with respect to language or/and content as a useful technique to cater to diversity in the CLIL classroom?
- Do you repeat parts of the whole of a CLIL lesson in the L1 as a useful technique to cater to diversity in the CLIL classroom?
- Do you think that your communication skills in the target language (BICS) and specialized academic language (CALP) are sufficient to cope with diversity in the CLIL classroom?

The teachers' responses from the face-to-face interviews were generally in line with their responses from the questionnaires, except more detailed explanations regarding the use of the L1 and confidence in the L2 were had.

The L2 was identified as being the most challenging by two teachers, regarding new students or foreign students who hold neither English or Spanish as their L1.

"The most important difficulty is catering to the basic levels of English [since] it is almost zero for some [students who] are put into classes with other students who have very high levels of English."

One teacher acknowledged using code-switching by providing the students with content-specific definitions:

"I think it is important for them [the students] to understanding the concepts in both languages, since they might need to know them in English for the future and for Spanish, I think it's important for them to control the concepts in both languages, at the end [of the lesson] I translate a few of the major ideas, on the board, since some words are so technical, some of the words are very different in Spanish and English, and of course Chinese."

Touching upon the use of the L1, two of the teachers acknowledged having low Spanish language competence levels; therefore, they were unable to use it. The three Spanish nationals said they did not use Spanish to any substantial degree, or hardly ever, in their CLIL classes, although one teacher said they used Spanish for newcomer students or students who had lower L2 competence levels:

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING:
CHAPTER 6. QUALITATIVE RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

"I'm not used to speaking Spanish in the class."

"I don't know Spanish."

"When I see a kid is lost, the blank eyes, I have to go in and speak Spanish."

One teacher acknowledged the high percentage of Asian students present in the school, and having to cater specifically to their linguistic needs:

"Some students speak very well [and] can give us their opinion using a wide range of vocabulary, but other students who do not speak English very well I have to provide basic Science vocabulary, since in most cases they have very poor communication skills, so I have tried to organize a game in which we can translate Chinese words into Science words, where they can express simple Science concepts into English."

Two of the non-native English teachers agreed that their BICS and CALP language skills were sufficient to cope to diversity; however, they did put time into preparing:

"Actually, before my classes, I usually prepare and organize all the contents beforehand and vocabulary, since it's important to control since every day there are new discoveries [and even though] many words [in the subject area] are similar in Spanish and English but it's important to be prepared."

One teacher highlighted how their confidence increased when they went from a B2 to C1 in English, and that it really made difference:

"I remember when I had only a B2, some years ago, and at first I was frustrated about having to get a C1 certificate but in the end, it was the best thing, because now I feel much more confident, much more secure in my language and English."

Regarding the second block, **methodology and types of groupings**, the following open-ended question was given:

- If CLIL teaching allows enough time to attend to different achievers, which methodologies, types of groupings and activities do you employ? Would you say they are traditional or innovative / teacher-fronted or student-centered / deploy higher-rank or lower-order cognitive processes?

The question was supplemented with examples of methodologies, groupings and activities: student/teacher-centered methodologies, cooperative learning principles, multiple intelligences theory, task-based language teaching, project-based learning, lockstep lecturing, pair/group work, personalized attention (individual or in smaller groups) / push-ins / pull-outs, peer mentoring strategies, newcomer classes, activities which involve memorizing, understanding and applying vs. those which entail analyzing, evaluating and creating.

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING:
CHAPTER 6. QUALITATIVE RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The interviews and direct observations revealed more insight to the data gleaned from the questionnaires vis-à-vis daily methodological strategies and intuitive teaching. One teacher mentioned the use of peer support by getting the overachievers to guide the underachievers:

"Generally, what I do, I have, for the better learners, they have visual activities or will assist me in class, I talk with them, we talk about responsibilities, goals, they like that set of responsibilities and then they can help the weaker students."

"I usually pair a weaker student with a stronger student, English-level wise."

Personalized attention seems to be the teachers' main line of action when it comes to catering to diversity, as voiced by almost all of the teachers:

"I am always with them [in class], but I am trying to help them out in case they have some doubts, sometimes they have to discover, or realize a mistake, or analyze by themselves so they are learning for themselves, when I see someone is lost, I give them personalized attention and extra help."

"I try to help some students with homework a little more, and control them a little more and [look over] their activities and answers."

"Some students are shy and do not want to say something improperly so I go to them individually and talk to them, and then when they are much more confident I try to include them into the group so they can participate and are more interested."

One teacher in this study noted that their classroom instruction was a blend of both student- and teacher-centered, and focused primarily on demonstrations:

"The students have to learn by watching, they can watch me do an activity but then they have to continue on their own and that way they can learn to use the tools and techniques by themselves."

Some of the teachers noted the importance of student-led learning for motivation purposes:

"I find my classes to be very motivating and dynamic and practical and most all the students in my class want to show what they have learned. My classes are very student-based, [the students] enjoy all the activities because communication is not always as important as just putting into practice [using the resources/realia in the class]."

"[The students] learn much more when they learn by themselves via projects."

Another teacher mentioned in the interviews, and later was observed in a class, and was seen to be using tiered activities and making ample use of differentiation in the classroom. However, the teacher did note that while they would like to do these activities more often, the

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING:
CHAPTER 6. QUALITATIVE RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

teacher-student ratio did not always allow for this to happen, since the activities usually needed to be supervised by a teacher:

"In my case, I have extra activities for those who can see and do the activities very well... the activities are not just for those who do not understand, they are also for the stronger ones [the overachievers] to be extension activities, it is not just focusing on the students who are students that are falling behind but also to allow the kids who understand everything to continue learning and not be bored. It would be nice to have a supplemental teacher in the classroom either to help those who need more help or to continue with extension activities with those students who can and should continue learning."

When it came to seating the students, the teachers tended to be less strict. Some of the teachers responded negatively to these statements on the questionnaires and later expressed in the interviews that they allow students to choose partners for pair- and group-work at their discretion:

"I let the kids freely choose their seats and their groups. The students are honest, and when their partner is not helping they speak up, or they say my partner is explaining it to me, or I am going to try to do it by myself, all the class is controlling their pace of learning."

"The students sit where they want. I don't really talk to them for that long, I usually project my screen or show them a video and then let them work in pairs or individually, they seem to help each other more than I can."

A teacher noted a specific strategy that they used especially for newcomer students, touching upon the importance of creating a comfortable, relaxed environment in the classroom:

"Just breaking the ice, [the weaker students] are uncomfortable, [they're] afraid to talk, [they're] afraid to do anything, especially if you're in a new place, that can take half a year, I engage with them in discussions, but it's not the questions that will put them on the spot, no hard questions, just getting them comfortable and getting them to participate, I don't really have a system or a method but I just make sure that they are incorporated because if not, it's easy for them to disappear into the back."

Finally, the length of the CLIL classes was a topic that was discussed by the teachers in the interviews, given the disparity between responses from the questionnaires. At this school, there are two types of classes: morning and afternoon, the former of which have a duration of one hour and the latter having only 45-minutes. The teachers all agree that the 45-minute periods were too short and did not allow enough time to attend to the diverse learners or teach a CLIL lesson properly. Conversely, all the teachers did feel that the hour-long sessions were adequate when it came to length.

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING: CHAPTER 6. QUALITATIVE RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

For the third block, **materials and resources**, one open-ended question was given:

- Which materials and resources, if any, do you use in order to cater to diversity in the CLIL classroom?

The question was supplemented with examples of materials: authentic materials, adapted materials, originally designed materials, textbooks, ICT (please, specify), multimodal instructional materials, instructional materials which promote the development of pluriliteracies).

One teacher was quick to remark that the materials they create tend to be on the simple side due to a lack of ICT skills and they generally have trouble doing so:

"I don't have the computer skills to make my own materials."

There was a myriad of comments from teachers when it came to materials and criticism of such. All teachers desired more training on materials and resource creation and support in doing so. Likewise, all of the teachers said they create their own materials:

"It takes a lot of time."

"I do not [use materials] to attend to diversity I use the same materials for anyone because I don't have time."

"I wish I had more time to create more interesting, more motivating materials."

"All of my worksheets look the same."

"My materials are always in black-and-white."

A teacher noted using "*news articles, media, and the textbook*" in their original form but most of the time,

"I use my own ideas and give [the students] a summary that I created."

While the teachers are "*sometimes*" using the physical textbook, comments were made that, while the textbook was used as a supplemental resource, the students' devices were fundamental for these classes. The teachers were adamant that they "*always*" or "*daily*" use the online platform (the school's intranet) to lead the classes. In the direct observations, the two classes observed assigned the same homework assignments to all students.

Regarding the fourth bloc, **evaluation and assessment**, open-ended questions were used to probe teachers' opinions on assessment techniques:

- How do you carry out evaluation/assessment to take into account different levels of achievement among your students?

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING: CHAPTER 6. QUALITATIVE RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

- Is it formative or/and summative?
- Which instruments and criteria do you use?
- Do you find that your students' performance improves as a result of taking into account attention to diversity?

For these questions, examples were shown to the respondents' to help guide their response: grading rubrics, detailed guidelines as extra support (formative evaluation), more personalized and regular feedback (formative evaluation), in-class activities attuned to level (formative evaluation), homework attuned to level (formative evaluation), key words highlighted and vocabulary adapted in the exam (summative evaluation), different versions of the same exam and more time to carry it out (summative evaluation).

As for exam adaptation, one teacher noted that "*legally*" they were only supposed to adapt exams for students with "*diagnosed significant academic problems*", of which this teacher said they "*had never had*" students that presented these in the classroom. Other teachers mentioned:

"I never attune to levels on exams."

"Sometimes I highlight key words."

"I give more time to carry [exams] out."

"Using personalized feedback."

"Subjective evaluating. I am slightly subjective when it comes to grading throughout the year."

One teacher in specific mentioned raising or lowering expectations for students based on linguistic and content competence:

"There are some kids who are able to provide much more opinions, and can provide much more details because they have more skills, but it's important to appreciate the other students who cannot participate as much [since] they don't have as much level."

Grading rubrics are provided to students to show "*percentages, knowledge, understanding, inquiring and the impact*" of the subject on different criteria for the class grade and for the students to see that all assignments "*are important for the evaluation.*"

One teacher mentioned that their subject hardly ever featured summative assessment. They explained that they calculate grades based on effort, not results:

"We don't have exams, it is formative, I give [the students] the guidelines, it's like a rubric but it's not that developed, it's just telling them I'm going to grade this this and that and depending on their achievement their given a grade ... I try to grade more the effort than the result."

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING:
CHAPTER 6. QUALITATIVE RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

For the fifth block, **teacher collaboration and development**, various open-ended questions were used to prompt the respondents:

- Do you coordinate/collaborate with your language/content/support colleagues to cater to diversity in a bilingual program?
- Is the support of multi-professional teams (special education needs support staff, psychologists, social workers) essential to teach a CLIL class with different types of achievers?
- Are you satisfied with the parental support and engagement you offer?
- In which aspects do you consider both you and the different types of teachers involved in the CLIL program require more training to address diversity in the CLIL classroom? Are there differences in terms of teacher cohorts?

Several examples were given to teachers to supplement the questions: linguistic scaffolding techniques, student-centered methodologies, different classroom organizations, have access to more materials, design and adaptation of materials, collaboration/coordination with your colleagues, evaluation of your students, critical analysis of your own teaching practice.

The responses from the interviews gleaned less than optimistic views regarding this facet of the CLIL program. The teachers were mainly negative when speaking about coordination, revealing a strong sense of individuality in the teaching done at this school, a closed-door type policy, and very little professional interaction between coworkers.

"For me, it's healthy to collaborate with others but I feel like there is a lack of cooperation here in the school, we probably need someone to help us with coordination."

"I've never cross-communicated on anything."

"I'm not aware of a real strong integration type plan. I haven't really heard of anything. I think we have some sort type of English support."

"More coordination, more importance given to [other] subjects and not just English, which seems to be the only focus [at this school]."

Commentary from two teachers revealed that their respective subjects, Science and History, had previously shared a unit, in which the two subject teachers collaborated and cross-coordinated. Albeit positively reflected upon, it had only been done once. Both of the teachers lamented not being able to do it more often, although one of the teachers emphasized that while it was a positive experience, it was notably "*a lot of work*" and was not done more often for this very reason:

"When we did this, the kids were really interested. We too, the teachers, had more motivation to work and prepare interesting activities."

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING:
CHAPTER 6. QUALITATIVE RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

"I think we should do these types of things more often, but the teachers don't make time to sit down with each other to plan them out because we have so much other stuff going on. It's a pity."

Support from a multi-professional team is nonexistent, although the teachers verbally communicated the grave importance of having a support team for these types of classes:

"Without a doubt, there are specialized needs and even if you understand some of those needs, you need help to actually know what to do."

"For knowing [sic] how to approach any issue."

"Undeniably, that's [the support of multi-professional teams] like the most important part."

At the time, the majority of the teachers were not satisfied with the school's support system as a way to cater to diversity and two teachers denied the school having any system in place. When asked about the support system, one teacher promptly responded, *"there is none"*, a sentiment that was, to a lesser degree, resounded on in the other interviews as well:

"It has to be improved for sure."

"I think it would really help if the school psychologist, which I think this school has, was a bit more communicative about students and their needs and like what I need to be doing to help them."

"There's no team so it would be helpful to have some system."

On the other side of the spectrum, parental support is not only offered, but would seem to be another fundamental pillar of the CLIL program. All of the teachers were satisfied with the parental support they are giving and, although they are a bit critical of the extra work this imposes on them, they are happy with the parent-teacher relations. Parental support was highlighted by one teacher who mentioned feeling motivated by having parents voice their approval and satisfaction:

"At the end of the year, when some parents have sent me an email to say thank you for showing [my child] a new way to learn [the subject] it's nice to have that support from the parents."

For the last prompt regarding training, numerous commentaries were had, leading to the conclusion that this cohort requires and is in want of professional development in several areas. Teacher training regarding diversity measures in the classroom is encouraged and desired by all teachers:

"It would be helpful to have some training to address diversity, mostly about techniques for I don't know, scaffolding the diversity in class, like how to create materials, how to organize groups."

"Any kind of training to address it [diversity] would be necessary."

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING: CHAPTER 6. QUALITATIVE RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Some of the teachers express their concern over lack of knowledge of diversity as a topic in general, and correspondingly, emphasize a need of more training in this field:

"I think I'm not addressing [diversity] properly."

"I think I don't really understand what is [attention to diversity], I would like to have more training in that area, to understand better what it is that I should be doing, because I am kind of just now like realizing that I am not doing anything related to [diversity]."

Other areas included:

"Linguistic scaffolding techniques"

"Designing materials"

"Student-centered teaching and the adaptation, if you think about it, if the goals are equal to learn the content and the language you are taking [students with varying linguistic competences], it would make sense to adapt the class in a way so that the students aren't left behind but so that the high-level higher achievers don't think the class has been dumbed down, we need more adapted materials and cross-communication between classes, like tenses in English class."

Finally, intercultural competence, or cultural awareness, was something the teachers noted they could be more knowledgeable about. The cohort expressed a desire for more training in how to deal with languages outside of the European Union, specifically, Chinese, of which the school has a significantly important percentage of students:

"I have seen the Chinese students try to organize information in English using google translator."

"I sometimes speak in Spanish and English but for students who cannot even communicate anything to the teacher, we the teachers have to take the first step and I need help with this."

"Culture diversity is not being addressed."

6.3.4. Thematic findings

Following this examination of the questionnaires and detailing of the teacher interview protocol, the following sections will thoroughly inspect the findings and conclusions from these data points as well as the classroom observations, according to theme. For this depiction, additional themes have been created or spilt into two themes; one in particular, attention to diversity, has been added as a way to recompile the observations and statements specifically regarding learner variance and will be presented first. Subsequently, the themes linguistic aspects, methodology in class, materials and resources, coordination and organization,

evaluation, and teacher training will be detailed including information from all instruments and observations.

6.3.4.1. Attention to diversity

Overall, this cohort feels they are capable of handling the diverse levels of achievement in the classroom, and in, general, they are catering to diversity, in line with findings by Pérez Cañado (2023). The general findings from the data collected suggest that over half of the entirety of the cohort is attending to diversity in different ways, albeit some of them are unaware of an identified *game plan*, aligned with findings from Nikula et al. (2023) who found that teachers were not able to explicitly identify some of their teaching as attending to diversity, since scaffolding for them is something that is preplanned: “naturally occurring emergent support may not be understood as differentiation, which, by definition, is pre-planned, documented and organized according to the three-tiered support system in Finnish education” (idem, 2023, p. 12). As a whole, the teachers regard diversity as a subject they are not expertly trained in nor do they show much explicit awareness of this topic. However, the interviews and classroom observations serve to show that the day-to-day experiences of the teachers have cultivated an implicit understanding of differentiation. The teachers, consistent with the students, acknowledge diverging levels of the L2 to be the main culprit of diversity, more than other factor, within the students.

Lack of time in general (related to material creation, preparation of classes, grading etc.) stands out as one of the main hindrances to teachers’ ability to properly attend to newcomer students or those with language difficulties. When it comes to attending to diversity, one teacher identifies the main challenges as:

“Everything: time, materials, time, extra (newcomer) classes.”

The entirety of the cohort pinpoints a lack of time as a chief obstacle when it comes to catering to diversity and, although most conveyed a want and need to help the students, the teachers point out that they mostly give those who are struggling extra work, and, to a lesser degree, individual attention. Excessive teaching hours and full capacity rosters are highlighted as problems when it comes to attending to diversity:

“I vary rarely use any methodology or plan methodology to help, cater to diversity, because one of the main reasons is we have too many students and too many hours to have the energy nor the time to cope with these things, obviously I try to make sure everyone understands what I am saying in a very traditional way which is going around in the class and seeing if they understand the activities and are doing the activities but in a very general way I don’t use any strategies.”

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING: CHAPTER 6. QUALITATIVE RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

"The amount of hours and number of students are too much [...] the teachers do not have the energy left."

One teacher mentions allowing students to take more time on activities, homework and exams, allowing students to write down answers or *"organize their thoughts"* in the L1 as well as trying to *"keep in touch"* with any struggling students' tutors or parents in a consistent manner. For the gifted students, no teacher was able to detail an action plan in place for helping them once they completed the assignments. Spontaneous help during lessons was one of the main scaffolding measures teachers used as commented on repeatedly throughout the interviews and seen in the direct observations. All teachers stated that they give personalized attention during class to those students who need it.

It was emphasized that attending to diversity was hard across the board, although the teachers found this affected their teaching mostly when the students differed in their linguistic capacities, and getting them interested in the subject in the L2:

"I find it very challenging [to teach CLIL classes with diverse learners] because you can tell clearly the children that are getting everything and some others that are not getting anything. In general, they pay much less attention when you speak in English than when you speak in their native language."

The extra work involved was debated and discussed as a real weakness to the preparation of CLIL classes, but was also seen as being quite motivating:

"After every school year, I realize what I can improve as a teacher, I have to do that extra work and create extra activities."

"Sometimes after an activity, that has gone really well, the kids are happy and I am too, and it's really nice, especially since I know I can use that again in another class or another year."

"I'm going to be honest, with the weaker students, I haven't developed anything to give them any support, I give them all the same activities, I haven't had time to plan anything for all of these kids."

Regarding differentiation, and attending to the different achievers via tiered activities, one teacher was tailoring some of their CLIL classes for the various levels of achievers in the classroom and implementing a differentiation methodology:

"It is true that there are three groups of students, the high, normal and low achievers so I realized I have to organize all my activities in the three different groups, so there is an activity for each of these three groups. My activities are divided into three groups and all of the students should do all three activities but they are by skill, and all the students should complete all the activities, but at their own pace. The first activity is very easy, the second is more difficult and the third activity is

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING:
CHAPTER 6. QUALITATIVE RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

for those very high achiever activities and I can usually see from the notebook which students are in which category, some of the kids cannot do the activities but some kids just are not motivated to do the activity so I usually give them a second chance because I have to see which kids are not doing the activity because they are lazy and which are not doing it because they cannot."

The varying nature of the academic subjects was addressed by some teachers and it was argued that some CLIL subjects are easier to teach in an FL than others, especially those that are more visual or those that have been taught in Spanish to the kids before. The teachers commented on using the content as a way to attend to the different levels of academic achievement:

"You could do the class entirely without language and [the students] could understand it."

"I think any class is difficult when [kids' FL competences vary] ... but [the subject] helps them also figure things out ... so even if they don't speak English, or Spanish even, they seem to be able to pick up pretty quickly what we are doing in class."

Another teacher commented using group work as a way to cater to diversity:

"We usually work in small groups, and if I find that activity is going to be hard for anyone I try to do a balance of the groups out, it is for sure a student-based, because it is based on the creativity but I try to guide them so I'm giving a lot of examples, I don't like to take the tools, I like to let them try and experiment."

It was brought to a head that not knowing how to attend to lack of motivation or low competence levels is an issue and is not being addressed properly:

"I mean I guess some students who seem to not be able to stay on task or something like that ... I don't really have a game plan for them, but there's not really an excuse to not know what we are doing [in class]."

All of the teachers were aware and taking steps to cater to students who, linguistically, need help in the L2 but only two were consciously attending to the different levels of academic achievers in the classroom. Overall, it was agreed that there stands a need for a more systematic and planned approach to cater to diversity as well as fomenting awareness on this topic, on all fronts, for all stakeholders, a stance that is unanimously supported by the teachers. In this same vein, the entirety of the cohort disagree that new students are given a special curriculum to follow, voicing their concerns for lack of this in the interviews and arguing that newcomer classes would be of great benefit to new students, especially since a good portion of the student population have been in the school since the early stages of Primary, and newcomers at the secondary level are unable to keep up with the FL competence of their bilingual-schooled peers.

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING:
CHAPTER 6. QUALITATIVE RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Ultimately, all of the teachers expressed a sense of joy and satisfaction in the teaching of the CLIL classes. The teachers expressed genuine interest in their subjects and a pride in being able to teach content in English to learners, who, on average, have no problem keeping up with the pace of the class.

6.3.4.2. Linguistic aspects

When it comes to the use of the L1 as a way to foment coherence and understanding, the majority of the teachers in this study are not recurring to its use, in line with Pérez Cañado (2023) and Ramón Ramos (2023). Although one of the six teachers acknowledged repeating large portions of their lessons in Spanish as a scaffolding mechanism, the five other teachers said they hardly ever repeat parts or large portions of the lesson in Spanish as a way to cater to diversity, reasoning this would negatively affect the students, their lessons, and the school environment. All of the teachers said they relied on peer support when it came to helping out kids who were struggling with the L2 competence, and at times, the Spanish language. All of the teachers lamented the lack of newcomer classes or support specifically targeted at students with little to no FL competence.

As for L1 use, two of the six teachers, who were also non-native Spanish speaking teachers, were honest and open about their lack of fluency in the Spanish language. Whilst they did lament a lack of such, they agreed that it forced them, and their students, to speak in English throughout the entirety of the classes. The three Spanish nationals did not affirm using, to any significant degree, the L1, neither verbally nor on their questionnaire responses. One teacher did openly acknowledge using the L1 in large amounts, specifically for newcomer or foreign students with relatively low L2 competence levels.

This is inconsistent with findings by Casas Pedrosa and Rascón Moreno (2023) and Siepmann et al. (2023), both of whom found that many teachers are repeating parts of CLIL lessons in the mother tongue as a way to cater to diversity and engage more students. Two teachers in this study at hand said they were using L1 in the class, one of whom was using it in a more systematic way, to foment more than anything, clarification and understanding in Spanish for the students, not only to address diversity, but to also encourage a dual-understanding of the concepts in both Spanish and English, in line with Bauer-Marschallinger et al. (2023). The other teacher who agreed to using Spanish during their lessons did this to repeat large parts in Spanish to foment understanding in specifically and exclusively students who were new or foreign. In line with Bauer-Marschallinger et al. (2023) it seems true that teachers' L1 use depends exclusively on the teacher, and seems to be very heterogeneous: two teachers never use the L1 (the main reason seeming to be a lack of L1 competence on their behalf), one teacher used it for ensuring their students were capable of understanding the material in both their mother tongue and in

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING:
CHAPTER 6. QUALITATIVE RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

English; two teachers used the L1 spontaneously, when talking with the students, and even to help themselves with explanations; and one teacher used L1 translations, explanations and summaries heavily.

The teachers in the study agree, almost entirely, that their linguistic skills in both communicative and specialized academic areas are sufficient to cope with diversity. This is in line partly with Casas Pedrosa and Rascón Moreno (2023), Pérez Cañado (2023), Ramón Ramos (2023), and Siepmann et al. (2023), who found that teachers are confident in their BICS. However, Pérez Cañado (2023) finds that teachers are not confident in their CALP abilities; likewise, Siepmann et al. (2023) finds that teachers disagree that their communication skills are sufficient to support learners of mixed-abilities.

The teachers find it challenging to teach learners who are diverse in both their target language proficiency and academic achievement, in line with findings from Casas Pedrosa and Rascón Moreno (2023), Pérez Cañado (2023) and Ramón Ramos (2023). One teacher reported having high confidence in their communication techniques and academic language knowledge due to having previously taught English. Contrarily, one teacher expressed insecurity with their English use, having only a B2 certificate and expressed a strong desire, or almost necessity, for a C1 competence in order to be able to successfully impart CLIL classes. In this same vein, the entirety of the cohort agreed that a minimum C1 level is needed for quality CLIL implementation. In the case of one Spanish national, it was noted that having a C1, instead of a B2, was much more functional in terms of these classes, citing a positive correlation between confidence and adeptness with the classes and higher L2 competence. This aligns in some degree with Ting (2023) who found students to be demanding of higher levels of proficiency in their teachers, minimum C1 but most acknowledging they would be most content with a C2 level for their CLIL teachers. This is directly corroborated by a recent publication by Pérez Cañado (2024), where a C2 level for teachers is called for in order to ensure a correct and functional implementation of CLIL.

In line with findings from Bauer-Marschallinger et al. (2023) and Nikula et al. (2023), the teachers in this study did not perceive diversity in terms of academic ability to be entirely present, but focused more on varying levels in the L2. The teachers in the previously mentioned study (Bauer-Marschallinger et al., 2023) did not differentiate students in terms of academic achievement, but only reported catering to students linguistically regarding English competence, or lack thereof, by altering the L2 communication skills, and demanding more or less complex skills for students inside a same grade level, depending on L2 proficiency. This is a finding extremely similar to Nikula et al. (2023), who in the Finnish context, are worried about making illegal curricular adaptations and only see heterogeneity in the L1 as something they can legally cater to. Two teachers in the present study noted that they modified oral presentation or

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING:
CHAPTER 6. QUALITATIVE RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

production criteria based on students' L2 levels but the direct classroom observations found the same attitude as Nikula et al. (2023) when it came to teachers not wanting to draw attention to students' differences or making them stand out, in line with the *equality over equity ethos* (idem, 2023). Similar to findings from the previously mentioned study (2023), group work is also a way to differentiate language outcomes. Teachers report that their students are encouraged to speak English during group work but the majority of the students, as seen during the classroom observations, used the L1 almost exclusively amongst themselves, although the teachers were insistent that English should be used. However, during the observations, the teachers and students interacted primarily in English. As for scaffolding, it is, both linguistically, one of the most effective way teachers are coping with diversity in the classroom, congruent with findings from Pérez Cañado (2023), Somers (2017, 2018), Casas Pedrosa and Rascón Moreno (2023), Siepmann et al. (2023).

In terms of linguistic facets in need of addressing, it is clear that the relationship between the subject-matter, L1 and L2 must be examined more closely. CLIL, by name, is a form of bilingual education; therefore, subject-literacy must be fomented in both the mother tongue and foreign language. How this is being conceptualized in this context is not homogeneous and absolute priority is being given to the FL over the development of subject mastery, the teachers seem to be suggesting. The clear monolingual policy here does not seem to pay mind to the students' overall linguistic repertoire as a scaffolding strategy or as a mechanism for catering to diversity. Instead, the L2 competence monopolizes the CLIL classroom. Therefore, misconceptions must be attended to as well as ensuring that this is not done simply through translation, or explanation of things in a foreign language, but an actual integration of the content, L1 and L2, as reported on by Pérez Cañado (2023).

6.3.4.3. Methodology in class

The teachers' perceptions regarding methodology are in line with the findings from Pérez Cañado (2023), including the sentiments that the teaching effectuated is mainly student-centered, as opposed to teacher-led; the use of cooperative or task- and project-based learning is regarded by teachers to being implemented consistently; and personalized attention as well as peer-mentoring and assistance strategies are routinely employed. Likewise, congruent with findings from Siepmann et al. (2023), the teachers generally agree that students with mixed abilities are being catered to. Furthermore, individualized attention is another one of the most well-documented strategies used by teachers to address diversity and even the playing field, also aligned with findings by Bauer-Marschallinger et al. (2023), Nikula et al. (2023) and Ramón Ramos (2023). A common strategy communicated during the interviews and observed in the classroom was the use of individualized support, especially when the students were in groups, completely aligned with Nikula et al. (2023).

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING: CHAPTER 6. QUALITATIVE RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The teachers in the study report mixed sentiments when it comes to the easiness of designing CLIL lessons, coinciding with findings from Pérez Cañado (2023): the teachers report having problems when it comes to designing quality lessons for mixed-ability students, expressing a desire for more training in this area. In this same vein, Casas Pedrosa and Rascón Moreno's (2023) findings show that teachers are in slight disagreement that it is easy to design a CLIL lesson for diverse learners and Ramón Ramos (2023) found that teachers perceive these class quite difficult to design.

Almost the entirety of the cohort agrees to having an adequate repertoire of methods at their disposition: in line with Bauer-Marschallinger et al. (2023), Casas Pedrosa and Rascón Moreno (2023), teachers in this study partially agree, and with Siepmann et al. (2023), teachers agree to more of a degree than the students. The use of peer support, mainly in the form of pairing mixed-ability (linguistically) students together in class in addition to personalized and individual attention, and scaffolding with the use of "*pictures, videos, games and translations*" are by far the most widely used techniques that the teachers are employing to cater to diversity. One teacher mentioned using "*common sense*" to see if a student is struggling or not. In that same vein, cooperative learning is affirmed by all of the teachers to be utilized to cater to diversity, in line with Pérez Cañado (2023), Siepmann et al. (2023), and Casas Pedrosa and Rascón Moreno (2023). In this way, a recurring topic of what constituted as attention diversity and not becomes an issue, in line with Nikula et al. (2023), in which teachers were hesitant to attribute their methodological practices as truly methodological had they not been previously devised.

As for student-centered work as a coping mechanism for catering to diversity, the majority of the cohort agree that this is done, in line with Bauer-Marschallinger et al. (2023); Casas Pedrosa and Rascón Moreno (2023); Pérez Cañado (2023), Ramón Ramos (2023), Siepmann et al. (2023). Teachers in their study partially agreed, while in our study, the majority agreed. Similarly, using a teacher-led methodology to cater to diversity is not agreed upon by the cohort, congruent with Casas Pedrosa and Rascón Moreno (2023), where teachers partially disagreed with this statement. Other strategies that the teachers in our study seem to be using routinely include peer support and mixed-ability pairings, or the intentional pairing of overachiever or experienced students with lower ability or newcomer students and the use of personalized attention, in line with Nikula et al. (2023). Regarding additional support for the different achievers (overachievers), tiered activities was noted by the cohort to being something they would like to see in the future, as it would be extremely beneficial for the students. This was again reverberated by the study carried out by Nikula et al. (2023) that found the overachievers were catered to more often.

In line with Bauer-Marschallinger et al. (2023), there is some uncertainty from the teacher cohort about what constitutes as student-centered methodology. Teachers in the study (2023)

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING:
CHAPTER 6. QUALITATIVE RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

were unsure if their methodology was teacher-fronted, labelling their teaching as such even though the lessons were actually more student-focused. Similarly, in this study, teachers were unsure about how to classify their teaching methodology. Conversely, teachers in the study carried out by Ramón Ramos (2023) did not consider themselves to be the center of the learning process.

The cohort is unanimously adamant that group work, as mentioned before, mainly in the form of project-based learning, is a resolute pillar for their CLIL classes, in adherence to the IB curriculum, which is mostly congruent with findings from Pérez Cañado (2023) and Casas Pedrosa and Rascón Moreno (2023). On forming groups and seating arrangements, one teacher lets the students choose their groups but tries to ensure the weaker students are included with students of high levels of English. All of the teachers said they allowed the students to choose their seats in the class, but ultimately, they (the teacher) had the final input. The teachers from our study did not note any negative sentiments when it came to heterogeneous-groupings, opposed to Nikula et al. (2023) who found that teachers believed this might make the differences in students “visible for others” (p. 9).

Heterogeneous achievement-based groupings as way to cater to learner variance is only affirmed to be employed by half the cohort, congruent with Pérez Cañado (2023), who found that teachers used this strategy to a lesser degree, but inconsistent with Siepmann et al. (2023) who found that teachers are using mixed-ability groupings. Likewise, teachers involved in the study by Casas Pedrosa and Rascón Moreno (2023) slightly agreed to using these as a way to meet the needs of students. In the case of one teacher in the study by Bauer-Marschallinger et al. (2023), students were put into mixed-language-ability groups in certain tasks. During the classroom observations in the study at hand, this was seen happen, as the teacher placed some students, specifically the weaker/new/foreign students, in certain groups, so they would be able to profit from more advanced students. However, in the case of one teacher in the study, it was noted that students were allowed to group themselves, or were purposely put into homogeneous groups by the teacher, mainly new or foreign students, reasoning that this allows the students to “*work with like-English levels*”. Following Bauer-Marschallinger et al. (2023), it would seem that the teachers in this study are aware that group work can be used to aid some students; however, this is not happening across the board, nor is it a systematic practice. The groups that are usually formed do not follow any specifically created pedagogical plan, but groups are organized mostly based on student preference and or proximity. This is in line with findings by Nikula et al. (2023) in which teachers agree they use heterogeneous groupings as a way to avoid learning curve gaps.

The length of the classes seems to be a marginally uncomfortable aspect of the CLIL course, given that the afternoon periods are 45 minutes compared to the morning sessions, which are an hour long. Some of the teachers routinely had classes in the afternoon periods and

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING:
CHAPTER 6. QUALITATIVE RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

complained that these shorter periods were insufficient to deal with all of the students. However, the entirety of the cohort agreed that the hour-long sessions were acceptable, and allowed for enough time to cater to diversity.

It was also discussed that most of the teachers allow students to move their desks to facilitate group work, and one teacher said they made use of an "*interest center*" in the classroom, where students could gather and exchange information. Similarly, half of the cohort affirm they are setting up different work spaces in the classroom as a way to cater to learner variance, which is consistent with Casas Pedrosa and Rascón Moreno (2023), who found that teachers agree to a slightly greater degree and Ramón Ramos (2023) who found different classroom arrangements to be used, but diverges from Nikula et al. (2023) and Siepmann et al. (2023), both who found teachers harbor less positive opinions when it comes to using varied classroom layouts.

The cohort at hand agreed that the majority of their class time was spent walking around the room assisting students, and a minority of class time was teacher-centered. Providing more personalized attention to learners is utilized, congruent with Casas Pedrosa and Rascón Moreno (2023), Nikula et al. (2023), Pérez Cañado (2023), Ramón Ramos (2023) and Siepmann et al. (2023). Similarly, using peer-mentoring and assistance strategies to support attention to diversity is heralded by the cohort to be employed frequently, in line with Casas Pedrosa and Rascón Moreno (2023), Pérez Cañado (2023), Ramón Ramos (2023) and Siepmann et al. (2023) but divergent from Nikula et al. (2023) and Siepmann et al. (2023) who saw less enthusiasm from teachers in this aspect. Consistent with Bauer-Marschallinger et al. (2023) and Nikula et al. (2023), providing personalized, individualized, and spontaneous help is one of the most utilized mechanisms that the teachers from our study employed to attend to diversity and is confirmed by the majority of the teachers in this study and later seen in the direct observations. Many of the teachers were unable to detail specific methodology they used to aid students, but through pedagogical tact they were able to identify students who needed more assistance and give it to them when the need arose. This is generally the same sentiment conveyed by the teachers in Nikula et al. (2023), whose teachers did not directly state their methodological means for catering to diversity but were in fact implementing practices in the classroom in a more spontaneous, practical way.

Regarding other specific methodological practices, multiple intelligences are not used by the cohort, as only one teacher affirms employing them, in line with previous research by Pérez Cañado (2023), whose findings showed teachers are not using them in any substantial degree. Incongruent findings are had by Casas Pedrosa and Rascón Moreno (2023), where teachers slightly agree they are using MIT. In this same vein, when it comes to newcomer classes, these are not present or affirmed by the cohort, with consistency regarding newcomer classes with

Pérez Cañado (2023) and Casas Pedrosa and Rascón Moreno (2023), who conclude that these are hardly in existence.

6.3.4.4. Materials and resources

Outcomes regarding materials and resources are consistent with the conclusions of prior studies (e.g. Fernández & Halbach, 2011; McDougald, 2023; Pena Díaz & Porto Requejo, 2008; Pérez Cañado, 2016a, 2016b, 2018; Roiha, 2014; Siepmann & Pérez Cañado, 2022), all of whom have pinpointed the lack of materials as one of the major challenges facing proper CLIL implementation. In line with conclusions from Pérez Cañado (2023), lack of access to materials is “the top challenge underscored by the teachers” and “is the highest ranked hurdle” (p. 8). However, despite their lack, the teachers’ perspectives are generally positive, in line with Casas Pedrosa and Rascón Moreno (2023) and Ramón Ramos (2023) and other studies carried out less recently (Milla Lara & Casas Pedrosa, 2018). None of the teachers in the study at hand were using only a physical textbook to teach their classes; in fact, the majority of them did not use a physical textbook at all, in line with sentiments expressed by other studies who found that teachers did not believe the textbooks were able to stand alone as the main material in the CLIL classroom (e.g. Casas Pedrosa & Rascón Moreno, 2023). The entirety of the teachers desired access to more materials and knowledge about how to create innovative, interesting and useful materials in their lessons without having to spend hours doing so. Access to materials and resources that have been previously designed and take varying levels of achievement into account were not confirmed to be had by the cohort, inconsistent with findings by Casas Pedrosa and Rascón Moreno (2023), in which teachers were in slight agreement with this sentiment, nor with Siepmann et al. (2023), where teachers agreed that the textbooks and materials did take different levels of ability into account.

Adapting and creating materials is a substantial part of the teachers’ job: all of the teachers in the study agree that they are creating and adapting materials regularly, consistent with findings by Casas Pedrosa and Rascón Moreno (2023), Ramón Ramos (2023) and Siepmann et al. (2023). Similarly, as for the easiness of this task, the entirety of the cohort fully disagree that this is undemanding, directly in line with Ramón Ramos (2023) and somewhat consistent with findings by Casas Pedrosa and Rascón Moreno (2023), where teachers slightly disagreed with this statement. Most teachers in our study acknowledged that their materials are not excessively creative or interesting, owing to a lack of time and training required to prepare more elaborate activities, which is in direct contrast to findings by Milla Lara and Casas Pedrosa (2018) in which teachers positively reviewed the materials and resources, finding them to be innovative and interesting. Some of the teachers complained about having to translate large amounts of texts from Spanish to English, and the use of videos without any complementary activities such as worksheets or follow-up activities. This can be linked to findings by Nikula et al. (2023) in

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING:
CHAPTER 6. QUALITATIVE RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

which teachers acknowledged the materials to be the same for all, except for activities that were attending to foreign L1s (Finnish, in this case). Originally designed and adapted materials in English were noted by many of the teachers to be very time consuming for the teachers, in addition to the lack of ICT skills. The main commentary, or criticism, from the teachers about materials and resources revolved around lack of time, insufficient training in ICT and differentiation activities. None of the teachers used differentiation activities, albeit a few did mention they would like to be able to do this if they had more time and knowledge about them.

On a positive note, sentiments and behaviors regarding the use of ICT as relayed through the questionnaires, focus groups, interviews and classroom observations confirmed repeatedly that technology plays an integral part of the CLIL classroom in this school. Per the teachers' perspectives, ICTs are a frequently recurred resource to attend to achievement levels, coinciding with findings by Casas Pedrosa and Rascón Moreno (2023), Lancaster (2016), Pérez Cañado (2023), Ramón Ramos (2023) Siepmann et al. (2023), but in direct contrast to findings by Bauer-Marschallinger et al. (2023), where ICT played a minority role in the CLIL classrooms.

Finally, multimodal input is also reported by the teachers to be a frequently recurred mechanism to attend to learner variance, coinciding with Casas Pedrosa and Rascón Moreno (2023), Ramón Ramos (2023) and Pérez Cañado (2023). However, for their part, Siepmann et al. (2023) found that students perceive multimodal input to be occurring more frequently than the teachers, who were not in as much agreement with its use as a regularly occurring strategy.

For her part, Garotti (2007) comments on lack of material in the CLIL environment but notes that it is, ironically, a positive side to the CLIL methodology since this means that teachers are researching and putting in ample more time for lesson preparation, due to the fact that they have no alternative which is seen in our study: several of the teachers noted that they dedicated vast amounts of time to their subject preparation, translations and activity creation and noted a deeper sense of gratification. The lack of a physical textbook in the majority of these classes and basis of many of the classes around an online platform seemed to be making them more functional, avoiding the "dangerous shortcoming of teaching i.e. the correspondence between program and textbook" (Garotti, 2007, p. 135). Hence, the lessons in this particular CLIL context were more robust and featured many activities that the teachers had created themselves, using updated resources and ICTs, instead of relying singularly on a textbook.

6.3.4.5. Teacher coordination

The fifth block, coordination and organization, was the most negatively reviewed aspect by the teachers in several ways. All of the teachers in our study lamented the lack of coordination between coworkers, with the majority expressing a desire to cultivate a more collaborative

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING:
CHAPTER 6. QUALITATIVE RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

working environment per all data collected from the instruments, interviews and observations, aligned with findings from McDougald (2023). Coordination and collaboration with other colleagues is not happening on any level, not altogether inconsistent from Pérez Cañado's (2023) findings, who labels collaboration as *lukewarm*, but in direct contrast with findings from Casas Pedrosa and Rascón Moreno (2023) and Ramón Ramos (2023), in which teachers report they are coordinating and collaborating with other colleagues in the bilingual program. One teacher in our study noted that there had been an attempt, in the past, to coordinate with the English department by bidding to facilitate a coordinated effort between the departments, but this was only the case of one specific teacher who "*was interested in doing that.*" Several of the teachers used the word "*never*" to indicate the level of coordination and collaboration with other teachers.

The support of a multi-professional team was unanimously agreed upon to be essential to teach CLIL classes, in line with Pérez Cañado (2023) and Casas Pedrosa and Rascón Moreno (2023), where teachers view these as being essential, as well as the presence and support of guidance counselors. However, despite being viewed as indispensable, the teachers denied being able to count on their support. This is in direct alignment with findings from Nikula et al. (2023), in which teachers acknowledged support systems but said CLIL students were not using them or given complete access to them, and there seemed to be limited access and information given to CLIL teachers about the support system, judged by the teachers to be a direct consequence of CLIL students being seen as being in less need of these services due to their participation in the program, which was reserved for more intelligent, higher motivated students. However, findings from Ramón Ramos (2023) clash with our findings, since the teachers in his study positively appraised the support system in the bilingual program and said they were regularly coordinating with their multi-professional teams and guidance counsellors.

On the other side of the spectrum, one aspect of collaboration and support seems to be in almost flawless workings: the parental support at the school. This is positively viewed by the majority of teachers who are in consistent contact with many of the parents in varying modes of communication (phone, email, face-to-face), a finding supported by Casas Pedrosa and Rascón Moreno (2023) and Ramón Ramos (2023), but inconsistent with findings by Pérez Cañado (2023), in which teachers ranked parental engagement and support as only occurring moderately.

Another interesting take-away from this study is the role that the language assistants are playing in this center. They are not used in the content classes, but, rather, they function as supplemental teachers for the L2 classroom, thus leaving the CLIL teachers with virtually no access to them during the year, a discovery inconsistent with other findings (Casas Pedrosa & Rascón Moreno, 2023; Ramón Ramos, 2023; Pérez Cañado, 2023) and which is not a true role of the language assistant, which allocates them for use in the CLIL class. Despite not having access to these language assistants, their preparation is positively viewed by the cohort, inconsistent

with findings by Casas Pedrosa and Rascón Moreno (2023), who find that there is only slight agreement with this statement on the teachers' behalf, and believe there needs to be increased training on how to form closer working relationships between the practitioners. The CLIL teachers in this study were supportive of the role of the language assistants, which seemed to work as supplemental support for new and/or struggling students in the L2, quite possibly helping to bridge the gap for these adolescents, who, deprived of newcomer and reinforcement classes, are able to have a bit more individualized attention with the FL in this way, quite possibly filling in the gap in this sense.

Along those same lines, guidance counselors are seen as being critical to the functioning of the program, congruent with Pérez Cañado (2023) and Casas Pedrosa and Rascón Moreno (2023), although even though there was a guidance counselor at the school, many of the teachers lamented the fact that they were not given much access to him due to the scarcity of his time, as he was the one guidance counselor for the entire school (Pre-Primary, Primary, Secondary and Baccalaureate students).

6.3.4.6. Evaluation

Vis-à-vis evaluation, the teachers in this study are using mainly formative strategies, concurring with Roiha (2014) and Pérez Cañado (2023). However, some aspects of the assessment process need to be bolstered, given the fact that the majority of the teachers present in the study are not allowing for more time on exams, are not adapting the exams for different levels, or are providing differentiated homework (in line with Nikula et al., 2023). On a brighter note, the formative assessment techniques glean optimism that more diversified measures are taking place amongst the majority or entirety of the cohort: personalized and regular feedback, self-assessment, adaptation of activities, use of grading rubrics and provision of detailed guidelines as support (in line with Ramón Ramos, 2023). Consistent with findings from Casas Pedrosa and Rascón Moreno (2023), the teachers in this study are in partial or total agreement with the majority of the items in this block, disagreeing only in part to using differentiated homework and exams.

This facet appears to be the how and where teachers are applying the most diversity measures, through the undertaking of several measures: criteria adaptation, varying achievement levels being taken into account, grading rubrics being used, more detailed guidelines and personalized, regular feedback being provided, activities being adapted and key words being highlighted. The teachers seem to be very sure that certain students are in need of diversification measures when it comes to grades, deeming it unfair or immoral to hold certain students (mainly new or foreign) students to the same standards as some of their peers in terms of their knowledge of the subject in the L2. This finding mirrors those by Nikula et al. (2023), as teachers in that

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING:
CHAPTER 6. QUALITATIVE RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

study were not catering for diversity except for in the case of foreign L1s. Likewise, in the same vein as Siepmann et al. (2023), who reported one teacher giving students opportunities to complete complementary activities that did not require oral participation, the majority of teachers in our study are allowing new or foreign students to participate or contribute in various ways that do not see them discriminated against or penalized for a low or insufficient L2 competence. However, it should be emphasized that these adaptations and diversity measures are only used in the case of new and foreign students. The teachers in our study made no mention of catering to any other students in this way, unless they had been instructed, by the school, to treat a student differently due to a learning disorder or condition, something, many of the teachers said, had never happened, or only once or twice. Again, this reverberates findings from Nikula et al. (2023), in which teachers made use of the words legal and illegal to express their concern for curricular adaptations at the assessment level.

Differentiation and ability were interesting topics of discussion when it came to debating the assessment process. One teacher argued that the students at the school are not significantly diverse intellectually, proposing that the students mostly, or completely, suffered from linguistic deficits, which in turn led to a poorer student performance, pinning their lower academic results solitarily on linguistic challenges. The other teachers did not express this same sentiment, although some did convey a sense of dubiety over a lack of knowledge about how to go about enacting differentiation. This is somewhat in line with Nikula et al. (2023) in which teachers expressed a concern about differentiation when it came to assessment since they felt equality was the prevailing sentiment, as opposed to equity. However, the teachers in the study (idem, 2022) were more implicitly aware of differentiation strategies, and it is included in their repertoire of methodologies as well as training and are well-versed in this topic.

As previously mentioned, periodic and personalized feedback is a major coping mechanism for the teachers, who note that they are in constant contact not only with struggling students, but also with many of the students' parents, who are informed of the students' process on a weekly basis (in line with Ramón Ramos, 2023). The students in the study are, according to this cohort, regularly assessed individually in class, including the daily or weekly inspection of notebooks, in line with Ramón Ramos (2023) and Siepmann et al. (2023), who found that certain teachers used regular informing of grades as a way to keep students on track as well as punctually tracking learners' progress.

Regarding the use of evaluation to cater to diversity, several of the teachers in our study conveyed only addressing linguistically challenged students, specifically those with lower FL competences or foreign L1s (in line with Nikula et al., 2023), and do not address any other intellectual challenges or needs, a couple of them questioning the legality of tailoring exams for students who do not have explicit medical diagnoses. One teacher noted that presentations and

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING:
CHAPTER 6. QUALITATIVE RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

projects are utilized as a way to “*compensate*” those who had lower FL competence. They said that they didn’t grade the linguistically challenged students “*as much as the other students*”. This is line with teacher opinions from Siepmann et al. (2023). However, the teachers in our study are not adapting vocabulary on tests, in line with Nikula et al. (2023) and Ramón Ramos (2023).

The findings here show that the teachers are primarily recurring to formative assessment as a way to cater to diversity, in line with Siepmann et al. (2023), where assessment was seen to be predominantly formative and based on daily performance of students throughout the year, as no written summative assessments were used. However, this same study (2023) gleaned more mixed responses from teachers, who did not consider mixed-abilities to be considered in the formative assessment, were not adapting or varying assessment criteria, nor offering detailed guidelines. The same study (2023) did conclude the teachers were giving more personalized and regular feedback, but did not differentiate homework. The teachers in our study make mention of several strategies they regularly use to help attend to learner variance, including using grading rubrics, detailed guidelines, extra support, and personalized feedback as a way to attend to the different levels of achievement via assessment. As for homework, the teachers in our study are not differentiating homework, partially aligned with Nikula et al. (2023), in which teachers said homework was not used to differentiate, but later, interviews divulged that homework was being used as a differentiation strategy that assigned mandatory homework for all, as well as optional, more challenging homework as well, allowing student agency to work as self-differentiation to take place. These findings contrast with Ramón Ramos (2023), in which teachers said adapted homework is being assigned to the students.

Overall, the assessment in these classes, deduced from this sample of teachers, tends to skew in favor of formative assessment and, although summative assessments are used in the entirety of the CLIL classes, they are not given as much weight as the formative assessment process. One teacher emphasized the influential role formative assessment played in their class, noting that their subject rarely used summative assessment and the grades in class were much more dependent on effort, and not numbers. The majority of the teachers affirm this practice, agreeing more emphasis is given to the daily effort students put into class and activities, and not so much on any final assessment (congruent with Bauer-Marschallinger et al, 2023). Interestingly, the teachers rank summative assessment as the greatest challenge (in line with Pérez Cañado, 2023).

6.3.4.7. Teacher training

Professional development is a major obstacle these teachers are facing. Many of the findings in this block related to teacher training are in line with previous findings such as Scanlan (2011), Cioè-Peña (2017), and Pérez Cañado (2023), since the teachers in this particular context

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING:
CHAPTER 6. QUALITATIVE RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

have very high teacher training needs in several areas, including design and adaptation of materials (directly contrasted to Ramón Ramos, 2023), language scaffolding needs (aligned with Pérez Cañado, 2023), and student-centered methodologies, all three of which align with Casas Pedrosa and Rascón Moreno (2023). On the other hand, not all of the teachers agree that they need more education in collaboration and coordination with colleagues (as found by Ramón Ramos, 2023), how to engage with parents (Ramón Ramos, 2023), or critically assess their own teaching practices (congruent with Casas Pedrosa & Rascón Moreno, 2023). However, findings from Pérez Cañado (2023) found that teachers did not ask for more training in how to collaborate with parents. In line with the findings from the parents and students, this particular cohort does not list parental engagement as figuring prominently on their teacher training needs docket, undeniably attributed to the type of institution where parental engagement is carried out routinely on both ends.

The main professional development areas are twofold for this particular set of teachers: all of the teachers reported a desire for training in material design and adaptation (consistent with Banegas, 2022; Casas Pedrosa & Rascón Moreno, 2023; Pérez Cañado, 2023), and further education in assessment for diversity. Along those same lines, the majority of the teacher cohort agreed they also would like more training in student-centered methodologies (consistent with Casas Pedrosa & Rascón Moreno, 2023 and Pérez Cañado, 2023), classroom organizations (consistent with Casas Pedrosa & Rascón Moreno, 2023 and Pérez Cañado, 2023), coordination, and critically assessing their own teaching practices. Thus, the teachers in this study have high teacher training needs in the very areas which they say they are using to cater to diversity, a seemingly desire to be more knowledgeable about the very mechanisms they are implementing on a day-to-day basis (in line with Pérez Cañado, 2023).

Other teacher training areas in need of bolstering were ICT skills, mainly for the purpose of material creation, so as to be able to create more interesting, interactive activities as opposed to just fill-in-the-blank or multiple-choice worksheets. This is in line with the majority of teachers' commentary on the lack of time when it came to preparing and carrying out a CLIL lesson satisfactorily.

Extensive training in the content-subject was voiced as being necessary by a single teacher, believing that a high linguistic competence is not enough to sufficiently teach CLIL classes, they argued it is also necessary to have subjective-specific knowledge so as to be able to properly use academic language. This aligns with student findings from Ting (2023) who also agreed that their teachers should be fully competent in both content and language areas. Other areas that the teachers in our study asked for increased training for included linguistic scaffolding, material design, and student-centered teaching. This is also in line with McDougald (2023), who found that uncertainty with the CLIL methodology and the aspect from which it is being taught

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING:
CHAPTER 6. QUALITATIVE RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

(content, from a content specialist, or from a language perspective, from a language specialist) blurs the vision of what CLIL methodology is and what skills are preferable for a teacher: language or content.

Culture diversity, or intercultural competence, was also voiced as being an important aspect to address when it comes to professional development, given the relatively high percentage of foreign-born students enrolled at the school. The teachers seem to be relatively comfortable with the native Spanish- and English-speaking students, but feel more skeptical and unsure of how to deal with other nationalities, cultures, and L1s. This is directly in line with findings from Banegas (2022).

The greatest deficiencies found by these teachers are teacher coordination and the school support system, unlike Pérez Cañado (2023) who found the school support system and LA preparation to be the weakest points. Our finding aligns with Nikula et al. (2023) who expressed concern with the lack of access to the support system available to the CLIL students. The teachers in our study highly value the language assistant preparation, despite a lack of contact with them and no access to them in their content classes.

It can be concluded that these CLIL classes are functional and practical, many of the teachers in this particular school have many years of teaching experience, almost all the non-native English teachers have at least a C1 English certificate, and several CLIL teachers are native English speakers and one Spanish national had a C2 English accreditation. The teacher-parent relationship with this set of subjects is very satisfactory, the use of ICT is making the teachers more interested in ICT and material design, and the teachers are quite insistent on continuing their professional development. However, despite the grounds for excellent CLIL implementation, a few precarious issues that are heeding teachers in their intent to attend to the diverse learners have been revealed. Most notably, the lack of newcomer classes, the shortage of quality CLIL materials and resources, the almost nonexistence of collaboration between departments and colleagues, and finally, save for parental engagement, the faint support system present.

6.4. Parents

The last cohort, the parents, completed the qualitative side of the study, featuring ten parents of CLIL students who also participated in the study. Despite the highly valued importance and support of this cohort, given the difficulties with logistics and limited in-person contact, these subjects were able to provide only limited amounts of data, via the questionnaire related to important aspects of the CLIL curriculum. For said reasons, this group was not able to participate in face-to-face interviews nor a focus group; however, some follow-up questions were consulted via phone interviews.

6.4.1. Questionnaires

The parent questionnaire was provided in Spanish (cf. Appendix IV for the original version). They contain the same number of items as the student versions, although perspectives are changed, as manifested by the wording of several statements (from “my teacher” to “my child’s teacher”, for example).

The questionnaire’s cover page features questions pertaining to SES, including age, gender, nationality and level of studies. Following this introductory step, questions pertaining to diversity measures are grouped into five thematic blocks, following the same pattern as the teacher and student versions: linguistic aspects, methodology and groupings, materials and resources, assessment, and collaboration and teacher training. Although the questionnaires were administered in Spanish, the results are discussed in English, for data coherence purposes. The data collected from this cohort is presented below, per the responses of the questionnaire by block, given the data collection process for these stakeholders consisted in a singular means.

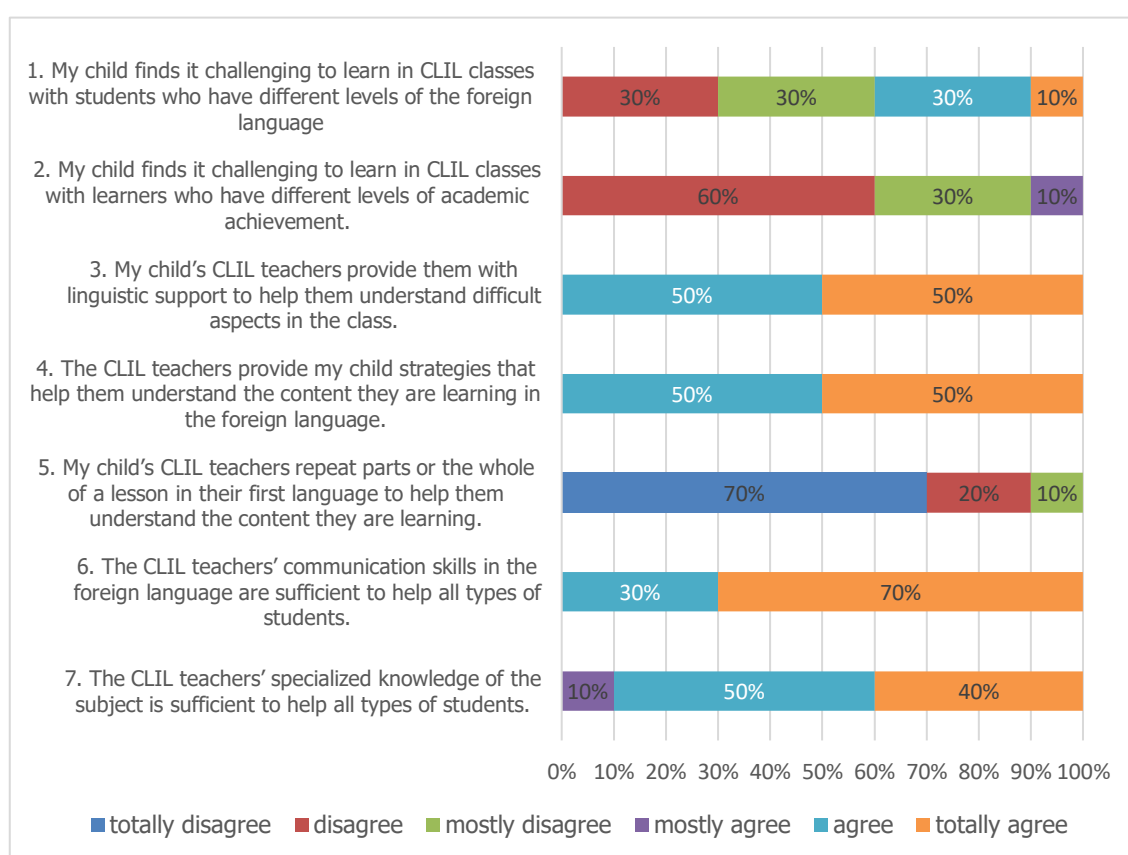
Data collected from the first thematic block, **linguistic aspects**, featuring seven items, reveal a highly satisfactory impression of the linguistic facet of the CLIL program (cf. Graph 63). Responses expose that almost half of the parents find CLIL classes to be challenging for their children when shared with students bearing different levels of the foreign language (item 1), yet the majority do not deem these classes to be more of a challenge if the students differ in their academic achievement level (item 2). The parents are very satisfied with the teachers’ ability to provide linguistic support and strategies for content understanding in the CLIL classroom (items 3 and 4). Likewise, they are confident with their offspring’s’ teachers’ BICS and CALP (items 6 and 7), and, finally, the parents are adamant the CLIL teachers are not repeating the CLIL lessons in parts or in their entirety in Spanish (item 5).

From the information recompiled, it would seem the parents at the school are overwhelmingly satisfied with the linguistic aspects of the CLIL program, positively viewing linguistic and content scaffolding, consistent with Ramón Ramos (2023) and Pérez Cañado (2023). Similarly, the cohort has great faith in the teachers’ linguistic competence levels both academically and conversationally, congruent with Milla Lara and Casas Pedrosa (2018), Ráez Padilla (2018) and Pérez Cañado (2023). This particular group of stakeholders do not see the L1 being used at all during the CLIL class, which is not aligned with findings from Ramón Ramos (2023), in which parents saw the L1 being used.

Linguistically, the parents are quite happy with the bilingual program, as shown in the responses for this particular block. The only item that receives the most negative responses is the use of the L1 in the classroom, which the parents do not see happening at all, which aligns

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING: CHAPTER 6. QUALITATIVE RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

with Ramón Ramos (2023). As previously mentioned, this is most likely related to the particular context in which this study was based, where most of the teachers are highly-competent FL users, if not native-English speakers. As it is a private school, the parents are fully reassured in the teachers' linguistic preparation (aligned with Ramón Ramos, 2023), believing the teachers, linguistic and non-linguistic, are fully competent and trained. Sufficiently so, it would result, to give their offspring a very high-quality education in which the teachers are not only native-English speakers or highly proficient in the FL, but are also competent enough to provide their children with strategies to help them acquire both language and content. It must be reiterated that the parents subject their children to external exams that rigorously at this school, and the parents are very on board with the language exams, believing them to be reliable when it comes to testing their children's language skills (in line with Hidalgo-McCabe, 2022).



Graph 62: Linguistic aspects (parents' questionnaires responses)

Responses from the second thematic block, **methodology and groupings**, containing 15 items, reveal high confidence is had in the CLIL teachers and lessons (cf. Graph 64). This group of stakeholders perceives the widest range of strategies being used to cater to diversity, although they offer a conflicting response to the type of methodology offered in class, asserting it is teacher-based (item 7). The parents believe that the CLIL lessons are diversity-sensitive (item 8) and are long enough to allow for diversity catering to take place (item 9). The parents evince confidence in teachers' knowledge of innovative methodological strategies to use with diverse

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING:
CHAPTER 6. QUALITATIVE RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

students (item 10); however, this cohort notes a slightly more teacher-fronted methodology taking place (items 11 and 15). The parents affirm cooperative learning is happening (item 12), and also see multiple intelligences being catered to (item 13). The cohort corroborates the use of project- and task-based learning (item 14), and affirm the use of different types of groupings (item 16) coupled with mixed-ability pairings (item 17). Regarding group work, this cohort attests to the fact that mixed-ability groupings are taking place (item 18), in addition to personalized attention, which is also being carried out (item 19). In this same vein, peer mentoring is noted as being used in the lessons (item 20). The parents also see different work spaces being used (item 21). However, the majority of the parents are unsure about the existence of newcomer classes: three of the parents denied these were present in the school, whilst the other seven parents did not answer the question, keeping in line with the responses from the teachers and students (item 22) and partially align with findings from Ramón Ramos (2023) in which parents did not see the presence of newcomer classes.

Thus, this facet gleans a high amount of satisfaction from the parents, regarding the methodology and teacher preparation and effort and these stakeholders perceive a wide range of strategies being deployed. The parental cohort is certain that measures are being taken to adequately cater to diversity, in line with Pérez Cañado (2023). Similarly, the parents, congruent with Pérez Cañado (2023) and Ramón Ramos (2023), believe that student-centered methodology is taking place. In this same vein, the parents confirm that cooperative learning, project-based learning and personalized attention and varied groupings are present in the CLIL classroom (consistent with Milla Lara & Casas Pedrosa, 2018; Pérez Cañado, 2023). However, Ramón Ramos (2023) found parents to hold the perception that cooperative learning was not taking place, nor did they see MIT being used or the use of task-based methodology. The parents in the study are equally sure that different physical work spaces are being used, inconsistent with Ramón Ramos (2023) and Pérez Cañado (2023). This group of stakeholders do not see the use of newcomer classes, in harmony with Ramón Ramos (2023) and Pérez Cañado (2023).

Overall, the parents are happy with teachers' ability to cater to diversity via pedagogical practices, as evinced by the positive responses regarding the employment of a variety of methods for mixed-ability students, in line with Milla Lara and Casas Pedrosa (2018), Pérez Cañado (2023), Ráez Padilla (2018), and partially aligned with Ramón Ramos (2023). The parents have a high level of satisfaction when it comes to the methodology being used by the teachers, and they are the cohort who see the most diversification being utilized in the classroom. These parents do see the classes as being teacher-based; however, they do not discredit this strategy nor associate it with a lesser-quality education. In line with their responses from the linguistic perspective, the parents see the teachers as being highly trained and fully competent in the use of different strategies when it comes to dealing with diverse students (fairly aligned with findings from Ramón

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING: CHAPTER 6. QUALITATIVE RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Ramos, 2023). As noted before, the parents see absolutely all the strategies taking place (MIT, diverse groupings, different work spaces, mixed-ability pairings) except for the presence of newcomer classes, which half of the cohort denies are existent.



Graph 63: Methodology and groupings (parents' questionnaires responses)

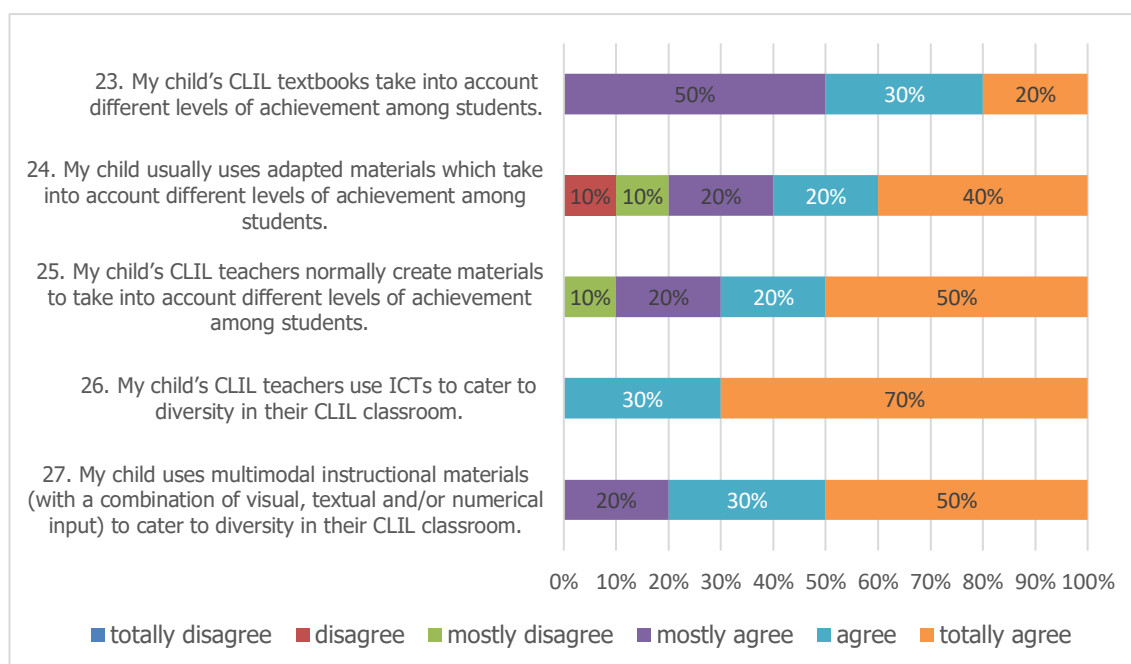
The third block, **materials and resources**, featuring five items, evinces high satisfaction from these stakeholders (cf. Graph 65). The parents believe that CLIL textbooks are working for the varying levels of achievement (item 23) and that the students are using materials that the teachers have adapted and created taking achievement levels into account (items 24 and 25). The parents see the students using ICTs consistently in their classes (item 26), which only partially aligned with findings from Milla Lara and Casas Pedrosa (2018); however, they are unable to give a significant number of examples, with only two parents responding to the second portion of the question (citing Kahoot, Quizlet and Google). According to the cohort, their children are also using a multimodal instructional methodology (item 27).

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING: CHAPTER 6. QUALITATIVE RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

As for this facet, the parents are equally satisfied with materials and resources at the school, aligning more so with student perspectives on this front: all of the parents responded positively to every item. Interestingly, this cohort agrees that the textbooks are fit to cater to diversity, incongruent with Pérez Cañado (2023), who finds parents are not accepting of the textbooks as fit for CLIL and diversity. As for responses from Ramón Ramos (2023), our findings diverged quite a bit as the parents in that study were much more pessimistic on two fronts: a CLIL textbook was not seen to be used and no original materials used. Our findings also diverged from Ráez Padilla (2018) who found parents had a more lukewarm response to the materials aspect, most notably in the area of technological resources needing bolstering, more material adaptation needing to be taken care of and inclusion of guidelines in Spanish so the parents can help their offspring.

Overall, materials and resources are a point of high satisfaction, again, most likely a result of the context: a private school. The parents see the teachers prepping most of the materials, in line with findings from Ramón Ramos (2023), and are very satisfied with the ICTs used in class, which was not seen as much in other studies by the parents (e.g. Ramón Ramos, 2023). As the parents at this school know, the students have their own devices which they use daily, if not in every class, in almost every single class. The online platform is another selling point for these parents, who are very satisfied with the exclusive, online platform that has taken the place of the textbook in many of these classes, serving to give the students a truly unique, bilingual or monolingual experience in the FL, with translations and material that has been originally created or edited by the teachers. As such, this might be the reason the parents agree with the item related to the textbook, since, as the majority of them were online, they might have been referring to that.

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING: CHAPTER 6. QUALITATIVE RESULTS AND DISCUSSION



Graph 64: Materials and resources (parents' questionnaires responses)

Per responses from the fourth block, **assessment**, consisting of 12 items, the parents are exceptionally satisfied in this particular area (cf. Graph 66). The entirety of the cohort believe that their child's performance has improved due to diversity measures being enacted (item 33). The parents believe that the evaluation criteria being used are fair (item 28) and confirm that diversity is being taken into account during assessment (item 29). For formative assessment, parents uphold the idea that teachers are taking diversity measures (item 30) and are providing detailed guidelines (item 34) and regular feedback and personalization (item 35), all three responses which align with findings from Ramón Ramos (2023). However, whilst the parents express mixed sentiments about the assigning of differentiated homework (item 37), they do see diverse activities being assigned to students based on ability (items 36), sentiments which diverge from Ramón Ramos (2023), in which parents said classroom activities are not being adapted nor is homework being diversified. As for summative assessment, the majority of the parents affirm that the teachers are catering to diversity (item 31), in line with Ráez Padilla (2018) and Ramón Ramos (2023) and making adequate use of grading rubrics (item 32). A slight majority of the parents affirm the use of highlighted words and adapted vocabulary in the summative assessment (item 38); however, the majority of the cohort does not verify the use of different versions of exams for the summative evaluation process (item 39). These findings contrast with Ramón Ramos (2023) since the parents in that study did not see self-assessment techniques being utilized, nor the inclusion of adapted vocabulary on tests and the absence altogether of multiple versions of exams.

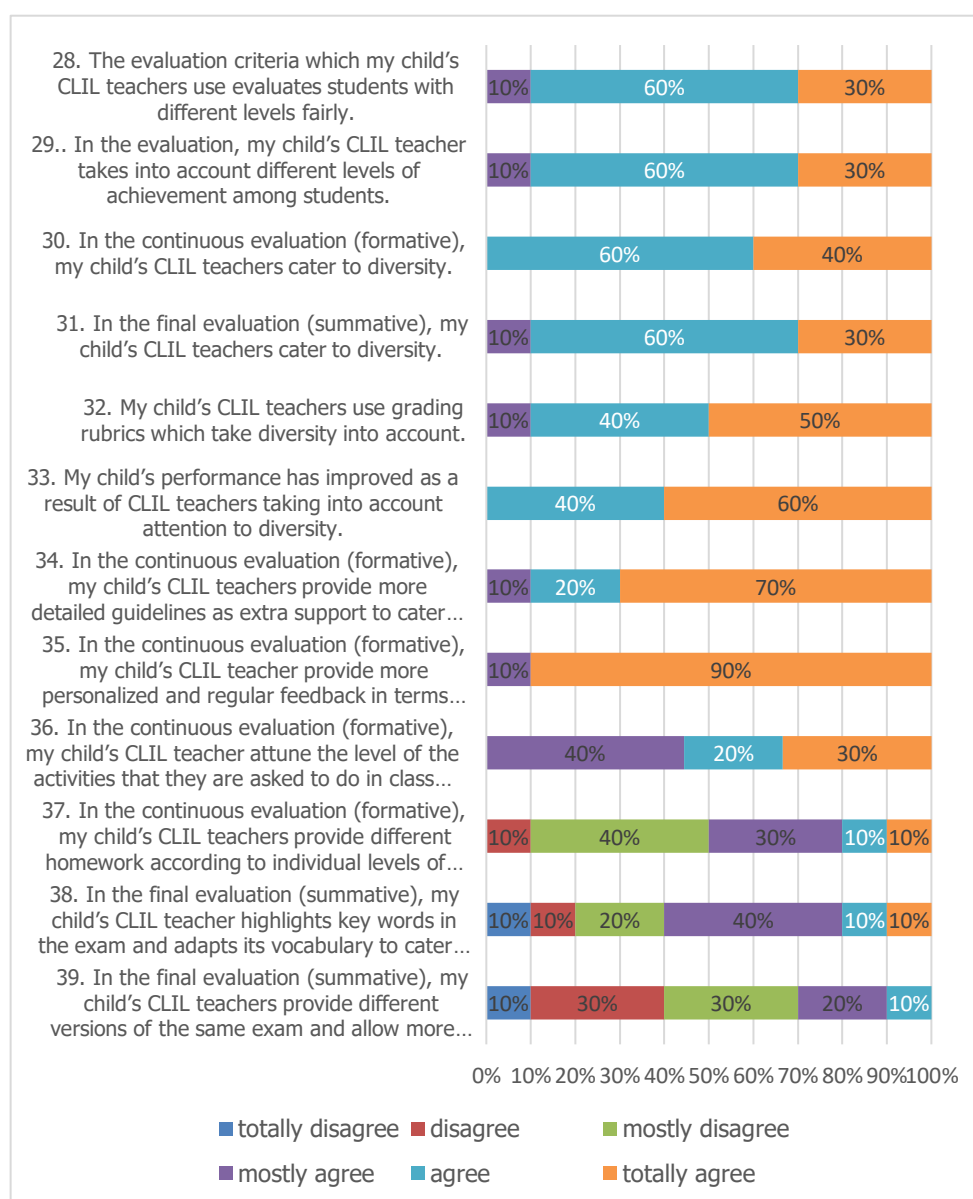
Taking the responses from all stakeholders into consideration, this cohort is the least critical of the assessment process at the school. They portray a feeling of blind faith in the

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING:
CHAPTER 6. QUALITATIVE RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

teachers' ability to cater to a wide range of students, as revealed by the findings from the questionnaires: all of the items in this block, save two, are responded to positively. Parents believe catering to diversity happens with both formative and summative evaluations, inconsistent with Pérez Cañado (2023). Similarly, they positively view extra guidelines and personalized feedback, in line with Pérez Cañado (2023). However, they are divided over the use of differentiated homework. The only item which befell negative responses was regarding the use of differentiated exams, which these parents deny is taking place, a finding consistent with findings from Pérez Cañado (2023). These findings are aligned mostly with Milla Lara and Casas Pedrosa (2018) and Ráez Padilla (2018), studies which found parents to be quite optimistic in their judgement of this facet. However, many of the feelings are in contrast to Ramón Ramos (2023) as parents were less satisfied in this area. There was a specific concern in previous studies (Milla Lara & Casas Pedrosa, 2018; Ráez Padilla, 2018) which did not resonate with parents in this study: the inclusion of guidelines (mainly for tests and homework) in the L1 that would allow parents to help their offspring with the CLIL material. This is most likely due to the higher-SES status of the parents in our study, but might also be related to the age of the students in the study (15-16 years of age), and as previously noted, student autonomy might be what is helping CLIL students do better, since parents are no longer able to help them with their schoolwork, giving students increased autonomy and a sense of responsibility. This same sentiment is expressed by Ráez Padilla (2018) who found that parents with high SES/higher levels of education are more confident in the amount of support they can offer their children in the FL.

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING: CHAPTER 6. QUALITATIVE RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Vis-à-vis this facet, the parents are overwhelmingly pleased with it when it comes to their offspring's bilingual program, as they fully believe it is more than capable of attending to the diverse learners in the classroom. In contrary to findings from Ramón Ramos (2023), the parents are the most satisfied with this aspect of the three stakeholders, whereas the author (2023) found teachers to be the most satisfied. However, it must be added that, despite the positive responses, there was an item that did not glean positive reviews: the use of differentiated exams and/or giving extra time for exams, also found to be disagreed upon by the previously mentioned author (2023). This most likely falls in line with the teachers' beliefs, in that since this is a private school, the students are more than capable and are not in need of adaptation practices. Unlike the parents in our study, parents in Ramón Ramos (2023) did not see the use of differentiated homework as a diversity strategy.



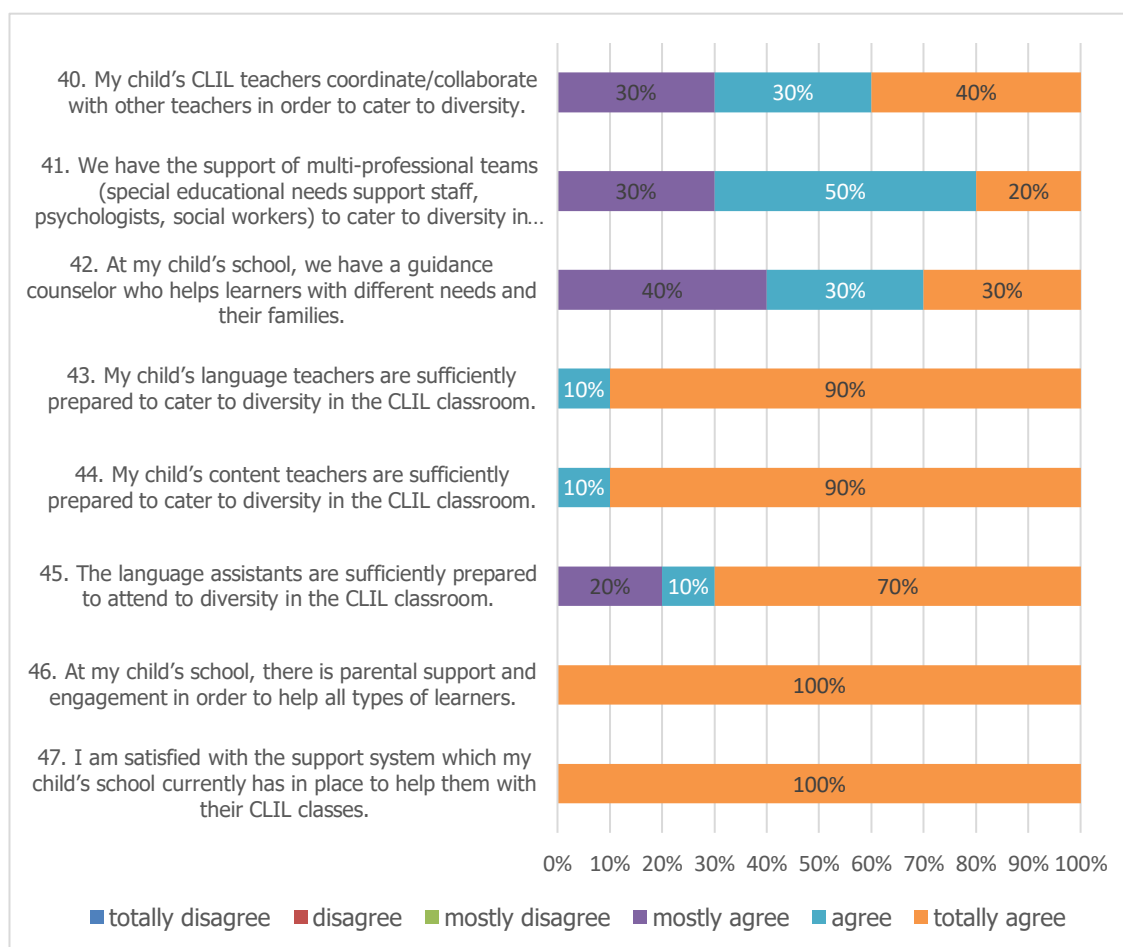
Graph 65: Assessment (parents' questionnaires responses)

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING:
CHAPTER 6. QUALITATIVE RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Finally, replies from the eight items pertaining to the fifth and last block, **collaboration and teacher training**, exude the most confidence from parents, as all eight statements are responded to positively (cf. Graph 67). The parents believe the teachers are collaborating and coordinating (item 40), confirm the support of a multi-professional team (item 41), and corroborate the presence of a guidance counselor (item 42). They are very confident in teachers' ability to deal with diversity it comes to the various teachers their offspring are in contact with: language (item 43), content (item 44), and teaching assistants (item 45). They assert there is excellent parental support and engagement (item 46) and evince total satisfaction in terms of the school's overall support system (item 47).

If one block outshines the rest in its degree of satisfaction it is this fifth and final block of collaboration and training for this cohort (consistent with findings from Pérez Cañado, 2023 and Ramón Ramos, 2023 and mainly in line with Ráez Padilla, 2018). All of the items in this section are responded positively to by the entire cohort. However, these findings are in direct contrast to Milla Lara and Casas Pedrosa (2018), where parents were much more pessimistic regarding teachers' training. Compared to other recent research, excepting the support of the multi-professional team, in which findings from Pérez Cañado (2023) diverge, all other items from this aspect of the CLIL program converge. The parents from our study see collaboration happening, and, as previously mentioned in the sections related to linguistic aspects and methodology, they are quite confident in teachers' preparation linguistically and content-wise. Parental support as an item is responded to positively, again, as evinced by the students and teachers who also confirm this, although this diverges from findings from Ramón Ramos (2023), where parents did not value their involvement to as a high of a degree as the parents in our study. This can once again be explained by the context-specific variables pertinent to the parents in our investigation.

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING: CHAPTER 6. QUALITATIVE RESULTS AND DISCUSSION



Graph 66: Collaboration and teacher training (parents' questionnaires responses)

6.4.2. Statistical differences by variables

In the analysis of the parents' questionnaires several intervening variables were examined: age, SES, gender, level of studies and nationality. Of these five variables, two, age and SES, were found to have any statistically significant effect on the responses from this cohort, following the same pattern from the teachers' and students' perceptions, clearly substantiating the homogeneity of the responses on behalf of these stakeholders.

In regard to age, several aspects of the CLIL program seem to be affected by the parents' age (cf. Table 39). For the first block, linguistic aspects, older parents (51-60 years of age) find that these classes are more challenging for their offspring when shared with students who have varying levels of academic achievement (item 2). As for linguistic support given by the teachers (item 3), the younger group of parents (41-50 years of age) view this more positively than their older counterparts.

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING:
CHAPTER 6. QUALITATIVE RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Item	Age	N	Mean	SD	Rosenthal's R	p-value
2	41-50	8	2.25	0.46	0.662	0.036
	51-60	2	3.50	0.71		
3	41-50	8	5.63	0.52	-0.086	0.036
	51-60	2	5.00	0.00		

Table 37: Statistically significant differences within the parent cohort for linguistic aspects in terms of age.

For the second block, methodology and groupings, three items were affected by the parents' ages (cf. Table 40). For items 13 (use of multiple intelligences), 17 (mixed-ability pairings), and 18 (mixed-ability groupings), the older parents (51-60 years of age) view these strategies as being used to more of a degree than their younger counterparts.

Item	Age	N	Mean	SD	Rosenthal's R	p-value
13	41-50	8	3.63	0.92	0.643	0.042
	51-60	2	5.50	0.71		
17	41-50	8	3.88	0.64	0.627	0.047
	51-60	2	5.00	0.00		
18	41-50	8	3.88	0.64	0.665	0.035
	51-60	2	5.50	0.71		

Table 38: Statistically significant differences within the parent cohort for methodology and groupings in terms of age.

Lastly, the variable of age had an effect on the parents' perceptions of the evaluation and assessment facet of the program (cf. Table 41). Notably, for item 38, the older parents saw more adaptation and diversity measures taking place in the final evaluation than their younger counterparts.

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING:
CHAPTER 6. QUALITATIVE RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Item	Age	N	Mean	SD	Rosenthal's R	p-value
38	41-50	8	3.13	1.13	0.684	0.031
	51-60	2	5.50	0.71		

Table 39: Statistically significant differences within the parent cohort for evaluation and assessment in terms of age.

The second intervening variable that affected this cohorts' perception was SES (tables 24 and 25). Linguistically, the parents with medium SES found CLIL classes to be harder for their children when mixed-ability students participated (cf. Table 42). As for methodology and groupings (cf. Table 43), the medium SES parents believe, to a higher degree than their high-SES counterparts, that multiple intelligences are being used (item 13), as well as mixed-ability pairings (item 17) and groupings (item 18).

Item	SES	N	Mean	SD	Rosenthal's R	p-value
2	Medium	2	3.50	0.71	-0.662	0.036
	High	8	2.25	0.46		

Table 40: Statistically significant differences within the parent cohort for linguistic aspects in terms of SES.

Item	SES	N	Mean	SD	Rosenthal's R	p-value
13	Medium	2	5.50	0.71	-0.643	0.042
	High	8	3.63	0.92		
17	Medium	2	5.00	0.00	-0.627	0.047
	High	8	3.88	0.64		
18	Medium	2	5.50	0.71	-0.665	0.035
	High	8	3.88	0.64		

Table 41: Statistically significant differences within the parent cohort for methodology and groupings in terms of SES.

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING:
CHAPTER 6. QUALITATIVE RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Thus, we can gather that the younger parents are more satisfied with the linguistic support of the teachers, which probably is related to younger parents having more confidence that these teachers are prepared, linguistically, to teach their children, whereas their older counterparts are more hesitant to believe that just because the teachers are native, they are able to linguistically cater to their children. Similarly, the older parents find that these classes are more of a challenge for their students, whereas their younger peers do not see them as being as challenging, again, meaning the older parents are more aware of the inherent difficulty that comes to teaching discrepant levels of content and language in a same classroom. However, age also revealed that the older the parents, the more varied the methodology was perceived. This is related to age since younger parents are probably not as aware of diversified methodologies, and are more in tune to ICT-related techniques. In that same vein, it took more maturity for parents to appreciate a diversity in the assessment measures being used on their offspring. Again, this is most pertinent to the fact that younger parents might not be aware of diversity measures when it comes to assessment, and are more familiar with standardized testing or external examinations, such as the ones that are used in this private center.

When it comes to SES, while the medium-SES parents believe the classes are harder, they are also more appreciative of more diversified methodology taking place than their higher-SES counterparts, which is most likely related to the fact that the medium-SES parents have less knowledge of the FL, and therefore, find these classes to be much more of a challenge for their offspring, whereas the higher-SES might have a better knowledge of a FL or be providing their offspring with a tutor that can help them. Related to methodology and groupings, the medium-SES are probably more appreciative since they are holding this private institution in very high regard, whereas the higher-SES parents are more discerning when it comes to their children's education. This is contrasted with findings from Ráez Padilla (2018) who found that SES played a role in parents' perceptions by boosting confidence levels with the CLIL program in the higher-SES parents, where our study found the medium-SES parents to be more satisfied with more aspects.

Differences aside, overall, the parental cohort is, by far and wide, the most pleased of the three cohorts included in this study, manifested by the fact that, of the 60 items, less than five were responded to negatively. The parents are, as a cohort, quite reassured in the steps being taken for catering for diversity, although, there are some parts of the program that they are unsure about, mainly, the use of the mother tongue for better content acquisition and the use of newcomer classes. The parents seem to reject, totally, the use of the L1 in the content class, preferring a totally monolingual use of the FL in the content-subject. As well, this cohort is also seemingly unconcerned with their own L2 proficiency, contrary to findings by Ráez Padilla (2018) and Barrios and Milla Lara (2018), who found parents to be critical of the bilingual program

due to the fact that their own FL competence limited the amount of guidance they were able to give their offspring.

Upon this completion of the parental views, an across-cohort dissection, from a qualitative standpoint, will commence, to gather a more precise understanding of the viewpoints from the three stakeholders and how they line up with, or digress from, one another.

6.5. Direct observations

The last instrument to complete the qualitative data came from the direct observations, consisting in two CLIL class observations. As previously mentioned, the direct observations took part in the same academic year as the study (2018/2019) and involved two of the three cohorts (students and teachers). Two standard 55-minute long CLIL classes were observed, both of which were taught by teachers involved in the study, who had previously participated by filling out the questionnaires and were subsequently interviewed. The direct observations sought to look into the methodological practices of the teachers corresponding to attention to diversity, following guidelines from the questionnaires themselves, for all items that were able to be appreciated in a classroom observation. The classes observed were Biology and Business, and Hora and Ferrare's (2014) *Teaching Dimensions Observation Protocol* was followed to categorize the behavior as objectively and impartially as possible, focusing on descriptive rather than judgmental observations, keeping in line with the items from the questionnaires as much as possible.

The two subjects, in themselves unrelated (Biology and Business), were also quite different in the teacher profile: Biology was taught by a Spanish national with a C1 English certificate, and Business was taught by a native English-speaking teacher. Thus, the classes were quite different methodologically.

Following the TDOP observation protocol, several teacher-focused methods of instruction were carried out in both classes: lecturing, lecturing while writing, lecturing from pre-made visuals, Socratic lecturing, working out problems, individualized or group instruction, and administrative tasks.

Both of the teachers' main pedagogical practice was lecturing, albeit in different modalities: while writing, explaining pre-made visuals, and Socratic lecturing. Pure lecturing only took up a minority of the class time, and was hardly noticed since it was mainly used for the other two types of lecturing (accompanied by visuals or in a Socratic manner where students are asked questions during the lecture and their responses are complementing the discussion). In the subject of Biology, the majority of the lecture took place with the accompaniment of pre-made visuals, featuring diagrams, photocopies, and online materials. The class was mainly teacher-

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING:
CHAPTER 6. QUALITATIVE RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

based in the sense that the teacher was in the front of the class the majority of the time, although, the teacher did answer individual questions and moved around quite a bit. On the other hand, the Business class featured mainly Socratic lecturing, in which the teacher was having more of a discussion with the students, and the majority of the teacher's lecture were questioned aimed at the students. Thus, the students were participating orally to a much higher degree, even though the teacher was at the front of the class the majority of the time and from appearances, was a teacher-based classroom.

When it came to the completion of activities, both of which were group-based, the teachers were walking around the entire time, notably helping students who seemed to be struggling more. The teachers seemed to know right away who needed help and spent the majority of the group-work time with a reduced number of students. Some students did not receive, during the lesson, any help at all, and seemed to work individually.

Linguistically, these classes were polar opposites. As mentioned before, one of the teachers was a Spanish national, while the other was a native English speaker. The biology class, taught by the Spanish national, featured much more translanguaging situations, especially for more scientific terms in which the teachers made sure the students learned vocabulary in both English and Spanish. It must be noted that there were also a few students in the class that held a language other than Spanish and English as their L1 and thus, they were told at the end of class to get out their personal devices to find the translation in their mother tongue (in all cases, Chinese). On the other hand, the Business teacher had a relatively limited command of the Spanish language, and thus, the class was lectured entirely in English. The students thus, amongst themselves, were frequently charged with explaining and defining terms for less competent English speakers, as the teacher demonstrated relatively few linguistic strategies to help struggling L2 learners. In both classes, the students spoke Spanish amongst themselves, although there were, in each class, a group of foreign students who sat together and spoke another L1, different than both Spanish and English, between themselves.

Administrative tasks were, in both instances, carried out at the end of class. Homework was discussed, as well as the deadline for a project, in the Business class, and the upcoming date of an exam in the Biology class. The Business teacher took a laxer approach, and gave instructions and the homework assignment orally, also seemingly giving out a more flexible understanding of the homework assignment, which was not understood to be mandatory, but, for students who wished to do it. The deadline for the project was also seemingly flexible as the teacher mentioned that students who turned it in earlier would be given extra credit, but those who did not turn it in would not be penalized. The Biology teacher did not assign different homework, nor different dates. The homework was mandatory for everyone in the class, written down on the board, and

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING: CHAPTER 6. QUALITATIVE RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

the teacher made sure the students wrote it down in their agendas. All of the students were required to do the same exercises, and it was due the next class.

The end of the class ended similarly in both cases, with the teachers sitting at their desks, and some students taking advantage of the moment to come and talk to the teacher while the rest of the students either left the room quickly, or stayed around finishing some work or talking. It was noted that in both classes there were several students who were much more verbally present in the class, demanding more help and attention, who received much more individualized attention, as compared to other students who either did not need help or who simply did not ask for it. As the assessment part of the class took place on another day, another, short, observation took place specifically during an exam. Thus, the way examinations were proctored was also factored in to ensure a more rounded observation of the CLIL methodology and all its elements.

To draw attention to the variance in the CLIL program, we can distinguish more clearly the differences in the classrooms depending on teacher and subject area (cf. Table 34). The Biology class, while still mainly taught in the L2, did see more L1 usage by the teacher, mainly for purposes of translation and code-switching. For the Business class, the class was taught entirely in English, and there was no use of L1 used for translation or code-switching, and students had to rely on translation platforms themselves or among themselves. The student behavior in the classrooms was, related to L2 use, very similar, as the students did not use much English in the class, although this was used to a higher degree in the Business class, as it was the vehicular language used to communicate with the teacher. The students translated frequently in the classroom between themselves and used code-switching related to the more technical vocabulary. As emphasized before in the interviews, ensuring key words and terms were understood in both languages was important for one of the teachers, since they knew these students would need to know the terms also in Spanish in the future, in line with Bauer-Marschallinger et al. (2023).

These teachers are not translating their classes, which contradicts findings by Casas Pedrosa and Rascón Moreno (2023) and Siepmann et al. (2023) who found the opposite to be true. There was a real sense from these teachers of wanting to keep the CLIL classes as monolingual as possible, with an English-only focal point; thus, the scarce use of L1, as it seemed, especially on behalf of the Biology teacher, as if she was not permitted to use it, so there was a very careful, calculated use of Spanish.

In the case of the limited, or non-existent, L1 used and competence in the other teacher, this was a frustrating point for the students as seen in the direct observations, as some of the students were trying to ask questions in Spanish but had to rely on their peers instead. However, the sentiments from the student and teacher interviews and questionnaires did corroborate that neither the students nor the teachers seemed to be affected by the various linguistic levels of the

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING: CHAPTER 6. QUALITATIVE RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

students in the class; none of the stakeholders involved seemed to find these classes to be more challenging solely based on L2 variation.

However, when it came to diversity, this seemed to be the main focal point, especially related to new students, who had not been at the school more than a year, or who had only enrolled that year, and thus, were severely limited in their L2 capacity, and the foreign students, whose L1 and L2 were behind that of their peers. These students were making heavy use of their devices to translate during the class.

When it came to L2 confidence, we will only focus on one teacher, since the other was a native-English speaker, but this teacher had prepared the classes beforehand, and was ready with definitions, synonyms, and pronunciations, as a way to boost her confidence before the class began. This goes in line with Pérez Cañado (2024), since a C2 is now considered to be necessary to properly give CLIL classes, and the teacher, even though in possession of a C2 certificate, still only felt lukewarm in their CALP ability, in line with Pérez Cañado (2023).

When it came to students' use of the L2 in class, students that had been at the school for many years were more comfortable using the language and did interact with the teacher in English. However, for new students, English was almost never used and, in the majority of the circumstances, the students were using the L1 between them (cf. Table 44).

USE OF L2 IN CLASS	Class 1 Biology	Class 2 Business
Teacher's FL level	C1	C2
Amount of class lectured in English	75%	100%
Teacher translates to L1	Frequently	Never
Teacher uses code-switching	Frequently	Never
Linguistic level of students is sufficient	Definitely	Definitely
Students use of English in class	Not much	Not much-Frequently
Students translate in class	Very frequently	Frequently
Students use code-switching	Frequently	Frequently

Table 42: Use of L2 in class observed

Turning to the discursive functions of the L2 used in class, there was not that much variation seen between the two classes, except for the fact that the native English teacher, in the Business class, used English for all the discursive functions, while there was more of an L1-L2 mix seen in the Biology class, where Spanish was used to clear doubts, correct problems aloud in class, interact with some of the students, and to give individual feedback (cf. Table 45).

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING:
CHAPTER 6. QUALITATIVE RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

As observed in these classroom situations, there appeared only to be differentiation techniques taking place as related to L2 competence. In line with findings from Bauer-Marschallinger et al. (2023) and Nikula et al. (2023), the teachers in this study did not perceive diversity in terms of academic ability to be entirely present, but focused more on varying levels in the L2, which were present in both classrooms observed, with the presence of new and foreign students. The teachers in the previously mentioned study (Bauer-Marschallinger et al., 2023) did not differentiate students in terms of academic achievement, but only reported catering to students linguistically regarding English competence.

L2 discursive functions used	Class 1 Biology	Class 2 Business
To give instructions	All of the time	All of the time
To introduce the topic	All of the time	All of the time
To give content	All of the time	All of the time
To do the activities	All of the time	All of the time
To clear doubts	Frequently	All of the time
To ask questions	All of the time	All of the time
To correct problems	Frequently	All of the time
To go over content	All of the time	All of the time
To organize group work	All of the time	All of the time
To interact with the students/teachers	Frequently	All of the time
To give feedback	Frequently	All of the time

Table 43: Discursive functions used in the classroom observations

Homing in on the development of competences in class as facilitated by teaching practices was also a main component in the direct observations, and how the four skills related to speaking, reading, writing, and listening were developed in class (cf. Table 46). Here, the different types of content were really put into perspective, as the Biology class, stemming from the Sciences, had much more technical vocabulary related to the content, and thus, more emphasis was given on critical learning, and the teacher put a lot of time into ensuring a complete understanding of the subject in both languages, by developing a more rounded learning of scientific terminology, not only spoken but also related to reading and writing. The other subject, Business, had a much more oral approach, and students were encouraged to develop oral comprehension and expression, and prevalence was given to this over written expression and reading. Metalinguistic awareness was, as stated before, given precedence in the Biology class, as the teacher really

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING:
CHAPTER 6. QUALITATIVE RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

tried to ensure an understanding of Biology jargon, in both languages. Unfortunately, intercultural aspects of the FL were not given any attention during either of the classes.

There was a definite correlation to behavior observed by Nikula (2023), in which teachers did not want to draw attention to any students. This was seen in the direct observations, as these teachers did not force any students to talk nor did they probe any students who had less than almost complete confidence in their L2 level. Teachers reported encouraging their students to interact in English during the interviews, but later, this was not seen in the direct observations and most of the students interacted between themselves in the Spanish language.

Development of competences in class	Class 1 Biology	Class 2 Business
Oral comprehension	All of the time	All of the time
Oral expression	Frequently	Frequently
Written comprehension	Frequently	Not much
Written expression	Frequently	Never
Listening and speaking	All of the time	All of the time
Reading and writing	Frequently	Not much
Critical capacity	Frequently	Not much
Creativity	Frequently	Frequently
Autonomous learning	Frequently	Frequently
Metalinguistic consciousness	Frequently	Not much
Intercultural aspects of the FL	Not much	Never

Table 44: Development of competences in classroom observations

When it came to observed methodology and groupings, their use was quite heterogeneous in both classes (cf. Table 47). Both of the classes observed employed task- and project-based learning as well as cooperative learning, in line with the interviews, focus groups, and questionnaires. The methodology was definitely communicative in both classrooms, although there was more copying down and memorizing in the Biology class, which saw more of a traditional methodology used when it came to the learning of certain content concepts. Both of the classes employed a Socratic lecturing methodology and the students were very participative and vocal. The classes were very visual, and there was ample support through scaffolding in both classes, although these were manifested differently. The Biology class employed more written texts, with pictures and diagrams, and used the online platform, whereas the Business class employed videos and presentations. Both of the classes had the students working in groups. As

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING:
CHAPTER 6. QUALITATIVE RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

for scaffolding, it is, linguistically, one of the most effective way teachers are coping with diversity in the classroom, congruent with findings from Casas Pedrosa and Rascón Moreno (2023), Pérez Cañado (2023), Siepmann et al. (2023), and Somers (2017, 2018).

The repertoire of methods used was in line with the findings from the interviews and questionnaires, and congruent with Bauer-Marschallinger et al. (2023), Casas Pedrosa and Rascón Moreno (2023), and partially with Siepmann et al. (2023), since the teachers seemed to be using personalized and individual attention methods, as well as scaffolding with visuals. Student-centered work was definitely the most observed tactic in the direct observations in line with findings from Bauer-Marschallinger et al. (2023) Casas Pedrosa and Rascón Moreno (2023). Pérez Cañado (2023), Ramón Ramos (2023), and Siepmann et al. (2023). In both classes, the teachers relied on the students to help their peers when it came to doubts and, in the case of the Business class, translations.

Methodology and groupings	Class 1 Biology	Class 2 Business
Task-based learning	Frequently	Frequently
Project-based learning	Frequently	Frequently
Priority is given to the lexical dimension	Not much	Never
Cooperative learning	Frequently	Frequently
Grammar-translation method	Not much	Never
Audiolingual method	Never	Never
Open-ended activities	Frequently	Frequently
Single-answer activities	Frequently	Not much
Low-cognitive level activities (memorize, understand, apply)	Frequently	Frequently
High-cognitive activities (analyze, evaluate, create)	Not much	Frequently
The teacher promotes scaffolding (through paraphrasing, repeating, examples, defining, synonyms and antonyms)	Frequently	Frequently

Table 45: Methodology and groupings in the classroom observations

As for materials and resources (cf. Table 48), this was another point of inflection between the two classes. The Biology class relied much more on the textbook and online resources that were in the online platform, whereas the Business class used more originally designed and authentic materials. Neither of the teachers had diversity factors featured in the materials. Both classes saw copious amounts of online materials, and the use of the digital platform. As there was no digital whiteboard, and it were not used, but both classes employed the digital projector.

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING:
CHAPTER 6. QUALITATIVE RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

There was much more manual drawing on the whiteboard in the Biology class, but the board was not used, other than as the backdrop for the projector, in the Business class.

Computer skills were also a point of inflection in the direct observations. There are teachers who do not have the ICT skills they would desire to be able to make their classes as digital as possible, as heralded from the interviews, and are spending a lot of time on material creation, a sentiment voiced in the interviews and questionnaires. The teachers know some of their resources are boring, but feel unable to do anything about that. Having experience or training in ICT is a key factor for teachers when it comes to digital resources. This was seen in the direct observations: one of the teachers with experience and training in the field of technology used gamification in the class, and the class was very technologically-connected. The students were really focused with their use of devices and there was a clear sense of purpose when they were using their devices, which was directly linked to the class. This is in juxtaposition with the Biology lesson, which was more paper and pencil based, and with more of a traditional methodology when it came to materials and resources. However, even though the class did not specifically require the use of devices, all of the students had their devices throughout the class. This led to a bit of a struggle during the class, since the students were, more often than not, using the device for personal use not related to the subject. However, it seemed to be an integrate part of the classroom pathos, and all of the students had their devices out, on their desks the entire lesson.

However, when it came to grouping, there was inconsistency with the findings from the questionnaires and teacher interviews, as there was very little mixed-ability grouping taking place. While this was affirmed to be taking place by the teacher theoretically, in practice, the groups were mainly by ability, and linguistic level. All of the foreigners sat together, in both classes, and there were clear tendencies to see groups of students who were able to get through the content, whereas the students who were struggling more were also sitting together. It should be noted that all of the students chose where they want to sit, and only in the case of the Business class, when one student had to be asked to move by the teacher for disciplinary reasons, there was no intervention by the teachers.

Materials and resources	Class 1 Biology	Class 2 Business
Authentic materials are used	Not much	Frequently
Adapted materials are used	Not much	Not much
Originally designed materials are used	Not much	Frequently
Diversity factors are employed in the materials	Not much	Not much
Multimedia software is used	Not much	Frequently

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING:
CHAPTER 6. QUALITATIVE RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Online materials are used	Frequently	Frequently
Blogs, wikis, and web quests are used	Not much	Not much
Digital whiteboards are used	Never	Never
Online communication platforms are used	Frequently	Frequently

Table 46: Material and resources in the classroom observations

Turning now to the coordination and organization that took place during the observations, behavior observed reinforced what was recomplied from the interviews, focus groups, and questionnaires: this is a major limitation in this particular CLIL program, as there seems to be little to no coordination between teachers (cf. Table 49). Another unfortunate finding seems to be the lack of interdisciplinary content seen in class, although, as noted before by the Biology teacher, this had taken place once or twice before, but required so much effort it was discontinued. These teachers are preparing and organizing their classes completely alone and are not reinforcing concepts across the curriculum for the students, nor is the L2 being managed between the English teachers and the content teachers.

When it comes to materials and resources used in class, the direct observations were in line with previous findings studies (e.g. Fernández & Halbach, 2011; McDougald, 2023; Pena Díaz & Porto Requejo, 2008; Pérez Cañado, 2016a, 2016b, 2018; Roiha, 2014; Siepmann & Pérez Cañado, 2022), as there was a real lack of materials in these classes, both of which could have been substantially more rounded had the teacher had more high-quality CLIL materials at their disposal. Interestingly, the Biology teacher was using more basic materials that were probably below level for the students, while the Business teacher was using authentic materials and resources that were outside the target level of the students.

Coordination and organization	Class 1 Biology	Class 2 Business
Coordination between the NLA and conversation assistant	Never	Never
Coordination between the NLA and English teacher	Never	Never
Interdisciplinary content is seen	Not much	Not much
Linguistic support is given through content	Frequently	Frequently
Content learning support is given	Frequently	Frequently
Connection is made between the L1, L2, and L3	Frequently	Never
Collaboration takes place in preparing and designing of materials	Not much	Never

Table 47: Coordination and organization in the classroom observations

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING: CHAPTER 6. QUALITATIVE RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Finally, the last component was to observe the assessment and evaluation protocols used in the classroom (cf. Table 50). A second observation was scheduled for both classes, so the exam and exam protocol could be seen by the observer, as well as how the exams were proctored. In both classes, the content was much more important than the language facet, although there was more weight given to linguistic acquisition in the Science class. However, assessment was not very diversified, and the exams did not seem to be taking diversity into account. Both of the classes used formative evaluation, with the Business class giving much more weight to formative evaluation, and the summative exams were scarce and not lengthy, as the teacher awarded more importance to formative and self-assessment. Self-evaluations were seen in both classes, not exactly in a completely organized fashion, but more impromptu, but nevertheless, prompting the students to reflect on what was learned during the lesson.

In line with Nikula et al. (2023) the teachers seemed to be quite hesitant when it came to attending to learners, as if any modifications made would be taboo, or worse, illegal. Thus, there was a real understanding that all students were to complete the same test and in the same amount of time, and no differentiation technique was used in the formative assessment. However, in line with Ramón Ramos (2023) and Siepmann et al. (2023), regularly informing the students of their grades as a way to keep them on track was seen used. Regarding the use of evaluation to cater to diversity, several of the teachers in our study conveyed only addressing linguistically-challenged students, specifically those with lower FL competences or foreign L1s (in line with Nikula et al., 2023).

Assessment and evaluation	Class 1 Biology	Class 2 Business
Priority is given to content over linguistic acquisition	Frequently	All the time
An oral component is used to evaluate	Not much	Never
Diversified evaluation takes place	Not much	Never
Interdisciplinary content is seen	Not much	Never
Formative evaluation takes place	Frequently	Frequently
Summative evaluation takes place	Frequently	Not much
The students are asked to self-evaluate	Frequently	Frequently

Table 48: Assessment evaluation in the classroom observations

All the behavior observed aligns with the data obtained from the interviews, focus groups, and questionnaires. Mainly, that these classes are very communicative-based, and integrate cooperative learning strategies as the main methodological practice. As for the L1-L2 relationship, there is a clear trend following what has already been noted by Pavón Vazquez and Ramos

Ordóñez (2019): when teachers have higher levels of confidence in their L2 skill set, the L1 is not relied on as much in the classroom. This could be seen in the case of the Biology case, since the Business teacher was a native-English speaker, since the Biology teacher had recently, as stated in the interview, received her C1 certificate, and the teacher made note that the B2 level did not give her that confidence she needed to conduct her classes effectively in the FL. Another takeaway is the digitalization of the classes, where teacher training really comes into the forefront. Especially in the case of the Biology class, even though some resources were online and students were able to access their personal devices, the teacher used printed materials and the textbook. On the other hand, the teacher of Business had much more technological training, and therefore, the class was much more digitalized.

6.6. Across-cohort comparison by thematic block

Having finished the run-down of each of the three individual cohorts separately, we will now proceed with a comparison of the findings across the three cohorts by thematic block, following the same sequence as previously employed: recompiling all of the information and responses from the seventy-seven participants in the study and scrutinizing how the responses aligned or diverged by stakeholder. The comparisons were done using Kruskal-Wallis and Mann-Whitney U. The examination of the blocks will follow the same pattern and finish with an overall view of the program.

6.6.1. Linguistic aspects

Regarding the linguistic facet, there is great harmony between the three cohorts, and of the seven items, responses are the relatively homogeneous for five. The only inconsistencies are to be had with the first two items, about the challenge students or teachers face in the CLIL classrooms with students of varying L2 competence (item 1) and academic achievement (item 2). For their part, the teachers find these classes to be challenging regarding the teaching of diverse students, both linguistically and academically, whilst the students do not find these classes to be more of a challenge when they are in a class with diverse peers. The parents, on their behalf, believe their children face more of a challenge when it comes to linguistically diverse classes but not in academically diverse classrooms. A general consensus is had that the school, and parents, place heightened emphasis on English language acquisition.

Accordingly, students and parents especially appreciate teachers' specialized knowledge in BICS and CALP as well as content knowledge, and are highly satisfied with their overall preparation as CLIL educators. In this same vein, the teachers are content with their content and L2 knowledge, deeming their communication skills (BICS) and academic language skills (CALP) as fit for dealing with diverse learners, a finding which diverges from previous studies (Pérez

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING: CHAPTER 6. QUALITATIVE RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Cañado, 2016a, 2018b, 2023; Bauer-Marschallinger et. al, 2023). Scaffolding is regarded as the most widely used strategy for linguistic- and content-related material by all three cohorts; however, there are skewed perceptions when it comes to language and content support: students and parents report more support being received than the teachers say they are giving. Finally, regarding the use of L1, none of the cohorts responded positively to this statement, concluded by all three cohorts to be rarely, if ever, used in the CLIL classrooms.

Statistically speaking, of the seven items pertinent to the study found on the questionnaires in the first segment, four of them are found to have statistically significant differences (cf. Table 50). As noted above, these differences stem from the heterogeneous perceptions related to the difficulty of the classes when learners of varying target language and academic performance are found in the same classroom, the use of scaffolding for content and the sufficiency of the teachers' BICS. We can see there is a certain level of heterogeneity in the responses, mainly the first two items related to how challenging these classes are. The differences in these responses are marked by the teacher cohort, since they did agree with the statement; however, this is not fully aligned with the sentiments of the teachers and parents, since the statements for their questionnaires was related to how challenging the classes are for the students, whereas the teachers were asked how challenging the classes were for them (the teachers). Therefore, the two cohorts who were asked about the difficulty of the class as for students were aligned in their responses (parents and students) and denied that these were more of a challenge, whereas the teacher cohort responded positively to the question, finding, from their perspective as a practitioner, the classes to be more challenging (items 1 and 2) as confirmed by the post-hoc analysis (cf. Table 51).

As for the items related to scaffolding, linguistically and content-wise (items 3 and 4, respectively), all of the stakeholders respond positively to the items; however, there are statistically significant differences found related to content scaffolding, which will be shown in the post-hoc analysis. The item related to the use of the Spanish language in class (item 5) is agreed upon by the three cohorts to not be used in class. The last linguistic items related to the teachers' communication skills (basic and academic, items 6 and 7, respectively) are also both agreed upon by all three cohorts to be sufficient. However, differences generated related to teachers' BICS warranted a post-hoc analysis.

Item (general perspective)	Group	Mean	SD	Eta	p-value
	Parents	3.60	1.51	1.661	0.003

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING:
CHAPTER 6. QUALITATIVE RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

1: CLIL classes are challenging with various FL levels	Teachers	4.67	1.21		
	Students	2.66	1.00		
2: CLIL classes are challenging with various content levels	Parents	2.50	0.71	1.654	0.003
	Teachers	4.83	1.17		
	Students	2.75	1.16		
3: Scaffolding/linguistic support	Parents	5.50	0.53	0.323	0.327
	Teachers	5.00	0.89		
	Students	4.84	1.27		
4: Scaffolding/content support	Parents	5.50	0.53	1.014	0.030
	Teachers	4.67	0.82		
	Students	4.44	1.29		
5: L1 is used to repeat whole or parts of the lesson	Parents	1.40	0.70	0.413	0.240
	Teachers	2.33	1.51		
	Students	1.53	0.72		
6: Teachers' BICS	Parents	5.70	0.48	1.039	0.027
	Teachers	5.17	0.75		
	Students	4.47	1.54		
7: Teachers' CALP	Parents	5.30	0.67	0.424	0.231
	Teachers	4.50	1.05		

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING:
CHAPTER 6. QUALITATIVE RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

	Students	4.59	1.34		

Table 49: Across-cohort comparison for linguistic aspects

As we can behold, four linguistic items warranted a post-hoc analysis. Turning back to the data from the questionnaires, the items in question are related to the difficulty of the CLIL classroom when diverse levels of the FL and content come into play, scaffolding measures related to content, and teachers' competence in basic communication skills. Thus, a post-hoc analysis was conducted to determine where these discrepancies were found (cf. Table 52). From the questionnaires, even though all of the stakeholders were in agreement with the items at hand (items 1, 2, 4, 6), the post-hoc analysis reveals in favor of whom the differences are generated. For the first two items, as previously mentioned, the differences are generated in favor of the teachers, who responded positively to the question as related to if they found CLIL classes to be more of a challenge to teach, which they think they are. On the other hand, the parents and students do not find the classes to be more of a challenge for the students. Finally, when it comes to teachers' communication skills and the use of content support strategies, the students again mark the difference by not agreeing as much as the parents and teachers.

Item	Group	Parents	Teachers	Students
1: CLIL classes are challenging with various FL levels	Parents		0.322	0.289
	Teachers	0.322		0.004
	Students	0.289	0.004	
2: CLIL classes are challenging with various content levels	Parents		0.005	>0.999
	Teachers	0.005		0.005
	Students	>0.999	0.005	
4: Scaffolding/content support	Parents		0.257	0.026
	Teachers	0.257		>0.999
	Students	0.026	>0.999	

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING:
CHAPTER 6. QUALITATIVE RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

6: Teachers' BICS	Parents		0.652	0,023
	Teachers	0.652		>0.999
	Students	0.023	>0.999	

Table 50: Post-hoc analysis across-cohort linguistic aspects

6.6.2 Groupings and methodology

A wide range of strategies and innovative CLIL methodologies are being used in the school, as affirmed by all stakeholders, although students far more critical than the teachers and parents in this respect. On the whole, the students are more critical of the diverse methodologies the teachers report implementing, and do not observe the wide variety of methodologies that teachers affirm they are using, reflecting a discrepancy amongst these two stakeholders. The students and parents agree that the CLIL lessons are functional for diverse learners, and likewise, teachers confirm they are spending a great deal of time preparing diversity-sensitive lessons. The amount of time needed for a CLIL class seems to be unanimously decided as an hour, as the student and teacher cohorts were divided on whether their CLIL lessons were sufficiently long to attend to diversity: the negative responses were later flushed out in the interviews and focus groups as pertaining to the shorter afternoon periods. The students do not have as much confidence in the wide variety of strategies taking place in the classroom, and are equally unsure if the teachers have an adequate repertoire of methods to cater for learner variance, although the parents and teachers affirm they do. As for student-led or teacher-fronted methodology, the teachers are adamant that the classroom is student-centered, a view supported, to a lesser degree, by the parents, but not entirely supported by the students, in line with Bauer-Marschallinger et al. (2023). Stakeholder perceptions are in harmony with several aspects of the methodological facet of the program, including the use of cooperative work, task- and project-based work, personalized attention, and peer-mentoring and assistance strategies. One particular strategy, Multiple Intelligences Theory, while perceived by the parents to be implemented, is not confirmed to be used by students nor teachers. For their part, the parents' and the teachers' views align on four concepts, which are disputed by the students: different groupings, heterogeneous pairing, heterogeneous groupings and the use of varied physical work spaces, in line with Pérez Cañado (2023). Finally, there is consistency across the three cohorts regarding the presence of newcomer classes at the school: students and teachers deny these are in existence, and the majority of the parents did not know how to answer or disagreed with the statement.

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING: CHAPTER 6. QUALITATIVE RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

As for overall methodological strategies and variety, the parents perceive the widest range being implemented in the CLIL classroom, followed by the teachers. The students are perceiving the least amount of strategical methods and groupings and, for their part, believe the class is more teacher-fronted, in line with Pérez Cañado (2023). This is direct contrast to teachers' perspectives, the majority of whom agree that their methodology is student-centered, with only one teacher affirming the using a teacher-led methodology to attend to diversity, in line with findings from Bauer-Marschallinger et al. (2023), where teachers were more optimistic about their classes being student-centered than the students themselves, who perceive a more teacher-fronted methodology. However, these teacher perceptions are in line with parents' perceptions, who see student-centered teaching happening, as well as different groupings, even though their offspring do not (in line with Pérez Cañado, 2023).

The parents are the most satisfied cohort with the methodological aspect of the CLIL program (in line with Pérez Cañado, 2023), followed by the teachers and then the students. Teachers believe they are using quite a varied methodology, aligned with parent perceptions, but the students are less enthusiastic, which is inconsistent with Pérez Cañado (2023), who finds that parent perceptions align with students on this point. The disparity between the student cohort perspective, when compared to the teacher and parent perspectives, might be attributed to the fact that these students are not a perfectly reliable group to reflect upon teachers' methodologies and groupings, in line with Bauer-Marschallinger et al. (2023), who notes that students cannot be completely trusted with their intuitiveness nor perception of organized strategies due to their removal from the preparation, planning, and strategizing of classes that takes place behind the scenes.

Generally speaking, this facet of the questionnaires is where there is heightened heterogeneity, since of the 16 items, only a few are answered by all three cohorts concurrently, and, statistically speaking, there are significant differences in the levels of agreement, although many items in the table are agreed upon by all three cohorts, but with varying levels of satisfaction (cf. Table 53). First and foremost, the item that stands out is the one regarding project- and task-based learning (item 14), with which all three stakeholders unanimously voiced medium to high degrees of agreement in its use in the CLIL classroom. Now, taking the statistically significant items, that is to say, the remaining 14 items, all the rest warranted a post-hoc analysis to determine in favor of whom the differences in perceptions were ascertained.

Item (general perspective)	Group	Mean	SD	Eta	p-value
	Parents	5.10	0.74	1.093	0.023

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING:
CHAPTER 6. QUALITATIVE RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

8: CLIL lessons are sensitive to students with different needs	Teachers	3.50	0.55		
	Students	4.41	1.39		
9: There is not enough time to cater to diversity in CLIL class	Parents	2.10	1.10	1.310	0.011
	Teachers	3.83	1.33		
	Students	3.63	1.36		
10: The teacher has an adequate repertoire of methods	Parents	5.40	0.84	2.187	0.001
	Teachers	4.33	1.03		
	Students	3.50	1.24		
11: CLIL is student-centered	Parents	4.70	0.95	2.473	<0.001
	Teachers	5.83	0.41		
	Students	2.88	1.72		
12: CLIL uses cooperative learning	Parents	5.00	1.05	0.933	0.039
	Teachers	5.83	0.41		
	Students	4.75	1.19		
13: CLIL uses MIT	Parents	4.00	1.15	1.514	0.005
	Teachers	2.50	1.05		
	Students	2.41	1.39		
14: CLIL uses Project/task-based learning	Parents	5.70	0.48	0.276	0.385
	Teachers	6.00	0.00		

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING:
CHAPTER 6. QUALITATIVE RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

	Students	5.72	0.63		
15: CLIL is teacher-led	Parents	3.40	1.35	1.188	0.016
	Teachers	1.67	1.21		
	Students	3.41	1.24		
16: CLIL uses different types of grouping	Parents	4.50	0.85	2.047	0.001
	Teachers	3.00	1.26		
	Students	2.69	1.23		
17: CLIL uses heterogeneous pairing	Parents	4.10	0.74	2.240	<0.001
	Teachers	3.83	2.14		
	Students	2.25	1.11		
18: CLIL uses heterogeneous grouping	Parents	4.20	0.92	1.919	0.001
	Teachers	4.00	1.67		
	Students	2.53	1.29		
19: CLIL uses personalized attention	Parents	5.60	0.70	2.699	<0.001
	Teachers	5.83	0.41		
	Students	4.41	1.04		
20: CLIL uses peer mentoring strategies	Parents	5.30	0.82	1.127	0.020
	Teachers	5.17	0.98		
	Students	4.22	1.26		

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING:
CHAPTER 6. QUALITATIVE RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

21: Different physical work spaces	Parents	4.90	1.29	1.972	0.001
	Teachers	3.50	1.05		
	Students	2.81	1.31		
22: There are newcomer classes	Parents	2.50	0.58	2.214	<0.001
	Teachers	1.00	0.00		
	Students	1.25	0.57		

Table 51: Across-cohort comparison for methodology and grouping aspects

Following the post-hoc analysis, we can see a clear trend in that the students, for the most part, are the ones who mark the difference in the opinions, whereas the parent and teacher cohort are much more aligned in their views of the methodological practices (cf. Table 54). As for the differences marked by the teachers, there are several items that are statistically different, on account of the teachers' beliefs. If the lessons are able to cater to students with diverse needs is the first item on which the teachers diverge in their thinking from students and parents: the teachers are divided in their opinion - half of them believe the CLIL lessons are sensitive for diverse learners, while the other half do not believe they are (item 8). On the other hand, the parents and students do see the lessons as being sensitive to learners with different needs. When it comes to enough time to carry out a CLIL lesson (item 9), all three cohorts mark the differences, since the parents believe there is enough time, the teachers are torn between affirmation and negation, while the students uphold the notion that there is not enough time. The parents, students and teachers agree that the teachers have an adequate repertoire of methods (item 10); however, the students mark the difference since they agree to a much lesser degree than the parents and teachers, the former of whom agree more than both. As for CLIL being student-centered, the students again mark the differences between the cohorts, as they do not see the CLIL classroom as being student-centered, whereas the teachers and parents show high levels of agreement with this statement (item 11). In this same vein, the item regarding teacher-led methodology (item 15) is also statistically significant in favor of the students, since they are torn in their degree of agreement in this regard: half of them see the methodology as being teacher-led, but the other half do not. On the contrary, the teachers and parents disagree completely with this item. Cooperative learning (item 12) is another item that, although being agreed upon by all three of the cohorts, yields statistically significant differences due to the students' more negative opinion of the use of cooperative learning (item 12), whereas the parents and teachers are in high or total agreement with its implementation. In that same vein, the use of personalized

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING:
CHAPTER 6. QUALITATIVE RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

attention and peer-mentoring as diversity strategies are agreed upon by all involved in the study (items 19 and 20), except for the students, and to a lesser degree the teachers, both of whom have a more lukewarm appreciation of this aspect than the parents. For opinions regarding multiple intelligences (item 13), it is clear that the parents mark the difference, as they are the only cohort that affirms its use in the CLIL classroom. When it comes to different types of groupings and heterogeneous groupings (items 16 and 18), both items are statistically different due to all three cohorts: for both items the parents agree, the teachers are unsure, and the students are in disagreement. The same trend can be ascertained for the methodological practice of different physical work spaces (item 21). As for heterogeneous pairing in the classroom (item 17), the differences are determined by the parents, who slightly agree or totally agree with this statement, whereas the teachers and students disagree either slightly or completely. Finally, the last item regarding the presence of newcomer classes at this particular school (item 22, is disagreed upon by all three cohorts; however, the parental cohort marks the difference in that only half of the parents responded to the question, and those that did were dubious if these classes existed or not, whereas the students and teachers were adamant in their nonexistence.

8: CLIL lessons are sensitive to students with different needs	Parents		0.018	0.473
	Teachers	0.018		0.123
	Students	0.473	0.123	
9: There is not enough time to cater to diversity in CLIL class	Parents		0.061	0.013
	Teachers	0.061		>0.999
	Students	0.013	>0.999	
10: The teacher has an adequate repertoire of methods	Parents		0.319	<0.001
	Teachers	0.319		0.616
	Students	<0.001	0.616	
11: CLIL is student-centered	Parents		0.557	0.027
	Teachers	0.557		0.001

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING:
CHAPTER 6. QUALITATIVE RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

	Students	0.027	0.001	
12: CLIL uses cooperative learning	Parents		0.221	>0.999
	Teachers	0.221		0.033
	Students	>0.999	0.033	
13: CLIL uses MIT	Parents		0.161	0.004
	Teachers	0.161		>0.999
	Students	0.004	>0.999	
15: CLIL is teacher-led	Parents		>0.999	0.056
	Teachers	>0.999		0.014
	Students	0.056	0.014	
16: CLIL uses different types of grouping	Parents		<0.001	0.124
	Teachers	<0.001		>0.999
	Students	0.124	>0.999	
17: CLIL uses heterogeneous pairing	Parents		>0.999	0.126
	Teachers	>0.999		0.001
	Students	0.126	0.001	
18: CLIL uses heterogeneous grouping	Parents		>0.999	0.002
	Teachers	>0.999		0.124
	Students	0.002	0.124	

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING:
CHAPTER 6. QUALITATIVE RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

19: CLIL uses personalized attention	Parents		>0.999	0.002
	Teachers	>0.999		0.003
	Students	0.002	0.003	
20: CLIL uses peer mentoring strategies	Parents		>0.999	0.039
	Teachers	>0.999		0.245
	Students	0.039	0.245	
21: Different physical work spaces	Parents		0.330	0.001
	Teachers	0.330		0.770
	Students	0.001	0.770	
22: There are newcomer clases	Parents		0.001	0.001
	Teachers	0.001		>0.999
	Students	0.001	>0.999	

Table 52: Across-cohort methodology and groupings post-hoc analysis

6.6.3. Materials and resources

The responses from the three cohorts regarding materials and resources once again show harmony between the parents and teachers more so than the students. The teachers, for their part, emphasize the amount of time they spend finding, adapting, and creating materials, whilst the students show no appreciation or understanding of where the materials they are using come from. Technology and ICT are a crux to these classes, as affirmed by all cohorts, and is most likely why materials and resources at this school are positively viewed by the majority of the cohorts. As for the textbooks, the students seem to be on the same page as the teachers, both whom confirm that the textbooks are no longer suitable for what is needed in the CLIL classroom, although parents' perceptions fall on the other side of the spectrum in this regard.

Overall, teachers are more aware of the time and energy they put into creating and accessing materials, a hidden task that the students do not see, in line with Pérez Cañado (2023)

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING: CHAPTER 6. QUALITATIVE RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

and Bauer-Marschallinger et al. (2023). All three stakeholders are content with this aspect of the CLIL program, although parents are the most satisfied cohort in this block, followed closely behind by students and teachers, who also show high levels of satisfaction.

Of the seven items within this facet, all seven reveal statistically significant differences (cf. Table 55). This shows that the students, parents and teachers have different perspectives when it comes to materials and resources in the CLIL classroom. The parents, for their part, see the materials as being quite functional, and catering to diversity. The teachers and students are less satisfied in this regard, although the teachers are much more satisfied than the students, in line with the majority of the items from the questionnaire in general: teachers and parents are more satisfied than the students when it comes to attending to diversity and we can see a clear trend in this particular block: the parents are unanimous in their satisfaction when it comes to materials and resources, agreeing with all five items, the teachers are less satisfied, agreeing with two of the five items (items 26 and 27), disagreeing with one item (item 23), and unsure about the remaining two items (items 24 and 25). Again, it must be reiterated that some of the items on the teacher questionnaire, while similar to the student and parent questionnaires, focused on the perspective of the teacher, such as the use of adapted and originally created materials. Therefore, while the parents see the use of adapted and originally created materials (items 24 and 25), the teachers both agree and disagree with these statements, as pertaining to if they are creating them or not, which we interpreted to mean they were, or were not, being used in the classroom. As we can behold from the table, all five items warranted a post-hoc analysis.

Item (general perspective)	Group	Mean	SD	Eta	p-value
23: CLIL materials and resources take diversity into account	Parents	4.70	0.82	3.403	<0.001
	Teachers	1.00	0.00		
	Students	2.56	1.32		
24: CLIL uses adapted materials	Parents	4.70	1.42	1.607	0.004
	Teachers	4.00	1.26		
	Students	2.78	1.52		

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING:
CHAPTER 6. QUALITATIVE RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

25: CLIL uses originally created materials	Parents	5.10	1.10	2.036	0.001
	Teachers	4.33	0.82		
	Students	3.00	1.55		
26: CLIL uses ICT	Parents	5.70	0.48	2.754	<0.001
	Teachers	5.67	0.82		
	Students	3.78	1.50		
27: CLIL uses multimodal instruction	Parents	5.30	0.82	2.035	0.001
	Teachers	5.83	0.41		
	Students	4.13	1.39		

Table 53: Across-cohort comparison for materials and resources

The post-hoc analysis revealed discrepancies in the beliefs mainly stemming from the students, who are by far the less satisfied with this block, as we have mentioned before, most likely due to the invisibility of the labor carried out by the CLIL teacher. The students do not agree that CLIL materials and resources take diversity into account, nor does it use adapted and originally created materials (cf. Table 56). This is an issue that the teachers are divided about, again, due to the fact that the statement concerns the creation (from the perspective of the teacher) and adaptation of the materials, half of the teachers affirming they were doing this, and the other half which disagreed to be doing this. For both items, the parents agree, in line with what was previously mentioned about the online platform, something the parents are heavily invested in. As for the last two items, it is the teachers who mark the difference, as they are in total agreement with these statements, agreeing 100% in the use of ICT and multimodal instruction, compared to a weaker, albeit positive, view of these by the parents and students.

23: CLIL materials and resources take diversity into account	Parents		<0.001	0.001
	Teachers	<0.001		0.038
	Students	0.001	0.038	

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING:
CHAPTER 6. QUALITATIVE RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

24: CLIL uses adapted materials	Parents		>0.999	0.005
	Teachers	>0.999		0.269
	Students	0.005	0.269	
25: CLIL uses originally created materials	Parents		>0.999	0.001
	Teachers	>0.999		0.197
	Students	0,001	0.197	
26: CLIL uses ICT	Parents		>0.999	0.001
	Teachers	>0.999		0.008
	Students	0.001	0.008	
27: CLIL uses multimodal instruction	Parents		0.861	0.040
	Teachers	0.861		0.003
	Students	0.040	0.003	

Table 54: Across-cohort materials and resources post-hoc analysis

6.6.4. Assessment

On the whole, assessment is quite positively perceived by all three cohorts, although most negatively perceived by the students and teachers regarding both formative and summative evaluation. For their part, the parents are completely satisfied with this facet, and positively view all aspects, except for the employment of differentiated exams, which they deny are being used, and the use of differentiated homework, which they dispute is assigned. For their part, per the responses, the teachers seem to be utilizing assessment techniques as the principal tactic to cater to the diverse student population they are working with. They affirm they are using formative and individualized assessment as well as personalized feedback, in addition to the provision of detailed guidelines to students who are struggling and, albeit to a lesser degree, the adaption of activities. Comparatively, teachers believe they are using formative and summative techniques more so than is perceived by students (in line with Pérez Cañado, 2023). Parents' views match

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING:
CHAPTER 6. QUALITATIVE RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

with teachers on all items save the assigning of differentiated homework, which the parent cohort is divided over but the teachers deny is happening. Formative assessment is being used according to the parents and teachers (in line with Pérez Cañado, 2023), but the students do not, in contrast, see differentiated activities taking place. Similarly, in the summative evaluation, both teachers and parents see highlighted words and vocabulary as a strategy employed. Finally, across the board, the three cohorts deny that differentiated exams or allowance of more time are strategies being used for summative assessment process.

Overall, parents' and teachers' views once again align, and students are, once again, more critical of the wide range of assessment techniques that the parents and teachers say are taking place, which diverges from Pérez Cañado (2023), who found that parents' and students' perceptions were more aligned in this block.

Regarding the homogeneity of the responses by cohort, of the 12 items, 10 have varying levels of agreement between the cohorts and only two are completely harmonious across the board (cf. Table 57). In this particular setting, the idea that the final evaluation caters to diversity and the opinion that no extra time or different versions of exams are given for summative assessment are the items that the three populations agree upon and where there no statistically significant differences. For the rest of the items, a post-hoc analysis is warranted to see in favor of whom the differences were ascertained.

Item	Group	Mean	SD	Eta	p-value
28: The evaluation criteria is fair for diverse students	Parents	5.20	0.63	1.996	0.001
	Teachers	5.83	0.41		
	Students	4.00	1.50		
29: Different levels of achievement are included in the evaluation	Parents	5.20	0.63	1.975	0.001
	Teachers	5.83	0.41		
	Students	4.06	1.37		
30: the continuous evaluation caters to diversity	Parents	5.40	0.52	2.185	0.001
	Teachers	5.67	0.52		

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING:
CHAPTER 6. QUALITATIVE RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

	Students	4.31	1.09		
31: the summative evaluation caters to diversity	Parents	5.20	0.63	0.550	0.149
	Teachers	5.17	0.98		
	Students	4.69	0.86		
32: CLIL uses grading rubrics	Parents	5.40	0.70	1.405	0.008
	Teachers	4.33	1.03		
	Students	3.50	1.81		
33: CLIL improves students' academic performance	Parents	5.80	0.42	1.747	0.002
	Teachers	5.33	0.82		
	Students	4.50	1.32		
34: CLIL uses detailed guidelines	Parents	5.60	0.70	2.256	<0.001
	Teachers	5.67	0.52		
	Students	3.94	1.54		
35: CLIL uses regular and personalized feedback	Parents	5.80	0.63	1.541	0.005
	Teachers	5.50	0.55		
	Students	4.75	1.05		
36: The level of activities in class are adapted to cater to diversity	Parents	4.80	0.92	1.809	0.002
	Teachers	4.00	1.41		
	Students	2.88	1.56		

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING:
CHAPTER 6. QUALITATIVE RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

37: Different homework is provided to cater to diversity	Parents	3.70	1.16	2.577	<0.001
	Teachers	3.17	1.60		
	Students	1.78	0.97		
38: Key words are highlighted on exam/adapted vocabulary is used	Parents	3.60	1.43	0.945	0.038
	Teachers	5.33	0.82		
	Students	3.69	1.55		
39: Different versions of the same exam and more time is given	Parents	2.90	1.20	0.163	0.568
	Teachers	3.50	2.07		
	Students	2.66	1.33		

Table 55: Across-cohort comparison on evaluation and assessment

The post-hoc analysis reveals that it is the student cohort for whom the differences are ascertained. Of the 10 items, eight of them were found to have statistically significant differences caused by the student perceptions, related to assessment and evaluation (cf. Table 58). The students are in the least agreement with the diversity measures taking place when it comes to assessment and evaluation at the school, although they are still in agreement with the items, just not as much as the parents and teachers, who are in almost total agreement, whereas the students are more inclined to be in slight agreement. As for adapting the level of activities as a diversity measure (item 36), the students are again charged with the differences, as they do not agree this takes place, even though the parental and teacher cohort affirm it takes place. Similarly, even though the parents do see differentiated homework (item 37), the students and the teachers deny this takes place. Finally, the last item that warranted a post-hoc scrutiny was related to the inclusion of key words on exams and/or the use of adapted vocabulary (item 38), which teachers agreed to using in their evaluation, while parents and students were in both agreement and disagreement in equal proportions regarding this diversity strategy.

28: The evaluation criteria is fair for diverse students	Parents		0.631	0.066
	Teachers	0.631		0.003

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING:
CHAPTER 6. QUALITATIVE RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

	Students	0.066	0.003	
29: Different levels of achievement are included in the evaluation	Parents		0.728	0.058
	Teachers	0.728		0.003
	Students	0.058	0.003	
30: the continuous evaluation caters to diversity	Parents		>0.999	0.010
	Teachers	>0.999		0.006
	Students	0.010	0.006	
32: CLIL uses grading rubrics	Parents		0.367	0.005
	Teachers	0.367		>0.999
	Students	0.005	>0.999	
33: CLIL improves students' academic performance	Parents		0.902	0.002
	Teachers	0.902		0.374
	Students	0.002	0.374	
34: CLIL uses detailed guidelines	Parents		>0.999	0.003
	Teachers	>0.999		0.016
	Students	0.003	0.016	
35: CLIL uses regular and personalized feedback	Parents		>0.999	0.006
	Teachers	>0.999		0.343
	Students	0.006	0.343	

**ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING:
CHAPTER 6. QUALITATIVE RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

36: The level of activities in class are adapted to cater to diversity	Parents		0.969	0.002
	Teachers	0.969		0.314
	Students	0.002	0.314	
37: Different homework is provided to cater to diversity	Parents		>0.999	<0.001
	Teachers	>0.999		0.078
	Students	<0.001	0.078	
38: Key words are highlighted on exam/adapted vocabulary is used	Parents		0.076	>0.999
	Teachers	0.076		0.039
	Students	>0.999	0.039	

Table 56: Across cohort evaluation and assessment post-hoc analysis

6.6.5. Collaboration and teacher training

The support system at the school has both strong and weak points, as purported by responses from this facet. For this particular set of stakeholders, student and teacher responses for this aspect of the CLIL program are in almost complete alignment, whereas the parental cohort displays, once again, complete agreement. Parents and teachers confirm there is a support system in the form of a guidance counselor, whereas the student cohort denies their presence. The collaboration between colleagues is a point of divergence for the three stakeholders: it is perceived by teachers to not be happening, whereas the students are divided if this is taking place and parents, for their part, confirm it is happening. Stakeholders' perceptions are in complete alignment with parental involvement: it is highly satisfactory on all fronts. The support of a multi-professional team is another point of divergence, confirmed by the parents to be strong at the school, deemed as necessary by the teachers, and negatively viewed by the students. Finally, parents' and students' perceptions align in the judgement of the training of the three types of teachers (LA, NLA and TA) and positively regard all three as having adequate preparation to deal with diversity.

Overall, the students are the least satisfied cohort regarding the support system, although they are still, on the whole, quite content, followed by the teachers, who display higher levels of confidence in the support system and, finally, the parents, who are completely satisfied, findings

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING:
CHAPTER 6. QUALITATIVE RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

which diverge from Pérez Cañado (2023). For their part, the parents are very appreciative of the way the teachers and school are catering to diversity (in line with Ráez Padilla, 2018; Barrios Espinosa, 2019, Pérez Cañado, 2023) and are very appeased in this study. Our study confirms that parents with higher SES value the CLIL program, consistent with previous findings: “the parent cohort, it transpires, is thus generally invested in the bilingual education of their offspring and gives a vote of confidence to the way CLIL is rising to the new challenges it encounters in its evolution, such as its adaptation to the key issues of inclusion and differentiation” (Pérez Cañado, 2023, p. 15).

When it comes to the support system in this context, by far parents are the most satisfied stakeholder, whose responses show they deeply value the effort put in by the teachers and have extreme faith in the CLIL program. The majority of the teacher cohort agrees that the students, being in a private school, are receiving support from parents and teachers, but they personally feel they are lacking training in attending to the diverse needs in the classroom.

In this particular block, the stakeholders are heterogeneous in their opinions regarding all six items, mainly owing to the different perceptions held by the parents regarding these aspects of the CLIL program, held in high regard by the parents, to a lesser degree by the teachers, and to the least degree by the students in most items (cf. Table 59). Thus, all six items necessitated a post-hoc scrutiny.

Item	Group	Mean	SD	Eta	p-value
40: CLIL teachers coordinate	Parents	5.10	0.88	2.100	0.001
	Teachers	2.00	0.63		
	Students	3.19	1.62		
41: There are multi-professional teams	Parents	5.10	0.57	3.286	<0.001
	Teachers	3.50	1.64		
	Students	2.13	1.16		
42: there is a guidance counselor	Parents	5.50	0.85	1.923	0.001
	Teachers	4.50	0.55		

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING:
CHAPTER 6. QUALITATIVE RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

	Students	4.03	1.06		
45: language assistants are sufficiently prepared	Parents	5.10	0.88	3.258	<0.001
	Teachers	4.50	0.55		
	Students	2.66	1.31		
46: There is sufficient parental support	Parents	6.00	0.00	1.609	0.004
	Teachers	5.83	0.41		
	Students	5.06	1.08		
47: I am satisfied with the support in place	Parents	6.00	0.00	2.824	<0.001
	Teachers	3.50	1.05		
	Students	3.66	1.56		

Table 57: Across-cohort opinions on evaluation and assessment items

Two items were answered positively by the three cohorts (items 45 and 46); however, the post-hoc analysis reveals the differences to be marked again by the parents in their higher degree of agreement than the students and teachers in both the training of language assistants and amount of parental support at the school (cf. Table 60). As for the belief that CLIL teachers are coordinating, the differences are marked by all three stakeholders: the parents agree, the teachers disagree, and the students are divided in half in their belief. The parents are responsible for most of the differences, in their agreement that there are multi-professional teams present at the school (item 41). The teachers are responsible for the differences related to their degree of satisfaction (item 47), as their response is neither satisfactory nor unsatisfactory, compared with the parents and students, who are quite satisfied. And finally, the students mark the differences when it comes to the figure of a guidance counselor, disagreeing that there is one present, while the teachers and parents claim there is one at the school.

40: CLIL teachers coordinate	Parents		0.001	0.005
	Teachers	0.001		0.394

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING:
CHAPTER 6. QUALITATIVE RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

	Students	0.005	0.394	
41: There are multi-professional teams	Parents		0.233	<0.001
	Teachers	0.233		0.230
	Students	<0.001	0.230	
45: language assistants are sufficiently prepared	Parents		0.203	0.001
	Teachers	0.203		>0.999
	Students	0.001	>0.999	
42: there is a guidance counselor	Parents		>0.999	<0.001
	Teachers	>0.999		0.016
	Students	<0.001	0.016	
46: There is sufficient parental support	Parents		>0.999	0.006
	Teachers	>0.999		0.177
	Students	0.006	0.177	
47: I am satisfied with the support in place	Parents		0.003	<0.001
	Teachers	0.003		>0.999
	Students	<0.001	>0.999	

Table 58: Across cohort collaboration and training post-hoc analysis

6.6.6. Across-cohort conclusions

On the whole, there is great consistency in all of the blocks across the cohorts, a strong indicator that this study is realistically portraying CLIL in its implementation at the grassroots level, although teachers' and parents' views are in more alignment than the students'. However, there is more consistency between teachers' and parents' perspectives, which draws

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING:
CHAPTER 6. QUALITATIVE RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

inconsistencies with Pérez Cañado (2023), who found more harmony between the students' and parents' perspectives. The main finding that stands out, at first glance, is the undeniable great faith the parents have in the teachers and this bilingual program specifically. Likewise, the teachers at this school are highly confident in their teaching abilities and knowledge, albeit they are less satisfied with the diversity measures that are being implemented school-wide. With all facets, the parents were the most satisfied cohort in the study, confident in the teachers' ability, knowledge, language proficiency, assessment abilities, methodological practices and training in CLIL methodology. They are satisfied with the support received and convey the belief that these classes are optimal on all fronts, evidenced by the extremely high degree of agreement in the majority of the responses. For their part, the teachers are also highly satisfied, although they are the most critical of their training and the support system at the school. The students in this context are the most critical of the program, and find the most faults in the methodological practices and assessment techniques. In general, more disparities between teacher versus student and parent perspectives was found by Pérez Cañado (2023), whereas our study finds more disparities within the student cohort, and it is the teachers and parents who seem to be more in sync with perceptions in many of the blocks.

In conclusion, students and parents have great faith in the teachers in the school, and the teachers themselves positively view their ability and knowledge. Even though they were the most critical in this particular study, the student cohort still displays ample levels of satisfaction with the facets of the program. On the whole, the entirety of the stakeholders is generally satisfied with the CLIL program in its totality: linguistically, methodology, assessment-wise, in terms of material and resources, and vis-à-vis support systems.

Chapter 7. Conclusions

7.1. Overview

We will now present a recapitulation of the chief findings relating the Metaconcerns and objectives, as stated in section 4.2 (*objectives*), in line with gauging the main queries of the study, the implementation and workings of CLIL with diverse students.

Regarding **Metaconcern 1**, encompassing objectives 1 and 2 related to the effect of the CLIL program on L2 competence, falling within the quantitative side of the study, an originally designed English competence test was used to measure students' linguistic level in the L2 (RQ1). It was administered to students at the beginning and end of the academic school year. The second objective (RQ2) examined the modulating effects of the intervening variables, regarding gender, SES, the four motivational variables, and verbal intelligence on L2 competence.

When it comes to L2 acquisition, all of the achievers are performing equally well in the CLIL class and improving their competence in the English language. This speaks volumes for the power of CLIL to even the playing field for all types of learners in the classroom. However, it must be noted that there are some important intervening variables that do impact L2 acquisition, mainly prior L2 knowledge, higher-SES, self-demand, exam anxiety, self-esteem, and verbal intelligence. When it comes to FLL in CLIL, the more disenfranchised students are benefitting the most in many cases: those with low levels of self-demand, the students with high levels of exam anxiety, students with medium levels of self-esteem, and students with the lowest level of verbal intelligence. In this case, CLIL seems to be working to help give these students what they need to assimilate the FL equally, or better, than their peers. For self-demand, the program is working to help those students with low to medium levels of self-demand. Another focal point is when it comes to exam anxiety: not only is CLIL working to facilitate language acquisition in the FL for students with high levels of exam anxiety, but for all students, regardless of the influence of their exam anxiety. For self-esteem and interest in study, students with medium levels of self-esteem and those with moderate interest in study benefit the most from the program, which shows CLIL is moving in the right direction, since these students are usually deprived of CLIL's benefits. Finally, verbal intelligence as a variable speaks volumes about CLIL: there are statistically significant results for all three levels of students, with high, medium, and low levels of verbal intelligence, meaning CLIL is truly working to level the playing field when it comes to FL acquisition. In that same vein, gender as a variable is also seen to be cancelled out since both male and female students are benefitting from the program. While it is true that there was a finding related to SES, in which high-rung SES students are outperforming their low- to medium-

run SES peers, this finding is particular to the context of the study, since even the so-denominated low-run SES are actually higher-SES than the general population.

Turning now to the results related to **Metaconcern 2**, comprised of objectives 3-7, we will cover the quantitative facet of the study for content and L1 gains. Taking content acquisition into consideration, the pre- and post-tests for content knowledge (History) were compared and analyzed, thus allowing for an appraisal to be had of how different students are assimilating the subject of History through the CLIL methodology (RQ4). As beheld in Chapter 5, and similar to the grades had in the FL (English), all of the students in all three tiers significantly improved their content grade in the subject of History. As all of the achievers saw improvement or maintenance in their grades, various tests were run to determine if these improvements were statistically significant. When beholding content scores from the previous academic year, and subsequent statistical calculations, it was determined that prior knowledge in the subject is conducive of higher content gains, in the same vein as the Matthew Effect (Granados & Lorenzo, 2022) and in line with findings by Pérez Cañado (2024). Thus, students that have more content knowledge are awarded more content acquisition in this particular subject (History).

Breaking down the variables (RQ4), beginning with SES and gender, the CLIL program is not favoring either gender, but it is favoring content acquisition in a specific SES tier: those students from a high-SES background see more improvement when it comes to content knowledge than their low- and medium-SES peers. As previously explained with the previous Metaconcern, even though these students were categorized as high-SES, students in low- and medium-SES rungs were also quite well-off socioeconomically, given the context of this particular school.

From the standpoint of the motivational variables, there are certain students that are benefitting more from the CLIL program when it comes to assimilating the subject. First off, the students with low levels of self-demand are profiting from CLIL, whereas students with medium to high levels of exam anxiety are also favored by the bilingual content. As for students' interest in study, the CLIL classes seem to be most advantageous for students with low to medium levels of disinterest, although it has to be said that the program was not negatively affecting the students with high levels of disinterest in study. Related to the variable of self-esteem, similarly to the variable of self-demand, students with average levels of self-esteem, meaning neither high nor low levels, are benefitting the most content-wise. Finally, when it comes to verbal intelligence, the CLIL program is doing its job: students with low to medium levels of verbal intelligence, meaning the more disenfranchised, are profiting the most from these classes.

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING: A QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE STUDY. CHAPTER 7: CONCLUSIONS

The effect CLIL is having on students' mother tongue (RQ5 and RQ6) per the intervention program is more meager, as only the highest rung significantly improves its performance from the pre- to the post-testing phases. As with the L2 and content, no statistically significant differences are detected in terms of gender for the L1, and the same occurs for SES. When it comes to the first of the motivational variables, CLIL positively affects students with medium levels of self-demand. However, the rest of the variables shed more light on the intervention program and the focus of the CLIL class which made up this study: the heightened emphasis on the L2 and content, which were given more priority than the L1. In this same vein, exam anxiety did not seem to affect the L1 at all, and the students with low to high levels of exam anxiety did equally well when it came to their L1 mastery. The variable of self-esteem played out identically: students with all three levels of self-esteem (low, medium, high) were not affected by the CLIL program, nor did the intervention program have any effect on L1 knowledge as pertinent to verbal intelligence levels, as no one level profiting more than the other. Owing to the nature of the intervention program, results from statistical calculations regarding disinterest in study and verbal intelligence show that attention to the L1 fell more to the way side, as results show that the CLIL program only affected highly interested students when it came to their L1 gains and did not single out any level of verbal intelligence, meaning it was working equally with all students.

Finally, the last objective related to our first two Metaconcerns intended to pinpoint the cause of any competence difference amongst the three tiers and its cause by any variable(s). The discriminant analysis performed on all three tiers allowed us to pinpoint the variables which best explain the competence differential ascertained for the three dependent variables. What stands out first and foremost from the findings is the effect of the motivational variable of personal self-demand, something that is affecting students in the L1, L2, and in their content acquisition. It seems that students with higher levels of personal self-demand are benefitting more from these programs linguistically and subject-wise. Next, verbal intelligence is affecting students' content knowledge and FL acquisition. Finally, interest in study as a motivational variable appears to be facilitating students' assimilation of the content aspect of the course. Of course, it can be understood how these motivational variables in particular have an effect on students' L1, L2, and content, since personal self-demand is a motivational variable that is very unique to each student. Similarly, interest in study, which helps students assimilate the content knowledge better, is another inherent variable related to students' motivation to study and follow the material. Finally, verbal intelligence is another piece of the puzzle, leading those who are more intelligent to gain more, specifically when it comes to content knowledge.

Finally, **Metaconcern 3** deals with the qualitative side of the study, encompassing a complete assessment of the three stakeholders via responses from the questionnaires which

complemented the qualitative data and was a significant part of the investigation, concerning catering to diversity in the classroom, divided into the five thematic blocks: linguistic aspects, methodology and groupings, materials and resources, assessment, collaboration and teacher training. Also included in qualitative data were the direct classroom observations and focus groups, which only included the students, as well as semi-structured interviews with the teacher cohort.

Vis-à-vis RQ8, which probed the three stakeholder's perspectives on catering to diversity, let us begin by focusing on the students, who had the richest qualitative data, being the prime of this facet of the study. All the data pointed out that this particular set of students were quite satisfied with their bilingual education. They were confident in the positive appraisal they had of teachers' education, and did not dispute any level of English by the teachers; again, a testament to this particular context: a private high school in an urban location. The students did not see attention to diversity as being an issue, and did not feel that any students needed to be catered to, except for the students who had foreign mother tongues and did not speak Spanish very well. This is all in line with findings by Bauer-Marschallinger et al. (2021) in that, as these students have not been given a comprehensive lesson or knowledge of what diversity is, they are unable to see any diversity that is invisible to them. Likewise, as it was a private school, the students conveyed the sentiment of having been subjected to some sort of screening process related to being able to afford private education, and, therefore, seemed to allude that this differentiated them already from public school students.

As these students were in 4th of CSE, and most of them were not new to the school, they felt they had a very comfortable level in the FL. One of the more interesting findings that came from the focus groups was the understanding of the importance of English as a FL learning, more so than content acquisition in the CLIL class at hand (History). The students (and teachers in the semi-structured interviews) confirmed their belief that these CLIL classes were not mainly about content acquisition, but were more for giving the students added time in the FL, so as to give them as much exposure as possible, even at the cost of content learning. However, the students denied any language being assessed in their CLIL classes, confirming that they were only evaluated on content acquisition, albeit entirely in the FL. This was perceived during the direct observations, as teachers were not seen to be explaining grammar concepts, although the non-native teacher did translate thoroughly throughout the class related to content-specific vocabulary (in this case, Biology).

Similarly, per the sentiments from the students and behavior observed in the classrooms, this context (urban and private) is quite peculiar for several reasons. The amount of technology used in the classroom is quite extraordinary: as compared to other European ADiBE studies in

which CLIL classrooms are lacking in their use of digital materials, this CLIL program is very inclusive of digital technologies and uses them constantly in classes. Students have their own personal devices and the teachers work primarily or exclusively with their own devices and screens. In that same way, the role of language assistant is also unusual as, even though (s)he is present in the school, (s)he does not work alongside the content teacher, but rather works solely as a way to close the gap between discrepancy in students' FL levels. In this way, although newcomer classes were not affirmed to be offered in this particular school (aligned with sentiments from teachers and parents as well,) it seems that the language assistants work to compensate for the lack of newcomer classes.

Pertinent to the questionnaires, which were used with all three cohorts, overall, all three (parents, teachers, students) are very satisfied with the deployment of differentiation and diversity approaches in the school, with parental satisfaction surpassing the others (item 8). Main teacher training needs are found to be attending to the diverse needs in the classroom, as affirmed by the teachers themselves. In particular, teacher training needs are high in the designing and adapting of materials, language scaffolding and student-centered methodologies. The bulk of the stakeholders that participated in the qualitative study are more than satisfied with all aspects of the program. Moreover, parents stand out as being the most satisfied, and the students are the least satisfied, albeit still revealing quite high degrees of approval. Parents are content across the board with the five thematic blocks, the teachers are highly satisfied with four out of the five blocks and show lukewarm satisfaction in one aspect (collaboration and support) and, finally, the majority of the students have complete satisfaction with two of the five blocks and have mixed responses for three (methodology and groupings, assessment, collaboration and support), although none are negatively viewed.

The teachers in particular were another point of curiosity in this particular environment. As half of the cohort (three of the six teachers) were native English speakers, the data amassed from them is quite novel, given their C2 proficiency of English as compared to the typical B2-C1 certificate that most teachers in Andalusia have. Moreover, one of the non-native English teachers (of Spanish nationality) also had a C2 proficiency in English. Thus, this particular cohort saw almost 70% of the teachers as having native or expert-like FL competence, something that is undeniably a testament to the type of center (private). In this way, the teachers were quite satisfied with their linguistic and content capacity and training. The data that stands out the most is regarding teacher training when it comes to CLIL methodology and diversity training, which was scant or nonexistent in these teachers, who felt they were, as content experts, fully capable, but extremely limited in their training in diversity. Another area that gleaned more problems was in regard to coordination and cooperation, in which these teachers communicated a more *closed-*

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING:
A QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE STUDY. CHAPTER 7: CONCLUSIONS

door policy, lamenting the fact that there was not more cooperation between departments to make the CLIL program a more integrated front. However, one positive note, again a testament to the type of center, was the high degree of parental involvement, something that has been regarded to be of extreme importance when it comes to students' learning, and the teachers affirmed parental support to be highly satisfactory (as affirmed by parents, and to a lesser degree, the students).

When it comes to discrepancies in opinions (RQ9), related to the three stakeholders, there are, in general, quite harmonious responses from all three, although more alignment is had between the teachers and the parents, the latter who are extremely satisfied with almost all aspects of the bilingual program being implemented at the school. The teachers are also quite satisfied, although show less enthusiasm for collaboration and support, except for the item related to parental support. The area the teachers have the most skepticism in is related to their training, as the teachers in this particular context affirm their teacher training needs are high in several areas, most importantly in diversity training.

Related to statistically significant differences as related to pertinent variables within the student cohort (RQ10), SES plays a role in students' views of the teachers' linguistic and content support: students with medium levels of SES value their language and content teachers' preparation and knowledge to deal with these classes more so than their high-SES peers.

As for statistically significant differences in perceptions related to variables within the teacher cohort (RQ11), gender and work experience were found to be at work. The male teachers are more confident in their teaching abilities than their female counterparts, believe they are scaffolding more so than their female counterparts, and are more satisfied with the support system at the school. As well, the male teachers voice less desire for training related to linguistic scaffolding methodology than their female peers. The amount of years of teaching experience was also cause for differences between the opinions: teachers with less experience (one to five years) believe these CLIL classes do not allow enough time to cater to diversity as opposed to their more experienced peers, who disagree with this sentiment. This shows that less seasoned teachers are less likely to be confident in their teaching abilities, as opposed to teachers that have been teaching longer, who have more tried and true methodologies and strategies that allow them to cater to the needs in the classroom and take full advantage of the CLIL hours of instruction.

As for the parental cohort (RQ12), of the intervening variables examined, two were found to have statistically significant differences: age and SES. Regarding age, parents' age affects the way that older parents view the challenging nature of the CLIL classes, finding them to be more

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING: A QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE STUDY. CHAPTER 7: CONCLUSIONS

demanding for their offspring when shared with students with varying levels of academic achievement. Age also seems to be a differential factor in how linguistic support given by teachers is viewed, with younger parents seeing more linguistic support than their elder counterparts. The elder parents do not see as much variety when it comes to methodology as their younger peers, yet they do see more adaptation and diversity being deployed. As for SES, the parents with medium-SES find these classes to be harder for their children when mixed-ability students are participating, but see more diversity in methodological practices.

All in all, the consistent views held by the cohorts allows us to confirm that this particular study, both the qualitative and quantitative data, can be used with a high degree of confidence, and the results are reliable, shedding insight on important factors in the CLIL environment, especially related to attention to diversity.

This study has served to remedy many of the limitations that previous studies similar to its nature have been charged with having. The richness of the data and variety of instruments employed in this study have made it possible to answer all the research questions that were put forth and have gleaned deep insight to the true workings of CLIL on a grassroots level with the information gathered from the three important stakeholders in these programs. Finally, it has made it possible to ascertain the effects that CLIL has on all types of achievers, in terms of L1, L2 and content knowledge.

The previously mentioned studies that were not empirically sound or reliable have been overcome with this investigation due to several factors. First, given its mixed research design (qualitative and quantitative); second, due to the fact that both modulating and identification variables have been taken into account; thirdly, through the use of methodological and data triangulation, which have guaranteed the reliability of the results that were obtained in the data collection process; and finally, via the double-fold process that was undergone during instrument validation, which has ensured their consistency and reliability and, thus, completely legitimized the findings of this study.

Although this data has shed light on a relatively limited context in the private-school operations, it has led us to move the agenda forward in promoting CLIL as a way to attend to diversity. The differences that were held between students in the quantitative part of the study, related to L1, L2 and content gains, are seemingly only related to their previous knowledge, interest in studying, and/or overall intelligence levels, and not related to the CLIL classroom experience. Our data clearly indicate that CLIL can work with all levels of students if diversity is adequately catered for, as all three tiers considered in this study significantly improved from the

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING: A QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE STUDY. CHAPTER 7: CONCLUSIONS

pre- to the post-testing phases. This is a crucial finding at a time when the elitist and segregating nature of CLIL is often questioned and when mainstreaming is increasingly becoming the norm.

Most hopeful is the light shed on certain practices that do not have to be exclusive to schools in the private sector, meaning they can be applied to mainstream education at little to no cost to the school itself. These adaptations include bolstering the degree of parental involvement to a level that has been attained at this school, which, as previously mentioned, is a pillar in fomenting the CLIL docket, as well as ensuring students are signing up and participating successfully in the programs. Similarly, in line with the SPDLA recommendations, increasing the minimum FL accreditation to a C1 level can help teachers with their confidence in their implementation of CLIL classes.

Despite the fact that not all the data collected was positive, constructive criticism is also important to see where the gaps are in CLIL implementation. Glaringly obvious in this context is the lack of teacher training when it comes to attention to diversity methodology and training in the CLIL methodology in general. All of these teachers were content specialists, and with their native or high (C1+) proficiency in the L2, most of them were highly confident in their linguistic and content capabilities, a sentiment that was also held by the teachers and students, meaning the teachers were undoubtedly highly competent. However, the teachers expressed high degrees of uncertainty when it came to attending to diversity, and students were also seemingly uncomfortable discussing various levels of academic achievement, both cohorts having what seemed to be very little knowledge about inherent levels of diversity and motivations, that might be responsible for variations within the student cohort. Another issue that was had seemed to be the importance placed on the FL, rather than the content itself, with both students and teachers seemingly confirming that the CLIL classroom was mainly used to complement the students' linguistic abilities, a sentiment solidified for the figure of language assistant in this particular school, who was not used in the content classrooms, but only used to give the students extra practice in the FL, mainly for the purpose of external exams. This is in line with findings from the capital (Hidalgo-McCabe, 2022), in which external exams were awarded a high degree of satisfaction, also apparent in this particular context, in which students are subject to external exams every two or three years in a rigorous plan that seeks to graduate students in 4th of CSE with a C1 English certificate.

That said, the stakeholder perceptions from the qualitative side of the study confirm that the bilingual program, in general, is moving in a positive direction, and is being implemented in a satisfactory way. This means we can be completely confident in promoting CLIL as an inclusive methodology, functional for all students, that allows teachers to work with different learning points in the FL or L1 or content, thus giving students the opportunity to catch up with their

peers, while also capitalizing on the advantages of the CLIL methodology and all the linguistic, academic and non-academic rewards it has been documented to provide students with.

7.2. Limitations and lines for further research

Albeit novel and fruitful in its findings, this study undeniably exhibits certain shortcomings, which should be addressed in further research endeavors aimed at gathering more empirically-sound data on the topic of diversity in CLIL classrooms. This is crucial to ensuring the solidity of implementation and training courses for this methodology. The limitations of this study are fourfold: the relatively small sample size, limited contact with the parental cohort, the presence of both Spanish and foreign students, and, the use of final exam grades as proxy for baseline knowledge in the L1 and content subject.

To begin, the sample size of this study is relatively small, comprising only 77 participants from one school in one province. Therefore, it remains uncertain whether these findings can be extrapolated to different settings. However, the small sample size facilitated a closer, more personal relationship with the participants, particularly the teachers and students. This rapport, which was possible as the researcher also served as the interviewer and teacher, contributed to more robust takeaways.

In that same vein, the limited contact with the parental cohort poses a limitation to this study. Due to logistical and time constraints, interactions with parents were minimal compared to the daily interactions with teachers and students. Thus, future studies should prioritize engaging with the parental cohort without diluting the results. Trust between participants and the researcher plays a pivotal role, and while it was high among teachers and students, achieving a similar level with parents would have been challenging and could have compromised the existing rapport.

Thirdly, the inclusion of both Spanish and foreign students presents another limitation due to the absence of a shared first language (L1). Nevertheless, this diversity offers an international perspective, reflecting the reality of many Spanish classrooms. Future research should delve deeper into the foreign perspective of the first language.

Finally, the nature of the instruments, primarily the content and L1 tests derived from subjects such as History and Spanish Language and Literature, instead of using fully validated external tests, poses a limitation. However, this decision was deemed necessary given that the intervention program's classes were conducted entirely in English and catered to students with a

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING:
A QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE STUDY. CHAPTER 7: CONCLUSIONS

slightly higher English proficiency than the general Spanish population. External content tests may not have accurately captured the essence of the CLIL class in a final exam setting.

Despite these limitations, this study aims to contribute to the discourse surrounding diversity in CLIL and hopes to advance this pedagogy toward making language education more inclusive. The CLIL program in Spain, particularly in Andalusia, has undergone significant development over its two-plus decades of existence, successfully enhancing students' second language (L2) competence without detriment to their first language (L1) or content subject acquisition. It has also proven beneficial for teachers, increasing their job satisfaction and language competence, while parents express high satisfaction and acceptance. Additionally, it provides opportunities for marginalized parents to see their children gain skills necessary for social mobility.

From this particular study, several branches of future research lines have emerged, including how to foment collaboration among the different types of teachers (also proposed by San Isidro & Pérez Cañado, 2023), as well as studies that can explain the discrepancies that exist between the perceptions from the three cohorts, most notably the void between what students see happening in the classroom contrasted to what the teachers communicate is taking place (also aligned with the previously mentioned authors, 2023). Motivation-related research, focusing on learner variables and their effects in different contexts, is also imperative. Moreover, further exploration of content acquisition in CLIL, the role of the first language (L1), and assessment-based studies are warranted.

Another major area for future research is also linked to this Thesis, as related to content acquisition in CLIL. Morton (2023) maintains steadfastly in his declaration that content is not being given the correct degree of focus it deserves, specifically related to "content learning processes and outcomes" which should "gain much more prominence" in the future (p. 524). However, this will not be as straightforward as previous studies, but "will require intense interdisciplinary collaboration for the development of new conceptual tools and rich theories of practice" (idem, 2023, p. 524).

More research also must be done on the L1: its role in CLIL and its effect on LL in general. Specifically, the effect L1 proficiency has on L2 acquisition (deemed necessary by Cross, 2022 and Morton, 2023) related to how languages are learned in CLIL, as well as how students can be awarded a more favorable acquisition of the L1 and L2, or what Morton (2023) deems the "L1 lineage" (p. 525).

ATTENTION TO DIVERSITY IN CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING:
A QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE STUDY. CHAPTER 7: CONCLUSIONS

Aligned with the thinking of other authors (e.g. Otto, 2018; Pérez-Vidal, 2009), assessment-based studies must be carried out henceforward, as put forth by Morton (2023) and Pérez Cañado (2021b), particularly in which the integration nature of CLIL “comes to the fore” and is continually pinpointed by teachers to be a major hindrance when it comes to successful CLIL implementation (Morton, 2023, p. 528). For her part, Pérez Cañado (2021b) notes that assessment in CLIL needs a substantial overhaul.

Finally, allied with the core of this Thesis, and as Morton (2023) points out, “there is still much room to broaden the focus on equity, diversity, and inclusivity in CLIL research to include a wide range of equity issues” (p. 530).

CLIL can help ensure that all students, in their diversity as pertaining to verbal intelligence, motivational levels, and baseline knowledge in the L1, L2, and content, will be able to be fruitful in academia and beyond, by equipping them with necessary skills and FL competences they need. This methodology has risen to meet the challenge to cater to all types of achievers and learners in the classroom, motivated and unmotivated, academically challenged and gifted, to provide them with the knowledge they are demanded to have in the world where they will one day work, which all but requires English as a basic competence. CLIL will be the solution to graduating competent, functional, and skilled multilingual speakers. It will not only accompany bilingual education’s inclusive journey; it will lead the way. CLIL is now being seen less as a “solution” to FLL but rather as a “broadly educational approach” which will give it the flexibility and malleability it needs to work towards a truly inclusive Europe (Morton, 2023, p. 531).

Resumen de la Tesis en Español

"La atención a la diversidad en el Aprendizaje Integrado de Contenidos y Lenguas Extranjeras en educación secundaria: Un estudio cuantitativo y cualitativo"

Introducción

El Aprendizaje Integrado de Contenidos y Lenguas Extranjeras (AICLE) es un enfoque metodológico que lleva más de dos décadas en marcha desde sus inicios en 1994. Hoy en día, ha logrado ser sinónimo de la enseñanza bilingüe en muchos países europeos, incluyendo España. Sin embargo, este enfoque metodológico se ha visto envuelto por confusiones e incertidumbres, consecuencia de la debilidad de muchas investigaciones, debido al poco grado de fiabilidad de estos estudios y sus subsiguientes resultados, los cuales han sido considerados controvertidos o contradictorios.

Todo esto se suma al importante asunto de la diversidad e inclusión en los sistemas educativos y, por ende, en la educación bilingüe. Las necesidades especiales de los alumnos siempre han existido, pero no siempre han sido tratadas de manera transparente. Sin embargo, con el paso del tiempo, cada nueva generación cuenta con más recursos y herramientas para poder responder a las necesidades de los alumnos en el aula. Además, el estigma asociado a las diversas capacidades mentales y trastornos de aprendizaje está disminuyendo cada vez más.

Por tanto, esta Tesis doctoral pretende superar las limitaciones de investigaciones anteriores y, a la vez, contribuir al debate que rodea la enseñanza bilingüe, tanto para determinar si su uso en aulas y los sistemas de educación es realmente inclusivo como para evitar la repetición y/o desintegración de los esfuerzos investigadores. Nuestro trabajo consiste en un estudio con tres grupos vinculados a 4º de Educación Secundaria Obligatoria (profesorado, alumnado, y padres), con un diseño de investigación cuantitativo y cualitativo. Se plantea determinar si la metodología AICLE atiende, o no, a las necesidades del alumnado en las clases AICLE (en este caso, la asignatura bilingüe de Historia) en cuanto a sus capacidades, niveles de motivación, y niveles lingüísticos. De este modo, pretende determinar si la mejora del alumnado, académicamente, se debe a alguna variable en particular, con el fin de aislar la variable responsable de las diferencias en el rendimiento del alumnado. Este estudio se justifica por la evolución de la metodología AICLE y la sociedad en que vivimos, siendo necesario demostrar si AICLE puede, o no puede, adaptarse a la realidad del alumnado, ubicado en aulas cada vez más diversas, y si puede, sin discriminación, mejorar las competencias de la lengua materna, la lengua extranjera y la materia de todo el alumnado.

La presente Tesis está compuesta por siete capítulos. El Capítulo Uno introduce el tema y el

principal objetivo de la Tesis, seguido por el Capítulo Dos, dedicado a resumir la enseñanza bilingüe desde sus principios en el mundo occidental, centrándose principalmente en los EEUU y Canadá, y también resumiendo su inicio y estado actual en Europa. Dentro del mismo, se incluye una caracterización de la metodología AICLE, la cual ha sido resultado de los diversos intentos de la comunidad europea de proporcionar a sus ciudadanos una enseñanza multilingüe de calidad, con el fin de lograr la iniciativa *lengua materna + 2*, o la habilidad de comunicarse en dos idiomas extranjeros. El Capítulo Dos también incluye un breve resumen de diferentes iniciativas de inclusión y diversidad en el ámbito educativo y termina con un resumen de las buenas prácticas para atender a la diversidad en la enseñanza bilingüe, según varias publicaciones y autores (por ejemplo, Yale University, British Council, Tomlinson (2017)). En el Capítulo Tres se realiza una revisión completa de las publicaciones y estudios sobre el tema de AICLE y diversidad en Europa y España. Se complementa esta revisión con un detallado resumen del nuevo plan de plurilingüismo en Andalucía (anteriormente el Plan de Fomento del Plurilingüismo en Andalucía), reconocido como el nuevo Plan Estratégico para el Desarrollo de las Lenguas en Andalucía (PEDLA). En el Capítulo Cuatro se explica el diseño y proceso metodológico de la investigación, incluyendo una explicación detallada del programa de intervención llevado a cabo. Finalmente, los resultados cuantitativos y cualitativos se presentan en los Capítulos Cinco y Seis, respectivamente, mientras que el Capítulo Siete resume la tesis y los descubrimientos de este estudio con vistas al futuro del AICLE.

El presente estudio se enmarca dentro del proyecto ADiBE Erasmus+ (Atención a la Diversidad en la Educación Bilingüe), el cual intenta, a través de estudios a nivel nacional (España) e internacional (Europa), realizar estudios enfocados en las partes prácticas de las clases AICLE: dónde y cómo están funcionando y por qué; dónde necesitan mejorar, y por qué; buenas prácticas que se podrían extrapolar a varios contextos. Todos los estudios en el seno de ADiBE incluyen a los principales participantes del programa, a saber, padres, alumnos y profesores, así como las opiniones de todos aquellos involucrados en el programa. El proyecto ADiBE, por el momento, está representado por seis países europeos: Alemania, Austria, España, Finlandia, Italia, y Reino Unido.

Estudios relevantes para la Tesis

Esta Tesis expone en detalle múltiples estudios realizados en las últimas dos décadas. Estos estudios se pueden categorizar según sus principales áreas de interés. En primer lugar, hay estudios enfocados en recopilar pensamientos y opiniones de las partes implicadas, los cuales son prolíficos e importantes, tal y como señala Barrios Espinosa (2019). Ejemplos de estos estudios incluyen los de Barrios y Milla Lara (2018), Durán-Martínez y Beltrán-Llavador (2016), Hidalgo-McCabe (2022), Milla Lara y Casas Pedrosa (2018), Pérez Cañado (2021b), Ráez Padilla (2018) y San Isidro y Pérez Cañado (2023). Cabe destacar que todos estos estudios se han llevado a cabo en España, lo cual podría señalar el rol importante que desempeña

España en la agenda de investigación AICLE.

Destacamos también los estudios dentro del Proyecto ADiBE, los cuales están vinculados principalmente a nuestra Tesis. Estos estudios son comparados con nuestros resultados para determinar qué opiniones y conclusiones se alinean y cuáles no. Los estudios destacados incluyen: Bauer-Marschallinger et al. (2023), Casas Pedrosa y Rascón Moreno (2023), Coyle et al. (2023), Nikula et al. (2023), Pérez Cañado (2023), Ramón Ramos (2023), Siepmann et al. (2023) y Ting (2023).

Por supuesto, como el nombre sugiere, la mayoría de los estudios AICLE tiene como principal objetivo su impacto sobre el rendimiento lingüístico y el aprendizaje de contenido del alumnado, con el fin de averiguar si la metodología AICLE afecta negativamente o positivamente la adquisición lingüística (L1 y/o L2) y si mejora o empeora el conocimiento del alumno sobre el contenido de la asignatura. Estos estudios incluyen, entre otros: Admiraal et al. (2006), Agustín-Llach (2017, 2019), Anghel et al. (2016), Arribas (2016), Dalton-Puffer (2007b), Dallinger et al. (2016), Denman et al. (2022), Fernández Sanjurjo et al. (2019), Gálvez-Gómez (2021), Llinares et al. (2007), Navarro Pablo (2021), Pérez Cañado (2018a), Pérez Cañado y Lancaster (2017), Piesche et al. (2016). Sin embargo, algunos de estos estudios no controlaron variables importantes como la motivación, la inteligencia o el conocimiento previo, lo cual dificultaba obtener resultados válidos y fiables. Por supuesto, el principal objetivo de este estudio es superar las limitaciones de los estudios previos, controlando estas variables para así conseguir resultados fiables y precisos que puedan servir de base para determinar el futuro de AICLE.

Asimismo, se señalan algunos campos de interés relacionados con los programas bilingües y las variables relacionadas con el rendimiento del alumnado:

- El nivel socioeconómico
- La competencia de la lengua materna con respeto a la adquisición de una segunda lengua
- Cómo influye la variable del género en el rendimiento del alumnado en la educación bilingüe
- Variables de motivación
- El contexto rural-urbano.

España y Andalucía: una aproximación socio-geográfica al estudio

Dentro de España, el AICLE es considerado una versión personalizada del modelo de educación bilingüe que existe en Canadá (*inmersión*) y los Estados Unidos (*instrucción basada en contenido*), propuesta por algunos investigadores como Fernández Sanjurjo et al. (2019). Los investigadores Granados y Lorenzo

(2022) detallan la historia del AICLE en Andalucía, la cual comenzó, según afirman, en el año 1996, cuando el Ministerio de Educación y el Consejo Británico firmaron un acuerdo para mejorar y ampliar la oferta bilingüe a 10 de las 17 comunidades autónomas en España, excluyendo a Andalucía. Casi una década después, se implementó el primer programa bilingüe andaluz, con el decreto 22 del 22 de marzo de 2005, que especificaba claramente que el programa bilingüe no pretendía simplemente aumentar la cantidad de horas dedicadas a la enseñanza bilingüe, sino que implicaba una pedagogía AICLE, combinando así clases de contenido en una lengua extranjera. En el mismo decreto se utilizaba el término "baño de lengua", basado en la comunicación, la interacción y, sobre todo, dando prioridad al aspecto oral.

El sistema educativo español es particular en el sentido de que cada comunidad autónoma tiene un alto nivel de autoridad respecto a la educación de su población. La estructura de gobierno española es descentralizada, lo que significa que cada comunidad tiene su propio sistema educativo, con diferentes normas y formas de implementar el programa bilingüe. Un estudio reciente realizado por Granados y Lorenzo (2022) destaca dos comunidades españolas: Andalucía y Madrid, para resaltar las diferencias entre una región y otra. Principalmente, se destaca la acreditación lingüística del profesorado: mientras que en Andalucía los profesores participantes en el programa bilingüe necesitan acreditar un nivel B2 en la lengua extranjera, en la capital se requiere un nivel C1.

La ley educativa actual en España es la LOMLOE: Ley Orgánica Modificada de Educación, aprobada a finales de 2020, que trae consigo mejoras y cambios en los centros educativos. La educación en Andalucía se rige por la LOMLOE, que modifica, como su nombre indica, la LOE de 2006. Dentro de Andalucía, se ha creado el PEDLA (Plan Estratégico de Desarrollo de las Lenguas en Andalucía) para reemplazar el PPPA (Plan de Plurilingüismo para Andalucía), con el objetivo de mejorar y renovar el programa bilingüe en la región, incluyendo aspectos como la formación profesional, la mejora de los recursos, la ampliación de la oferta bilingüe y la reorganización del currículo.

El estudio

El "esfuerzo para acabar con el elitismo del bilingüismo" ha llegado en forma de AICLE (Granados y Lorenzo, 2022, p. 225, traducción propia). Sin embargo, esto no es un hecho y se debe trabajar para asegurarse de que la metodología AICLE funcione de manera que cierre la brecha entre los alumnos, que, por diferentes niveles socioeconómicos u otras razones, podrían estar en riesgo académico. Por lo tanto, el estudio que forma parte de nuestra Tesis intenta averiguar si el programa bilingüe permite a todos los alumnos sacar provecho, independientemente de su nivel socioeconómico, género, etc., y qué variables o razones podrían dar ventaja a algunos alumnos sobre otros. En este sentido, se ampliaría la brecha educativa que estamos tratando de cerrar en el siglo XXI, algo alineado con los Objetivos de Desarrollo Sostenible de las Naciones

Unidas, principalmente el objetivo 4: garantizar una educación inclusiva, equitativa y de calidad, y promover oportunidades de aprendizaje durante toda la vida para todos.

Para este estudio en concreto, se administraron una serie de pruebas a los participantes, cualitativas para los padres y profesores, y cualitativas y cuantitativas para el alumnado. El estudio cuantitativo para evaluar el impacto de AICLE considera varias variables: motivación, inteligencia, nivel socioeconómico, y género. Adicionalmente, se realizaron análisis discriminantes para confirmar si el programa bilingüe es la causa de las diferencias encontradas entre los denominados niveles académicos en las clases. Con las notas de exámenes del año académico anterior (2017/2018) de L1 y contenido (Historia), las notas de las *pre-tests* de inglés, y los resultados de las pruebas de motivación (Pelechano, 1994) e inteligencia verbal (Santamaría et al. 2019), los 61 alumnos fueron repartidos en tres niveles, según los resultados en cada categoría.

Objetivos

El objetivo principal de esta investigación es determinar si el programa AICLE, desarrollado con 61 alumnos de 4º de ESO, funciona con alumnos de diferentes niveles académicos, tanto lingüísticos como de contenido, y de motivación. Asimismo, busca destacar las prácticas más utilizadas en la clase de AICLE (con la asignatura de Historia) para atender a diferentes niveles de competencia en cuanto a diversos niveles lingüísticos y del contenido, para promover la atención a la diversidad en el aula. Además, las respuestas nos ayudarán a averiguar las limitaciones de esta metodología que aún tenemos que subsanar.

La parte cuantitativa del estudio se complementa con un análisis de las mejores y peores partes del programa, realizado con las partes interesadas (el alumnado, el profesorado y los padres) con respecto a su satisfacción con y funcionamiento de la pedagogía AICLE. Para este análisis se han administrado cuestionarios a tres grupos de interesados, divididos en cinco bloques temáticos relacionados con la diversidad: (1) aspectos lingüísticos, (2) metodología y agrupamiento, (3) materiales y recursos, (4) evaluación y (5) colaboración y formación del profesorado. Todos los profesores participantes eran especialistas en sus respectivas materias (Biología, Historia, Arte, Ciencias de la Tecnología, Música, Economía/Empresariales) y los diez padres eran progenitores de los alumnos que participaban en el estudio cuantitativo.

En nuestro trabajo, se tratan tres *Metaconcerns* que son la base de esta investigación, los cuales son presentados y explicados a continuación:

Metaconcern 1: (estudio cuantitativo: competencia de la lengua extranjera)

1. ¿Producen los programas AICLE los mismos resultados en competencia en la lengua extranjera (inglés) en alumnos de secundaria que tienen tres niveles de motivación, inteligencia verbal, inglés, español, y contenido? Más concretamente, ¿hay una diferencia en competencia lingüística entre los alumnos AICLE con diferentes niveles de logro académico, motivación e inteligencia verbal en los institutos en Andalucía?
2. ¿Qué efecto diferencial (modulador) tienen las siguientes variables en la competencia en lengua extranjera en los alumnos de secundaria: género, nivel socioeconómico, auto-exigencia, ansiedad de los exámenes, interés en estudiar, autoestima e inteligencia verbal?

Metaconcern 2: (estudio cuantitativo: competencia de la lengua española y el contenido)

3. ¿Producen los programas AICLE en Andalucía los mismos resultados en competencia lingüística de la L1 en alumnos de secundaria que tienen tres niveles diferentes de motivación, inteligencia verbal, nivel de inglés y logro académico?
4. ¿Cuál es el efecto diferencial (modulador) en la competencia lingüística española en los alumnos en función de las siguientes variables: género, nivel socioeconómico, auto-exigencia, ansiedad de los exámenes, interés en estudiar, autoestima, e inteligencia verbal?
5. ¿Producen los programas AICLE implementados en los contextos monolingües los mismos resultados en el contenido en los alumnos de secundaria que tienen tres niveles diferentes de motivación, inteligencia verbal, nivel de inglés y logro académico?
6. ¿Cuál es el efecto diferencial (modulador) en el conocimiento de contenido en los alumnos de secundaria en función de las siguientes variables: género, nivel socioeconómico, auto-exigencia, ansiedad de los exámenes, interés en estudiar, autoestima, e inteligencia verbal?
7. Si existe una competencia diferencial entre los diferentes tipos de niveles de rendimiento, ¿a qué variable(s) se debe?

Metaconcern 3: (estudio cualitativo: opiniones por las partes interesadas)

8. ¿Qué percepciones tienen los padres, el alumnado, y el profesorado sobre cómo se está abordando la atención a la diversidad dentro del programa AICLE y cuáles son las principales necesidades de formación profesorado?
9. ¿Hay diferencias estadísticamente significativas entre las percepciones de las partes involucradas (padres/alumnos/profesores)?
10. ¿Dentro del grupo de profesores, existen diferencias estadísticamente significativas entre las

percepciones en función de las variables consideradas (edad, género, experiencia como profesor, situación administrativa, nivel de inglés)?

11. ¿Dentro del grupo de alumnado, existen diferencias estadísticamente significativas entre las percepciones en función de las variables consideradas (género, nivel de inglés, nivel socioeconómico, nacionalidad)?

12. ¿Dentro del grupo de los padres, existen diferencias estadísticamente significativas entre las percepciones en función de las variables consideradas (edad, género, nivel socioeconómico)?

El análisis de los datos cuantitativos se realizó mediante el programa estadístico SPSS en su versión 25.0. Por su parte, los datos cualitativos se analizaron tanto estadísticamente (los ítems de los cuestionarios) como mediante análisis temático (para el caso de las entrevistas semiestructuradas y las observaciones de clase). Las operaciones utilizadas para los datos cuantitativos y cualitativos emplearon estadísticas descriptivas para calcular la media, la mediana y la moda (medidas de tendencia central), rango, alto-bajo, y desviación típica (medidas de dispersión).

Para el *Metaconcern 1*, hay tres preguntas de investigación (RQ1-3) que se centran específicamente en cómo AICLE está afectando la adquisición de L2 de los estudiantes. Las preguntas de investigación 1 y 2 fueron analizadas con la prueba de rangos con signo de Wilcoxon, con el objetivo de comparar los tres niveles de logro ya que habían sido clasificados por género, nivel socioeconómico, los cuatro factores motivacionales, y la inteligencia verbal para determinar si se encontraron diferencias estadísticamente significativas, en función de las variables moderadoras consideradas. Además, se empleó el *r* de Rosenthal para determinar los tamaños de efecto con el coeficiente de correlación *r*, como una manera de medir la fuerza entre nuestras variables. Para la RQ7, se llevó a cabo un análisis discriminante con el objetivo de determinar el grado en que cada variable influyó en los resultados cuantitativos dentro de cada nivel.

Complementando estas pruebas, se empleó el análisis temático (Braun & Clarke, 2007) para los datos de las entrevistas semiestructuradas y las observaciones de clase, tanto para la codificación como para la extracción de conclusiones.

En cuanto al *Metaconcern 2*, se incluyeron cuatro preguntas de investigación (RQ 3-6) para evaluar el efecto del AICLE en la adquisición del L1 y el dominio del contenido. Siguiendo la misma línea del proceso mencionado anteriormente para el *Metaconcern 1*, las cuatro preguntas de investigación en este bloque fueron analizadas con pruebas de rangos con signo de Wilcoxon como una forma de comparar los tres niveles en términos de las variables moduladoras presentadas para concluir si se encontraron diferencias estadísticamente significativas. Nuevamente, se utilizó el *r* de Rosenthal para determinar los tamaños de

efecto con el coeficiente de correlación r , se calcularon estadísticas descriptivas para la tendencia central, la media, la mediana, y la moda, así como medidas de dispersión como la desviación típica, los mínimos y los máximos.

Para el *Metaconcern* 3, se incluyeron cinco preguntas de investigación (RQ 8-12) para evaluar las percepciones y satisfacción de las partes interesadas con el programa AICLE. Para la primera RQ, se calcularon estadísticas descriptivas para la tendencia central, la media, la mediana, y la moda, así como medidas de dispersión como la desviación típica, los mínimos y los máximos. Para las cuatro RQ restantes (9-12), se utilizaron nuevamente el ANOVA y pruebas t pareadas, con el fin de determinar si existían diferencias estadísticamente significativas entre los grupos, teniendo en cuenta las variables moduladoras y de identificación para cada grupo. Se empleó la d de Cohen para determinar los tamaños de efecto. En cuanto a los análisis post hoc, se utilizaron pruebas de Kruskal-Willis y Mann-Whitney U. Asimismo, para la RQ 8, para analizar cualitativamente las respuestas de las entrevistas semiestructuradas y la observación directa, se utilizó el Análisis Temático (Braun & Clarke, 2006) como una forma de codificar los datos y extraer conclusiones.

Metodología

Esta investigación se puede caracterizar como primaria, dado que depende de la aplicación de unas pruebas y cuestionarios previos y posteriores, facilitando una investigación estadística tanto cuantitativa como cualitativa.

El estudio se llevó a cabo en la comunidad autónoma de Andalucía, en la provincia de Cádiz, en un colegio privado. Como se mencionó previamente, participaron un total de 61 alumnos de este centro. El alumnado fue sometido a un programa de intervención diseñado para atender a la diversidad utilizando buenas prácticas de la metodología AICLE.

El estudio se basó en pruebas previas y posteriores diseñadas teniendo en cuenta el currículo de la Educación Secundaria Obligatoria en cuanto a nivel lingüístico y de contenidos, además de haber consultado la legislación vigente tanto a nivel estatal como autonómico. La prueba de contenidos se diseñó originalmente para los alumnos utilizando los libros de texto de la clase de Historia. La prueba de inglés consistía en seis pruebas diferentes, en las que se evaluaban todas las destrezas, y ya estaban prediseñadas originalmente. En cuanto a las pruebas relacionadas con la motivación y la inteligencia, estas fueron utilizadas en estudios previos y fueron reutilizadas en nuestro estudio.

Se utilizó un procedimiento de doble pilotaje para el rediseño de las pruebas originales con el fin

de editar y validar los instrumentos, garantizando una mayor fiabilidad del estudio y los resultados. Primero, los instrumentos se empleó el sistema de jueces y, posteriormente, se administraron a una muestra representativa. Se calculó el coeficiente Alfa de Cronbach y el coeficiente de fiabilidad Kuder-Richardson para cada instrumento con el fin de comprobar el grado de fiabilidad y la consistencia interna, evitando producir datos y resultados no fiables, como ocurrió en estudios previos que han tratado la diversidad en el aula (Pérez Cañado, 2023). Tras la administración de las pruebas previas a los alumnos sobre el contenido de la lengua extranjera (inglés) y antes del cierre del año escolar, se sometió al alumnado a las pruebas posteriores de la misma (inglés) para compararlos con los resultados previos.

En cuanto al análisis de estos resultados, se combinaron pruebas previamente diseñadas y originales para evaluar las competencias de los alumnos en una asignatura AICLE (Historia), la lengua extranjera (inglés), inteligencia, y factores asociados con la motivación. Se recopilaron las notas de los exámenes finales del año académico anterior para inferir el nivel de la lengua materna (español) y nivel base de la asignatura de Historia. La prueba de inglés consistía en fases previas y posteriores a un período de intervención con una duración de un año académico (de octubre a mayo), durante el cual los alumnos de 4º de ESO estaban sujetos a una metodología AICLE enfocada a la diversidad, atención personalizada, y diferenciación.

El contenido de las pruebas originales estuvo supeditado al currículum de la Educación Secundaria Obligatoria, en línea con la legislación vigente tanto a nivel estatal como a nivel de la comunidad autónoma donde se encuentra el estudio (Andalucía). Las pruebas se diseñaron y validaron rigurosamente para aumentar la fiabilidad.

Para complementar el estudio cuantitativo de los alumnos, se desarrolló una parte cualitativa, consistente en cuestionarios destinados específicamente y diferenciados para alumnos, profesores AICLE y padres. Todo ello tenía la finalidad de lograr identificar las limitaciones de las clases AICLE, las necesidades de formación del profesorado y cuáles son las buenas prácticas pedagógicas que se están llevando a cabo en el aula para atender a todos los alumnos y sus necesidades individuales. Estos cuestionarios forman parte del estudio ADiBE Erasmus+ (Atención a la Diversidad En Educación Bilingüe) y fueron originalmente diseñados para analizar el funcionamiento de las clases AICLE con alumnado de diferentes niveles académicos y lingüísticos, como se puede apreciar en el apartado de los anexos en sus versiones originales.

Complementando los datos recopilados de los cuestionarios, se llevaron a cabo entrevistas individuales con los seis docentes y grupos focales con el alumnado, lo que ayudó a obtener una visión verdadera del proceso de AICLE y su funcionamiento con medidas de diversidad, brindando a los participantes la oportunidad de ampliar sus respuestas del cuestionario. Antes de las entrevistas y los

grupos focales, la investigadora recibió capacitación para desarrollar pautas básicas comunes y cómo dar instrucciones claras a los entrevistados, así como para registrar y codificar las respuestas.

Las entrevistas utilizadas para la recopilación de información cualitativa siguieron un formato semiestructurado. Se formularon preguntas directas que se habían establecido previamente, alineadas con las afirmaciones de los cuestionarios y, en esta parte del estudio, se permitió y alentó a los encuestados a elaborar más sus respuestas. Las preguntas que componen las entrevistas corresponden a los apartados incluidos en los cuestionarios para garantizar la comparabilidad entre los instrumentos. Todas las entrevistas se llevaron a cabo cara a cara: las entrevistas a los docentes se realizaron individualmente para fomentar un cierto sentido de confidencialidad y confianza, con un promedio de 30 minutos asignados por entrevista de docente. Por su parte, las entrevistas a los estudiantes se realizaron en grupos focales, aunque no todos los estudiantes participaron en esta faceta.

Finalmente, la observación directa se utilizó como la técnica final de recolección para la parte cualitativa de la investigación. Dos de los tres grupos (docentes y estudiantes) fueron observados durante dos sesiones estándar de una hora de duración de AICLE en las asignaturas de Biología y Business. Estas se centraron en los elementos más objetivos de los cuestionarios y entrevistas correspondientes a la atención a la diversidad. Los protocolos de observación en el aula siguieron la orientación del Protocolo de Observación de Dimensiones de Enseñanza de Hora (TDOP) (2015) y Hora y Ferrare (2014) como una forma de categorizar la pedagogía AICLE impartida en estos casos particulares de manera objetiva y claramente definida, y posteriormente compilar sus características pedagógicas de manera imparcial, centrándose más en un proceso de observación descriptivo que en uno crítico o de juicio.

Programa de intervención

El programa de intervención se llevó a cabo en un instituto en el sur de España, en la provincia de Cádiz, dentro de la comunidad autónoma de Andalucía. Ubicado en una región monolingüe de España donde hay muy poca exposición al inglés fuera del horario escolar, a excepción de actividades pagadas y programas de aprendizaje de inglés, este instituto se destaca por su oferta de lenguas extranjeras y su sólida tradición en AICLE, con clases bilingües en todos los niveles de primaria y secundaria. El instituto se encuentra en Cádiz, una ciudad con una población de poco más de 100.000 habitantes. Ofrece cuatro niveles de enseñanza diferentes: desde preescolar hasta el segundo grado de Bachillerato (tres a 18 años de edad). El nivel socioeconómico del instituto es bastante alto, ya que la mayoría de las familias que pertenecen al instituto pueden clasificarse como de nivel socioeconómico medio-alto a alto, y el instituto en sí está ubicado en un barrio prestigioso.

Resultados cuantitativos

En cuanto al *Metaconcern* 1, que abarca los objetivos 1y 2 relacionados con el efecto del programa CLIL en la competencia en L2, dentro de la parte cuantitativa del estudio, se utilizó una prueba de competencia en inglés diseñada originalmente para medir el nivel lingüístico de los estudiantes en L2 (RQ1). Estas pruebas se administraron a los estudiantes al principio y al final del año escolar académico. El segundo objetivo (RQ2) examinó los efectos moduladores de las variables intervinientes, como el género, el SES, las cuatro variables motivacionales y la inteligencia verbal, en la competencia en L2. Finalmente, el último objetivo relacionado con la L2, la L1 y el contenido (RQ7) tenía la intención de señalar la causa de cualquier diferencia de competencia entre los tres niveles y su causa por alguna variable(s).

Cuando se trata de la adquisición de L2, todos los alumnos, independientemente de su nivel, mejoran significativamente en L2 en la clase AICLE y mejoran su competencia en el idioma inglés. Esto habla mucho del poder del AICLE para nivelar el campo de juego para todos los tipos de estudiantes en el aula. Sin embargo, hay algunas variables intervinientes importantes que sí impactan en la adquisición de L2, principalmente el conocimiento previo de L2, el SES más alto, la autoexigencia, la ansiedad por los exámenes, la autoestima y la inteligencia verbal. Cuando se trata del aprendizaje de la lengua extranjera (LE) en AICLE, los estudiantes más marginados están beneficiándose más en muchos casos: aquellos con bajos niveles de autoexigencia, los estudiantes con altos niveles de ansiedad por los exámenes, estudiantes con niveles medios de autoestima y estudiantes con el nivel más bajo de inteligencia verbal. En este caso, el AICLE parece estar trabajando para ayudar a dar a estos estudiantes lo que necesitan para asimilar la FL de manera igualitaria, o mejor, que sus compañeros. En cuanto a la autoexigencia, el programa está trabajando para ayudar a aquellos estudiantes con bajos a medianos niveles de autoexigencia. Otro punto focal es cuando se trata la ansiedad por los exámenes: el AICLE no solo está trabajando para facilitar la adquisición del lenguaje en la LE de estudiantes con altos niveles de ansiedad por los exámenes, sino para todos los estudiantes, independientemente de la influencia de su ansiedad por los exámenes. En cuanto a la autoestima y el interés por el estudio, los estudiantes con niveles medios de autoestima y aquellos con interés moderado en el estudio son los más afectados, lo que muestra que el AICLE está avanzando en la dirección correcta, ya que estos estudiantes suelen estar privados de los beneficios de este enfoque bilingüe. Finalmente, la inteligencia verbal como variable dice mucho sobre el AICLE: dado que hay resultados estadísticamente significativos para los tres niveles de estudiantes, con niveles altos, medios y bajos de inteligencia verbal, el AICLE realmente está nivelando el campo de juego cuando se trata de la adquisición de LE. En esa misma línea, el género como variable también parece estar anulado, ya que tanto los estudiantes masculinos como los femeninos están beneficiándose del programa. Aunque es cierto que hubo un hallazgo relacionado con el SES, en el cual los estudiantes de SES de alto nivel están superando

a sus compañeros de SES de bajo a medio nivel, este hallazgo es particular para el contexto del estudio, ya que incluso los denominados SES de bajo nivel son en realidad más altos que el SES de la población general.

Para concluir los primeros dos *Metaconcerns*, se realizó un análisis discriminante en los tres niveles de alumnos para identificar la causa de las posibles diferencias de competencia. Lo que destaca de los hallazgos es el efecto de la variable motivacional de autoexigencia personal, algo que está afectando a los estudiantes en la L1, L2, y en su adquisición de contenido. Parece que los estudiantes con niveles más altos de autoexigencia personal se benefician más de estos programas tanto lingüística como académicamente. Cabe destacar también el efecto de la variable de inteligencia verbal: facilita el conocimiento de contenido y la adquisición de la LE por parte de los estudiantes. Por último, el interés por el estudio como variable motivacional parece estar facilitando la asimilación del contenido del curso por parte de los estudiantes. Por supuesto, se puede entender cómo estas variables motivacionales en particular tienen un efecto en la L1, L2, y el contenido de los estudiantes, ya que la autoexigencia personal es una variable motivacional con mucha influencia a la hora de estudiar. De manera similar, el interés por el estudio, que ayuda a los estudiantes a asimilar mejor el conocimiento del contenido, es otra variable inherente relacionada con la motivación del estudiante y su intención o habilidad de seguir y retener el contenido. Finalmente, la inteligencia verbal es otra pieza del programa: aquellos que son más inteligentes tienen mayores beneficios, especialmente en lo que afecta al aprendizaje de contenido.

Pasemos a continuación a analizar los resultados relacionados con el *Metaconcern 2*, compuesto por los objetivos 3-6, que abarcan la faceta cuantitativa del estudio sobre los efectos del AICLE en contenido y L1. Teniendo en cuenta la adquisición de contenido, se compararon y analizaron las pruebas previas y posteriores de conocimiento de contenido (Historia), lo que permitió hacer una evaluación de cómo diferentes estudiantes están asimilando la materia de Historia a través de la metodología AICLE (RQ3). Como se observa en el Capítulo 5, y similar a los resultados obtenidos en la LE (inglés), todos los estudiantes en los tres niveles mejoraron su calificación de contenido en la materia de Historia. Al observar las puntuaciones de contenido del año académico anterior y los cálculos estadísticos subsiguientes, se determinó que el conocimiento previo en la materia es propicio para mayores ganancias de contenido, en la misma línea que el Efecto Mateo (Granados y Lorenzo, 2022) y en consonancia con los hallazgos de Pérez Cañado (2024). Por lo tanto, los estudiantes que tienen más conocimiento de contenido obtienen más adquisición de contenido en esta materia específica (Historia).

Desglosando las variables (RQ4), comenzando con SES y género, el programa AICLE no está favoreciendo a ningún género en concreto, pero está favoreciendo la adquisición de contenido en un nivel

SES específico: aquellos estudiantes de un entorno SES alto ven más mejoras en cuanto al conocimiento de contenido que sus compañeros de SES bajo y medio. Como se explicó en el *Metaconcern* anterior, aunque estos estudiantes fueron categorizados como de SES alto, los estudiantes en los niveles de SES bajo y medio también estaban bastante bien económicamente, dado el contexto de esta escuela en particular.

Desde el punto de vista de las variables motivacionales, hay ciertos estudiantes que se benefician más del programa AICLE cuando se trata de asimilar la materia. En primer lugar, los estudiantes con bajos niveles de autoexigencia se benefician del AICLE, mientras que los estudiantes con niveles medios a altos de ansiedad por los exámenes también son favorecidos por el contenido bilingüe. En cuanto al interés de los estudiantes por el estudio, las clases de AICLE parecen ser más ventajosas para los estudiantes con bajos a medianos niveles de desinterés, aunque hay que decir que el programa no afecta negativamente a los estudiantes con altos niveles de desinterés en el estudio. Relacionado con la variable de autoestima, de manera similar a la variable de autoexigencia, los estudiantes con niveles medios de autoestímase benefician más en cuanto al contenido. Finalmente, en cuanto a la inteligencia verbal, el programa AICLE está haciendo su trabajo: los estudiantes con niveles bajos a medios de inteligencia verbal, es decir, los más marginados, se benefician más de estas clases.

Completando el Metaconcern 2 se encuentra el efecto que el AICLE está teniendo en la lengua materna de los estudiantes (RQ5 y RQ6). Aquí se detectan diferencias estadísticamente significativas tan solo para el grupo con nivel más bajo, un resultado muy alentador, y que este es el que mejora significativamente del pre- al post-test. Al igual que con la L2 y el contenido, no existen diferencias estadísticamente significativas en cuanto a género en L1 ni tampoco en SES. En la primera variable motivacional, el AICLE afecta positivamente a los estudiantes con niveles medios de autoexigencia. En esta misma línea, la ansiedad por los exámenes no pareció afectar en absoluto a la L1, y los estudiantes con niveles de ansiedad por los exámenes bajos a altos se desarrollaron igualmente bien en cuanto a su dominio de la L1. La variable de autoestima se desarrolló de manera idéntica: no existieron diferencias significativas en ninguno de los tres niveles de autoestima (baja, media, alta). Tampoco se produjeron diferencias en cuanto a la inteligencia verbal. Debido a la naturaleza del programa de intervención, la atención a la L1 quedó más en segundo plano, ya que los resultados muestran que el programa AICLE solo fue beneficioso para los estudiantes altamente interesados y no destacó ningún nivel de inteligencia verbal, lo que significa que estaba funcionando igualmente con todos los estudiantes.

Así, la conclusión principal de nuestros primeros y segundos *Metaconcerns* es el importante papel que están teniendo los factores motivacionales en los estudiantes, principalmente el interés (o la falta de

él) en sus estudios, la inteligencia verbal y el conocimiento previo en el contenido, L1 o L2. Como nota positiva, ni el género ni el SES están afectando a estos estudiantes, y tanto los hombres como las mujeres, así como los estudiantes de SES bajo, medio, y alto, están siendo atendidos en la metodología AICLE. Por lo tanto, parece que hay ciertas variables, inherentes a un estudiante, o que han desarrollado a lo largo de los años, como el nivel de aptitud base y el interés en el estudio, que los benefician en su educación AICLE. Esto nos inclinaría a concluir, unidos en nuestro pensamiento a Cross (2022), que la discrepancia o variación en la educación está ocurriendo debido a otros factores, y no está teniendo lugar debido a la metodología AICLE. En resumen: la metodología CLIL en este estudio no está discriminando a los estudiantes de ninguna manera; sin embargo, está beneficiando a algunos de los estudiantes con ciertas variables motivacionales y de inteligencia de manera más positiva que a otros.

Resultados cualitativos

Finalmente, el *Metaconcern 3* abarca una evaluación completa de los tres grupos de interés a través de respuestas a los cuestionarios, que complementaron los datos cualitativos, y fue una parte significativa de la investigación, concerniente a la atención a la diversidad en el aula, dividida en cinco bloques temáticos: aspectos lingüísticos, metodología y agrupaciones, materiales y recursos, evaluación, colaboración y formación del profesorado. También se incluyeron en los datos cualitativos las observaciones directas en el aula y los grupos focales, que solo incluían a los estudiantes, así como las entrevistas semiestructuradas con el grupo de profesores. Los resultados que provienen del estudio cualitativo son una recopilación de las respuestas a los cuestionarios y entrevistas, así como los comportamientos observados en las observaciones del aula. Como se mencionó anteriormente, el estudio cualitativo incluye a todos los participantes. Los estudiantes completaron los cuestionarios y posteriormente asistieron a una reunión informal (grupo focal) donde hablaron sobre el mismo contenido del cuestionario, concentrándose en algunos aspectos con más detalle. Los profesores rellenaron los cuestionarios y posteriormente asistieron a entrevistas individuales para poder darles la mejor oportunidad de explicar sus respuestas al cuestionario. En cuanto a los padres, estos únicamente cumplieron los cuestionarios, ya que, por cuestiones de tiempo y organización, no podíamos entrevistarlos.

En general, todos los participantes están contentos y satisfechos con este programa bilingüe en concreto. Destaca especialmente el entusiasmo mostrado por los padres, quienes tienen un nivel de satisfacción superior con respecto a las otras partes del estudio (alumnado y profesorado). Los padres tienen una mayor confianza en el programa en general, piensan que los profesores están atendiendo a la diversidad en todos sus aspectos y confían totalmente en la formación del profesorado. Mientras esta conclusión coincide con otros estudios (e.g. Milla Lara y Casas Pedrosa, 2018; Ramón Ramos, 2023),

también merece la pena mencionar el contexto del estudio: un colegio privado urbano. Entonces, el nivel de satisfacción de los padres podría tener un vínculo con el hecho de que están pagando por la educación.

Después de los padres, es el profesorado quien muestra un nivel de aprobación alto por el programa y el colegio en general, así como su propia capacidad para atender a diferentes alumnos y niveles en la clase. Cabe destacar que este grupo de profesores, seis en concreto, no es muy común en el régimen de Andalucía, ya que la mitad de ellos son hablantes nativos de inglés y dos de ellos, no nativos, tienen un certificado C2 en inglés, bastante superior al que la comunidad andaluza requiere para sus funcionarios. Recordamos que el nivel mínimo que debería acreditar un profesor participante en el programa bilingüe andaluz es un B2, por lo que el profesorado en este colegio en concreto tiene un nivel lingüístico mucho más alto que el que sería habitual en otros centros. Además, dos de los tres hablantes nativos de inglés tenían un nivel básico de la lengua española, lo que tampoco es común en el contexto andaluz. Sin embargo, una deficiencia que resalta claramente sobre las demás una vez revisados los cuestionarios y las entrevistas es la falta de formación en atención a la diversidad. Ningún profesor afirma haber recibido formación en este aspecto, y muestran un alto grado de incertidumbre, ya que presuponen que, al ser alumnos de un colegio privado, no necesitan ningún tipo de diversificación o adaptaciones. De hecho, el profesorado en general niega la existencia de necesidades especiales, solo exceptuando a los alumnos extranjeros que no tienen el castellano como lengua materna.

Por último, el alumnado muestra un menor grado de satisfacción en comparación con las otras partes involucradas, aunque, aun así, están bastante contentos con el programa bilingüe en el que participan. Los alumnos creen que sus profesores están bien formados y les gusta que sean profesores nativos y/o tengan un nivel alto de la lengua extranjera. Los aspectos donde menos aprecian la labor del profesor son la metodología y los materiales y recursos. Ellos no ven muchas de las estrategias que sí destacan los padres y el profesorado y no consideran que el profesorado esté invirtiendo horas en la creación de materiales. Esto se debe a la invisibilidad de mucha de la labor del profesorado, como destacan Siepmann et al. (2023).

Otra peculiaridad de este centro fue el énfasis en la lengua extranjera. Tanto los profesores como el alumnado remarcaron, en sus encuestas y entrevistas, la importancia del inglés en el centro, siendo más importante, en la mente de algunos profesores y alumnos, la adquisición lingüística que la materia. Esto también se refleja en el uso de la figura del auxiliar de conversación, que no formaba parte de la clase AICLE, sino que ayudaba al alumnado con deficiencias en inglés para mejorar su rendimiento lingüístico. En esta misma línea, los profesores AICLE no comunicaban ninguna colaboración con los profesores de áreas lingüísticas, y no daban importancia al aprendizaje explícito de la lengua extranjera en clase. Los

propios alumnos reconocían que el idioma extranjero no figuraba como parte de la evaluación de las asignaturas AICLE.

También es importante destacar la importancia de los exámenes externos en este centro, alineados con las conclusiones de Hidalgo-McCabe (2022) en la capital, Madrid, donde los padres piden más controles externos para comprobar el nivel lingüístico de sus hijos. Aquí en este centro ocurrió lo mismo, y el centro tenía un sistema rígido para la acreditación del nivel del idioma extranjero. Los alumnos deberían superar el nivel B1 al final de 6º de EPO, un B2 al final de 2º de ESO y un C1 al final de 4º de ESO. Esta también podría ser la razón por la que muchos de estos alumnos mostraban niveles medio-altos de ansiedad ante los exámenes.

Conclusiones, limitaciones e investigaciones futuras.

Aunque novedoso y fructífero en sus hallazgos, este estudio exhibe innegablemente ciertas limitaciones que deben abordarse en futuras investigaciones orientadas a recopilar datos empíricos más sólidos sobre el tema de la diversidad en las aulas AICLE. Esto es crucial para garantizar la solidez de la implementación y los cursos de formación para esta metodología. Las limitaciones de este estudio son cuatro: el tamaño de la muestra reducido, el contacto limitado con el grupo de padres, la presencia tanto de estudiantes españoles como extranjeros y el uso de las calificaciones de exámenes finales como indicador para el conocimiento basal en el L1 y la asignatura de contenido.

Para empezar, el tamaño muestral de este estudio es relativamente pequeño, compuesto solo por 77 participantes de una escuela en una provincia. Por lo tanto, la extrapolación de estos hallazgos a entornos diferentes es limitada. Sin embargo, el tamaño de muestra pequeño facilitó una relación más cercana y personal con los participantes, especialmente los docentes y estudiantes. Este vínculo, que fue posible porque la investigadora también desempeñó la labor de entrevistadora y profesora, marcó la diferencia en este estudio y contribuyó a conclusiones más sólidas.

En esa misma línea, el contacto limitado con el grupo de padres representa una limitación para este estudio. Debido a restricciones logísticas y de tiempo, las interacciones con los padres fueron mínimas en comparación con las interacciones diarias con los docentes y los estudiantes. Por lo tanto, los estudios futuros deberían priorizar la participación del grupo de padres sin diluir los resultados. La confianza entre los participantes y el investigador juega un papel fundamental, y aunque fue alta entre los docentes y los estudiantes, lograr un nivel similar con los padres habría sido difícil y podría haber comprometido la relación existente.

En tercer lugar, la inclusión tanto de estudiantes españoles como extranjeros presenta otra limitación debido a la ausencia de un idioma compartido como primera lengua (L1). Sin embargo, esta diversidad ofrece una perspectiva internacional, reflejando la realidad de muchas aulas españolas. La investigación futura debería profundizar en la perspectiva extranjera del primer idioma.

Por último, la naturaleza de los instrumentos, principalmente las pruebas de contenido y L1 derivadas de asignaturas como Historia y Lengua y Literatura Españolas, en lugar de utilizar pruebas externas totalmente validadas, representa una limitación. Sin embargo, esta decisión se consideró necesaria dado que las clases del programa de intervención se impartieron íntegramente en inglés y se adaptaron a estudiantes con un nivel de competencia en inglés ligeramente superior al de la población general española. Usar pruebas de contenido externas no habría captado con precisión la esencia de esta clase AICLE y habría comprometido la validez de las mismas.

A pesar de estas limitaciones, este estudio tiene como objetivo contribuir al discurso en torno a la diversidad en el AICLE y espera avanzar en esta pedagogía hacia una educación lingüística más inclusiva. El programa AICLE en España, particularmente en Andalucía, ha experimentado un desarrollo significativo a lo largo de sus más de dos décadas de existencia, mejorando con éxito la competencia en la segunda lengua (L2) de los estudiantes sin perjudicar la adquisición de su primera lengua (L1) o la asignatura de contenido. También ha demostrado ser beneficioso para los docentes, aumentando su satisfacción laboral y competencia lingüística, mientras que los padres expresan una alta satisfacción y aceptación. Además, proporciona oportunidades para que los padres marginados vean a sus hijos adquirir habilidades necesarias para la movilidad social.

De este estudio particular han surgido varias líneas de investigación futura, incluyendo cómo fomentar la colaboración entre los diferentes tipos de docentes (también propuesto por San Isidro & Pérez Cañado, 2023), así como estudios que puedan explicar las discrepancias que existen entre las percepciones de los tres grupos, especialmente el vacío entre lo que los estudiantes ven sucediendo en el aula en contraste con lo que los profesores comunican que está ocurriendo (también alineado con los autores mencionados anteriormente, 2023). La investigación relacionada con la motivación, centrándose en variables del aprendiz y sus efectos en diferentes contextos, también es imperativa. Además, se justifica una exploración más profunda de la adquisición de contenido en AICLE, el papel de la primera lengua (L1) y estudios basados en la evaluación.

Este estudio, en su contexto en Andalucía, ha querido contribuir al banco de investigación que hay hoy en día sobre AICLE y su metodología inclusiva. Por ende, esperamos seguir mejorando la educación bilingüe en todos sus aspectos, proporcionando más evidencia de sus puntos de inflexión además de señalar sus puntos débiles; para poder actualizar y mejorar el AICLE; para que la educación bilingüe sea realmente

una educación para todos: para que el nivel socioeconómico, el contexto, el conocimiento previo de una lengua o una materia o cualquier otra circunstancia no influya negativamente en el rendimiento académico del alumnado; y para que todos puedan salir satisfactoriamente del colegio y entrar en el mundo laboral al mismo nivel que los demás, sin haber sufrido discriminación en ningún momento por la educación. El programa AICLE en Andalucía ha mostrado, con investigaciones recientes, que el futuro de la educación bilingüe deberá seguir ampliándose para que la mayor cantidad de alumnos posibles tenga acceso a una experiencia educativa inclusiva de mayor calidad.

El AICLE podrá asegurar que todo el alumnado, en su diversidad, pueda tener éxito y prosperar en sus estudios e ir más allá, dándoles una oportunidad que quizás no hayan tenido desde su infancia, por cualquier razón o motivo. No deberíamos dejar a ningún niño atrás, pero, al mismo tiempo, deberíamos velar por su igualdad en la educación e incorporarlos en la sociedad española y europea, para que cada uno tenga las mismas oportunidades de estudiar, viajar o trabajar. Por eso, esperamos que este estudio ayude a abrir el camino e inspire más estudios, para seguir investigando cómo podríamos mejorar la educación bilingüe para todos, ayudando al profesorado para que esté bien formado y seguro con su pedagogía, promoviendo así que el alumnado acceda sin ninguna barrera al aula bilingüe y logrando que los padres sientan que sus hijos pueden participar con igualdad en la sociedad, y competir con sus compañeros de una manera justa y sin discriminación.

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Appendices

Appendix I English competence test

/100

ENGLISH TEST

SECONDARY EDUCATION, 4TH GRADE

Date: ___ / ___ / 20__

Name: _____ Sexo: H ☐ / M ☐

Use of English: / 26

A. Rewrite these questions using the correct word order:

(1) long the how programme does last?

_____?

(2) to radio Sunday did listen the last you?

_____?

(3) of do like kind which programme you?

_____?

(4) loud too radio the is why?

_____?

B. Change these sentences into the active. Example: Pictures are transmitted by television →
Television transmits pictures.

(5) The transmission can be interrupted by high mountains.

High mountains _____.

(6) How can this problem be solved?

How can we _____?

(7) Other transmitters can be built on the top of the hills.

We can _____.

(8) The waves are changed into sound by the aerial.

The aerial _____.

C. (9-13) Complete the text with the verbs in the past tense:

Yesterday Aunt Betty _____ (lose) her glasses. She _____ (can) find them. "Help me!", she _____ (ask). "O.K.", I _____ (reply). "Remember where you _____ (put) them". "Yes, now what _____ (do) I do? I _____ (come) into the house. I _____ (take) off my coat. Tibby _____ (want) some food. I _____ (give) him some". At last she found her glasses.

D. (14-18) Complete these sentences with: *anything/something*; *tell/say* (in the right form); *bring/take* (in the right form):

- Do you mean to _____ me that you're going out with Celo AGAIN??!
- Can you _____ a bottle of wine to my party, please? Thanks.
- Did you speak to him? Yes, but I didn't understand a word he _____!
- I'm so nervous! I've got an exam tomorrow, and I can't remember _____!
- If you go to Scotland, _____ some warm clothing with you!
- Come here: there's _____ I want to _____ you.
- Last month he _____ a break for a week.
- Do you understand _____ about car engines?
- Yesterday he _____ to me: "I'm not going to drive tomorrow. I'll walk".

E. Underline the right words in brackets:

(19) If I (*lived / am living*) in London, (*I'd go / I'll go*) to the theatre every week.

(20) If we (*went / go*) to Madrid, (*we'll visit / we visit*) you.

(21) If my father (*has / had*) a car, he (*would travel / travelling*) a lot.

(22) If I (*am / were*) you, I (*wouldn't / will*) eat so much.

F. (23-26) Complete this text with the correct forms –the PAST (for example, *went*) or the PRESENT PERFECT (for example, *has gone*)– of the verbs in brackets:

I'm feeling terribly hungry, because I _____ (not, have) my lunch yet. I _____ (have) breakfast four hours ago, at 8 o'clock, and I _____ (not, have) anything since then. So you can imagine how I feel. I have a lot of work to do these days: yesterday I _____ (stay) at the office until half past seven! I _____ (never, do) that before, but my boss _____ (want) me to finish the report I was writing. Luckily I _____ (finish) it on time, so I _____ (be) able to get home in time to see the football on TV.

Vocabulary: / 15

G. Complete this text using one of the following words and expressions: ON YOUR OWN, OVERCOME, QUIT, CUT DOWN, IMPROVE, HEALTH, WILL POWER, HARM.

If you want to keep your **(27)** _____, it is important to **(28)** _____ smoking or at least to **(29)** _____: let's say from twenty to ten or five cigarettes a day. Even if you only reduce by three a day, your health will **(30)** _____. It isn't easy, of course; you need a lot of **(31)** _____, and you will need to **(32)** _____ the temptation to start smoking again. But keep at it! Smoking does you tremendous **(33)** _____: so quit now!

H. (34-41) Match symbol and text:

1		A. Hot water to all washbasins
2		B. Tents admitted (with number of pitches and rates)
3		C. Shaver points
4		D. Dogs admitted on lead
5		E. Sailing from site
6		F. Riding/pony trekking from site
7		G. Indoor heated swimming pool on site
8		H. Fishing at site

1: ____; 2: ____; 3: ____; 4: ____; 5: ____; 6: ____; 7: ____; 8: ____

Listening: / 14

I. You will hear a news presenter. You must listen and circle the correct answer. You will hear the news report twice.

(42-43) The news report takes place on

A. Thursday 8th February

B. Tuesday 8th February

C. Thursday 18th February

D. Thursday 18th January

(44-45) Which sentence is true?

A. Babies are fatter than before B. Five-year-old children are fatter than before

C. Babies are thinner than before D. Five-year-old children are thinner than before

(46-47) What have children stopped doing?

A	B	C	D
			

(48-49) How much money will Peter possibly earn in total?

A. 50 000 dollars

B. 150 000 dollars

C. 165 000 dollars

D. 200 000 dollars

(50-51) What instrument does Peter play now?

A	B	C	D
			

(52-53) What is Kirstie's profession?

- A. A model B. An actress
- C. A hockey player D. A flight attendant

(54-55) Where does Kirstie work?

- A. In Australia B. In New Zealand
- C. In London D. In Manchester

Reading: / 14

J. Read the following text and circle the correct answer:

* * *

BODY TALK

A smile, a frown, a handshake or a kiss. All of these actions are part of our everyday communication and make up what is commonly known as “body language”. Even though we might not know it, we are constantly sending messages with our bodies without speaking. Some researchers believe that our body language makes up to sixty percent of all of our face-to-face communication and it has been shown that it plays an important role in key areas of our lives, including our success in job interviews, understanding what people are saying, making friends and falling in love. But what are the keys to body language? Here are some examples.

Paragraph A

Hitting someone in the face is a very obvious example of aggressive body language; but there are more subtle forms of showing your aggression. If you look at someone directly in the eyes, frown, and lean forward, you are showing the other person that you do not agree with them and that you probably do not like what they are saying. If you cross your arms or you legs, you are showing a defensive posture. Similarly, if you avoid eye contact with someone, you might be unconsciously telling them that you do not want to tell them the truth.

Paragraph B

It might seem unfair, but the success of a job interview often depends on the first few seconds of the interview and during these initial moments your body is giving many important signals. In an interview situation, apart from dressing well, it is important to move with confidence, not too fast and not too slow. You should also have a pleasant facial expression and try to show positive signs like interest, not boredom or nervousness.

Paragraph C

For many people, one of the most important aspects of body language is the communication of your feelings towards another person. Common signs of romantic love can be observed when two people smile at each other, sit or stand close together and look at each other for longer periods of time than usual.

Paragraph D

So what can we do to improve communication with our bodies? Firstly, it is important to be conscious of our own body language and, in certain situations, to try to control it. We should also try to observe the other person as we pay attention to what they are saying in order to understand not only the words, but also the feelings that they are expressing.

* * *

(56-59) Which title is best for each of the paragraphs?

First impressions	A	B	C	D
Attack or defence	A	B	C	D
How to use body language	A	B	C	D
I love you	A	B	C	D

(60-61) According to the text, in which situation is body language useful?

- A. When you are speaking to another person on the phone
- B. When you are writing a job application
- C. When you are speaking in the presence of another person
- D. When you are playing a role

(62-63) If a person does not look at you, it is possible that

- A. S/he is lying to you
- B. S/he is in love with you
- C. S/he is confident
- D. S/he is being aggressive

(64-65) In an interview,

- A. What you wear is not important

- B. You might get the job depending on your body language
- C. You should cross your legs
- D. You should have a neutral expression

(66-67) According to the text, looking at another person for a long while can be a sign of

- A. Indifference
- B. Affection
- C. Self-defence
- D. Boredom

(68-69) When using body language, it is useful to

- A. Avoid eye contact
- B. Show that you are bored
- C. Hit the other person
- D. Look and listen to the other person

Writing: / 15

K. (70-84) You receive an e-mail from an English friend, Michael. Here is part of the e-mail:
I have just started to do karate. It's great! I go every Tuesday and Thursday. What about you? What do you do in your free time?

Answer Michael's e-mail in the space provided below:



The image shows a screenshot of an email composition window. The title bar at the top says "My free time". Below the title bar, there are fields for "To:", "Cc:", and "Bcc:". The "To:" field is filled with "michael345634@hotmail.com". The "Subject:" field is filled with "My free time". Below these fields, there is a rich text editor with a toolbar containing icons for bold (B), italic (I), underline (U), font size (12), text color, background color, bulleted list, numbered list, link, and unlink. The main body of the email is a large, empty white area. At the bottom of the window, there is a grey bar with the text "Drop Attachments Here".

Speaking: / 16

L. In pairs. Answer the questions below about your personal life.

(85) Hi, what's your name? And surname(s)? ☐

(86) How do you spell that [referring to name or surname(s)]? ☐

(87) Where do you live? ☐

(88) Can you describe your house? ☐

(89) Who do you live with? ☐

(90) What do you like to do in your free time? ☐

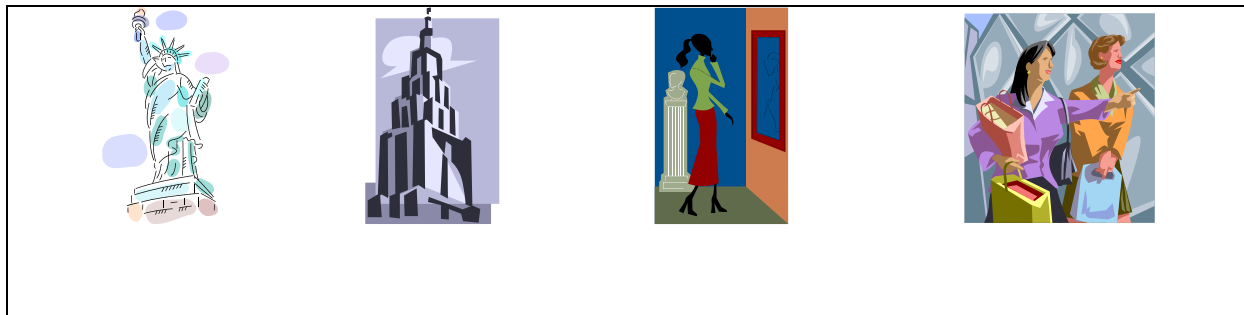
(91) Have you ever travelled to another country [if not, city]? What did you do there? ☐

(92) What would you like to do in the future? ☐

M. In pairs. Spoken interaction: two-way dialogue. Use **ONLY** one scenario.

- Scenario 1**



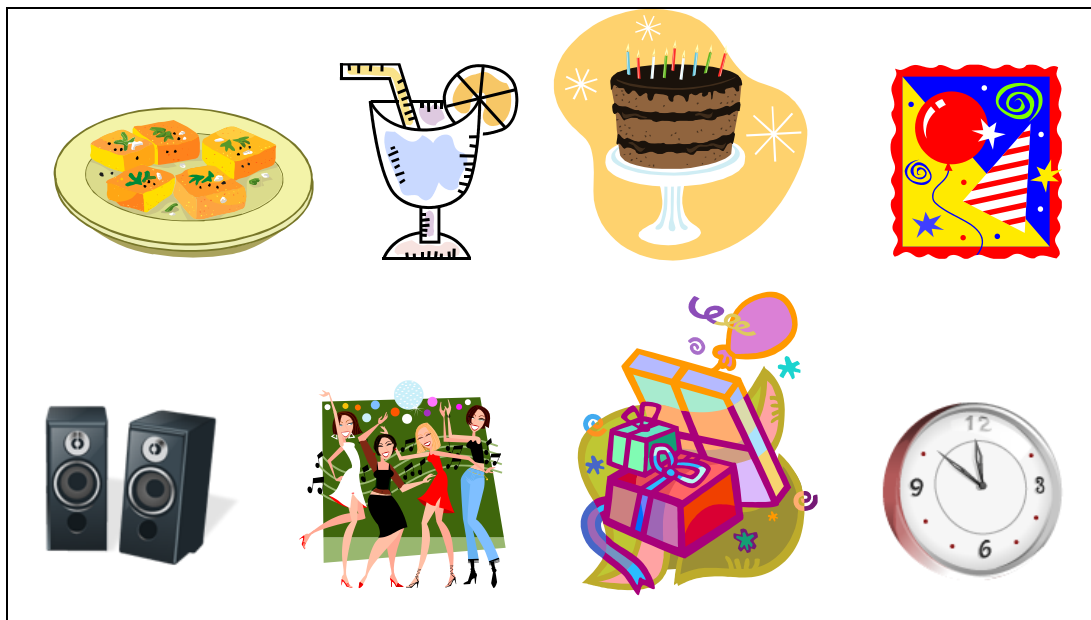


Examiner: Now, I want you to imagine that you are going on a trip to New York. Both of you have to plan the trip. Look at the examples in the pictures below and decide:

- **(93-94)** What things you are going to bring with you
- **(95-96)** What you are going to do in New York

* * *

- **Scenario 2**

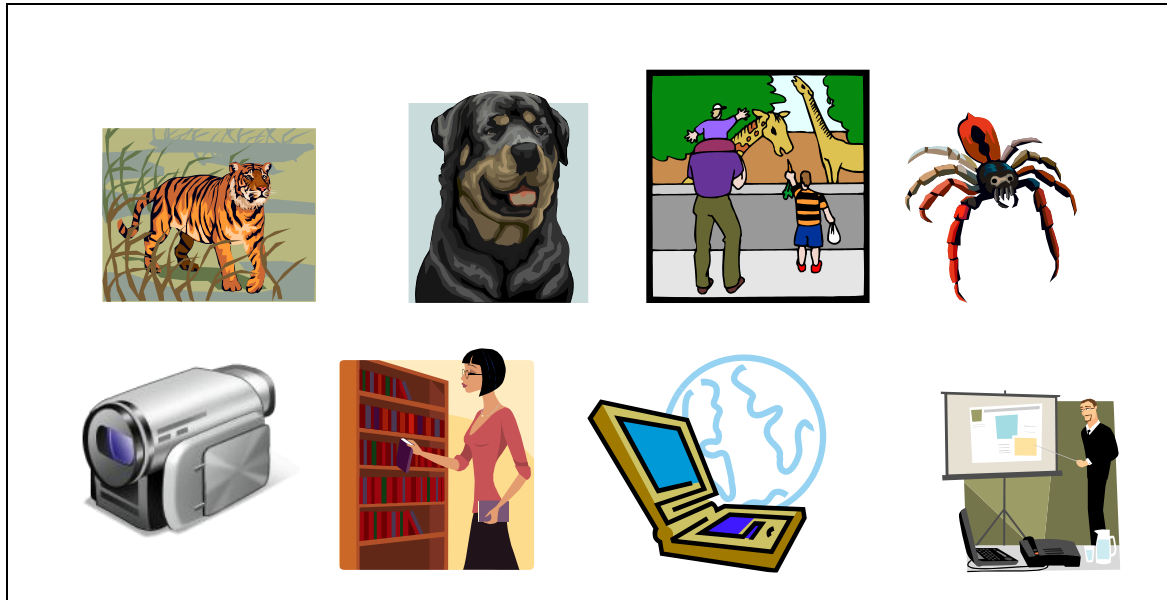


Examiner: Now, I want you to imagine that you are going to organise a surprise birthday party for a friend. Both of you have to plan the party. Look at the examples in the pictures below and decide:

- **(93-94)** What you are going to buy for the party
- **(95-96)** What you are going to do at the party

* * *

- **Scenario 3**



Examiner: Now, I want you to imagine that you are going to do a school project on animals. Both of you have to plan the project. Look at the examples in the pictures below and decide:

- **(93-94)** What animal or animals you are going to write about
- **(95-96)** What you are going to do for the project

C. Three-way dialogue.

Examiner: now the three of us are going to talk about two topics. Here we have to give our opinion on each thing. We can ask questions, debate, agree or disagree [examiner chooses only from Block A or Block B].

Block A	Block B
The importance of English (97-98)	The importance of school (97-98)
Internet (99-100)	Mobile phones (99-100)

Appendix II Student Questionnaires

Age: _____

Gender: ____ Male ____ Female

Nationality: _____

How many years have you studied in a bilingual/trilingual school: _____

How much of these subjects are taught in the foreign language (give the percentage):

History: _____

Economics: _____

Coding: _____

Computers: _____

Other: _____ (please specify which class)

PLEASE STATE YOUR OPINION AND RATE HOW STRONGLY YOU AGREE OR DISAGREE WITH THE FOLLOWING
STATEMENTS RELATED TO BILINGUAL TEACHING (1=Strongly disagree; 2=Slightly disagree; 3=Disagree; 4=Agree;
5=Slightly agree; 6=Strongly agree).

1. LINGUISTIC ASPECTS

STATEMENTS	STRONGLY DISAGREE	DISAGREE	SLIGHTLY DISAGREE	SLIGHTLY AGREE	AGREE	STRONGLY AGREE
1. I find it challenging to learn in classes with students who have different levels of the foreign language.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. I find it challenging to learn in classes with students who have different levels of academic achievement.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. My CLIL teachers provide us with linguistic support to help us understand difficult aspects in the class.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. My CLIL teachers provide us with strategies to help us understand the content we are learning in the foreign language.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. My CLIL teachers repeat parts or the whole of a lesson in our first language to help us understand the content we are learning.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. My CLIL teachers' communication skills in the foreign language are sufficient to help all types of learners.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. My CLIL teachers' specialized knowledge of the subject is sufficient to help all types of learners.	1	2	3	4	5	6

2. METHODOLOGY AND TYPES OF GROUPINGS

STATEMENTS	STRONGLY DISAGREE	DISAGREE	SLIGHTLY DISAGREE	SLIGHTLY AGREE	AGREE	STRONGLY AGREE
8. My CLIL teachers' lessons are sensitive to students with diverse needs.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9. In our CLIL lessons, there is not enough time to attend to different types of learners.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10. My teacher has an adequate repertoire of methods to help different types of learners in the CLIL classroom.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11. Our CLIL classroom work is student-centered.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12. Our CLIL classroom work uses cooperative learning.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13. My CLIL teachers appeal to multiple intelligences in the CLIL classroom.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14. My CLIL teachers use task-/project-based classroom work.	1	2	3	4	5	6

15. Our CLIL classroom work is teacher-led.	1	2	3	4	5	6
16. We use different types of groupings in my CLIL classroom.	1	2	3	4	5	6
17. In my CLIL classroom, we work in pairs with students who have different levels.	1	2	3	4	5	6
18. In my CLIL classroom, we work in groups with students who have different levels.	1	2	3	4	5	6
19. My teachers provide more personalized attention (individual or in smaller groups) to learners who need additional support.	1	2	3	4	5	6
20. We use peer mentoring and assistance strategies in the CLIL classroom to help different types of learners.	1	2	3	4	5	6
21. We use different types of physical work spaces in the CLIL classroom.	1	2	3	4	5	6
22. At my school, we have newcomer classes to help CLIL students who have just arrived.	1	2	3	4	5	6

3. MATERIALS AND RESOURCES

STATEMENTS	STRONGLY DISAGREE	DISAGREE	SLIGHTLY DISAGREE	SLIGHTLY AGREE	AGREE	STRONGLY AGREE
23. Our textbook takes into account different levels of achievement among students.	1	2	3	4	5	6
24. We normally use adapted materials which take into account different levels of achievement among students.	1	2	3	4	5	6
25. My CLIL teachers normally create materials to take into account different levels of achievement among students.	1	2	3	4	5	6
26. We use ICT to cater to diversity in our CLIL classroom.	1	2	3	4	5	6
If you have responded positively to the previous question, please specify the main technological options you use:						
27. We use multimodal instructional materials (with a combination of visual, textual, and/or numeric input) to cater to diversity in our CLIL classroom.	1	2	3	4	5	6

4. EVALUATION AND ASSESSMENT

STATEMENTS	STRONGLY DISAGREE	DISAGREE	SLIGHTLY DISAGREE	SLIGHTLY AGREE	AGREE	STRONGLY AGREE
28. The assessment criteria which my CLIL teachers use evaluate students with different levels fairly.	1	2	3	4	5	6
29. In my evaluation, my CLIL teachers take into account different levels of achievement among students.	1	2	3	4	5	6
30. In continuous (formative) evaluation, my CLIL teachers cater to diversity.	1	2	3	4	5	6
31. In final (summative) evaluation, my CLIL teachers cater to diversity.	1	2	3	4	5	6
32. My CLIL teachers use grading rubrics which take into account diversity.	1	2	3	4	5	6
33. My performance has improved as a result of CLIL teachers taking into account attention to diversity.	1	2	3	4	5	6
34. In continuous (formative) evaluation, my CLIL teachers provide more detailed guidelines as extra support to cater to diversity.	1	2	3	4	5	6
35. In continuous (formative) evaluation, my CLIL teachers provide more personalized and regular feedback in terms of the different types of achievers.	1	2	3	4	5	6
36. In continuous (formative) evaluation, my CLIL teachers attune the level of the activities they ask us to do in class to our level of achievement.	1	2	3	4	5	6
37. In continuous (formative) evaluation, my CLIL teachers provide different homework according to individual levels of achievement.	1	2	3	4	5	6
38. In final (summative) evaluation, my CLIL teachers highlight key words in the exam and adapt its vocabulary to cater to different academic/foreign language proficiency.	1	2	3	4	5	6
39. In final (summative) evaluation, my CLIL teachers provide different versions of the same exam and allow more time to carry it out in order to cater to diversity.	1	2	3	4	5	6

5. TEACHER COLLABORATION AND DEVELOPMENT

STATEMENTS	STRONGLY DISAGREE	DISAGREE	SLIGHTLY DISAGREE	SLIGHTLY AGREE	AGREE	STRONGLY AGREE	DOES NOT APPLY
40. My CLIL teachers coordinate/collaborate with each other in order to cater to diversity.	1	2	3	4	5	6	☐
41. We have the support of multi-professional teams (special education needs support staff, psychologists, social workers) to cater to diversity in our CLIL classroom.	1	2	3	4	5	6	☐
42. At my school, we have a guidance counsellor who helps learners with different needs and their families.	1	2	3	4	5	6	☐
43. My language teachers are sufficiently prepared to cater to diversity in the CLIL classroom.	1	2	3	4	5	6	☐
44. My content teachers are sufficiently prepared to cater to diversity in the CLIL classroom.	1	2	3	4	5	6	☐
45. The language assistants are sufficiently prepared to cater to diversity in the CLIL classroom.	1	2	3	4	5	6	☐
46. At my school, there is parental support and engagement in order to help me with my CLIL learning.	1	2	3	4	5	6	☐
47. I am satisfied with the support system which my school currently has in place to help me with my CLIL classes.	1	2	3	4	5	6	☐

THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR YOUR PARTICIPATION.

Appendix III Teacher Questionnaires

<i>ADiBE Project: Attention to Diversity in Bilingual Education</i> Questionnaire TEACHERS		

1. SCHOOL: _____ 2. GRADE: _____ 3. AGE: _____ 4. GENDER: ☐ Male ☐ Female ☐ Other 5. NATIONALITY: _____ 6. TYPE OF TEACHER: ☐ Foreign language teacher ☐ Content teacher ☐ Teaching assistant ☐ Other: _____ 7. ADMINISTRATIVE SITUATION: ☐ Civil servant with a permanent post ☐ Civil servant with a provisional post ☐ Temporary teacher ☐ Other: _____ 8. LEVEL IN THE FOREIGN LANGUAGE YOU TEACH: ☐ A1 (Beginner) ☐ A2 (Elementary) ☐ B1 (Intermediate) ☐ B2 (Upper-Intermediate) ☐ C1 (Advanced) ☐ C2 (Proficient)	9. SUBJECT(S) YOU TEACH IN THE FOREIGN LANGUAGE: _____ _____ _____ _____ 10. HOW MUCH OF EACH SUBJECT IS TAUGHT IN THE FOREIGN LANGUAGE? PLEASE SPECIFY THE PERCENTAGE: _____ _____ _____ _____ 11. ARE YOU THE COORDINATOR OF THE BILINGUAL SECTION IN YOUR SCHOOL? ☐ Yes ☐ No ☐ Does not apply 12. OVERALL TEACHING EXPERIENCE: ☐ Less than 1 year ☐ 1-10 years ☐ 11-20 years ☐ 21-30 years ☐ Over 30 years 13. TEACHING EXPERIENCE IN A BILINGUAL PROGRAM: ☐ Less than 1 year ☐ 1-5 years ☐ 6-10 years ☐ 11-15 years ☐ 16-20 years ☐ Over 20 years

PLEASE RATE HOW STRONGLY YOU AGREE OR DISAGREE WITH THE FOLLOWING STATEMENTS RELATED TO BILINGUAL TEACHING (1=Strongly disagree; 2=Slightly disagree; 3=Disagree; 4=Agree; 5=Slightly agree; 6=Strongly agree).

1. LINGUISTIC ASPECTS

STATEMENTS	STRONGLY DISAGREE	DISAGREE	SLIGHTLY DISAGREE	SLIGHTLY AGREE	AGREE	STRONGLY AGREE
1. I find it challenging to teach CLIL classes with learners who are diverse in their target language proficiency.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. I find it challenging to teach CLIL classes with learners who are diverse in their academic achievement.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. I find it equally challenging to teach CLIL and non-CLIL learners who are diverse in their foreign language proficiency.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. I find it equally challenging to teach CLIL and non-CLIL learners who are diverse in their academic achievement.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. I use scaffolding with respect to language as a useful technique to cater to diversity in my CLIL classroom.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. I use scaffolding with respect to content as a useful technique to cater to diversity in my CLIL classroom.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. I cover parts or the whole of a CLIL lesson in the L1 as a useful technique to cater to diversity in my CLIL classroom.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. My communication skills in the target language are sufficient to cope with diversity in my CLIL classroom.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9. My specialized academic language is sufficient to cope with diversity in my CLIL classroom.	1	2	3	4	5	6

2. METHODOLOGY AND TYPES OF GROUPINGS

STATEMENTS	STRONGLY DISAGREE	DISAGREE	SLIGHTLY DISAGREE	SLIGHTLY AGREE	AGREE	STRONGLY AGREE
10. I find it easy to design a CLIL lesson that caters for all students.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11. I find preparing CLIL lessons which are sensitive to students with diverse needs time-consuming.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12. In my case, CLIL teaching does not allow enough time to attend to different achievers.	1	2	3	4	5	6

13. I have an adequate repertoire of methods at my disposal to address diversity in my CLIL classroom.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14. My classroom work is student-centered in order to cater to diversity in CLIL.	1	2	3	4	5	6
15. I base classroom work on cooperative learning principles in order to cater to diversity in CLIL.	1	2	3	4	5	6
16. I appeal to multiple intelligences in my classroom work in order to cater to diversity in CLIL.	1	2	3	4	5	6
17. I use task-/project-based classroom work in order to cater to diversity in CLIL.	1	2	3	4	5	6
18. My classroom work is teacher-led in order to cater to diversity in CLIL.	1	2	3	4	5	6
19. I use heterogeneous achievement-based groups in my CLIL class in order to cater to diversity.	1	2	3	4	5	6
20. When organizing pair work in my CLIL classroom, I take into account student diversity.	1	2	3	4	5	6
21. When organizing group work in my CLIL classroom, I take into account student diversity.	1	2	3	4	5	6
22. I provide more personalized attention (individual or in smaller groups) to learners who need additional support.	1	2	3	4	5	6
23. I use peer mentoring and assistance strategies to support attention to diversity in CLIL.	1	2	3	4	5	6
24. I set up different types of work spaces to facilitate catering to diversity in CLIL.	1	2	3	4	5	6
25. At my school, we have newcomer classes with a special curriculum for part of the day to support the integration of these learners.	1	2	3	4	5	6

3. MATERIALS AND RESOURCES

STATEMENTS	STRONGLY DISAGREE	DISAGREE	SLIGHTLY DISAGREE	SLIGHTLY AGREE	AGREE	STRONGLY AGREE
26. I have access to materials and resources that already take into account different levels of achievement among students.	1	2	3	4	5	6
27. I normally adapt materials to take into account different levels of achievement among students.	1	2	3	4	5	6
28. I normally create materials to take into account different levels of achievement among students.	1	2	3	4	5	6

29. I find it easy to adapt materials for an academically diverse student group.	1	2	3	4	5	6
30. I find it easy to create materials for an academically diverse student group.	1	2	3	4	5	6
29. I find it easy to adapt materials for an academically diverse student group.	1	2	3	4	5	6
30. I find it easy to create materials for an academically diverse student group.	1	2	3	4	5	6
31. I find ICT useful in order to cater to diversity in my CLIL classroom.	1	2	3	4	5	6
If you have responded positively to the previous question, please specify the main technological options you use:						
32. I use multimodal instructional materials (with a combination of visual, textual, and/or numeric input) to cater to diversity in my CLIL classroom.	1	2	3	4	5	6

4. EVALUATION AND ASSESSMENT						
STATEMENTS	STRONGLY DISAGREE	DISAGREE	SLIGHTLY DISAGREE	SLIGHTLY AGREE	AGREE	STRONGLY AGREE
33. It is difficult to assess diverse students fairly with the established assessment criteria.	1	2	3	4	5	6
34. In my evaluation/assessment, I take into account different levels of achievement among students.	1	2	3	4	5	6
35. In my continuous (formative) evaluation I attend to diversity.	1	2	3	4	5	6
36. In my final (summative) evaluation I attend to diversity.	1	2	3	4	5	6
37. I use grading rubrics which take into account diversity in my CLIL classroom.	1	2	3	4	5	6
38. I find that my students' performance improves as a result of taking into account attention to diversity.	1	2	3	4	5	6
39. In my continuous (formative) evaluation I provide more detailed guidelines as extra support to cater to diversity.	1	2	3	4	5	6
40. In my continuous (formative) evaluation I provide more personalized and regular feedback in terms of the different types of achievers.	1	2	3	4	5	6

41. In my continuous (formative) evaluation I attune the level of the activities I ask my students to do in class to their level of achievement.	1	2	3	4	5	6
42. In my continuous (formative) evaluation I attune the level of the homework I assign to my students to their level of achievement.	1	2	3	4	5	6
43. In my final (summative) evaluation, I highlight key words in the exam and adapt its vocabulary to cater to diversity.	1	2	3	4	5	6
44. In my final (summative) evaluation, I provide different versions of the same exam and allow more time to carry it out in order to cater to diversity.	1	2	3	4	5	6

5. TEACHER COLLABORATION AND DEVELOPMENT

STATEMENTS	STRONGLY DISAGREE	DISAGREE	SLIGHTLY DISAGREE	SLIGHTLY AGREE	AGREE	STRONGLY AGREE	DOES NOT APPLY
45. I coordinate/collaborate with my language/content/support colleagues in order to cater to diversity.	1	2	3	4	5	6	□
46. I find the support of multi-professional teams (special education needs support staff, psychologists, social workers) essential to cater to diversity in my CLIL classroom.	1	2	3	4	5	6	□
47. I find the language assistant has sufficient education to cater to diversity in the CLIL classroom.	1	2	3	4	5	6	□
48. At my school, we have a guidance counsellor trained in the needs of diverse learners and their families.	1	2	3	4	5	6	□
49. At my school, we encourage parental support and engagement in order to serve all types of learners.	1	2	3	4	5	6	□
50. I am satisfied with the support system which my school currently has in place to cater to diversity in CLIL.	1	2	3	4	5	6	□
51. I believe that a more adequate multi-tiered support system needs to be set in place at my school to cater to diversity in CLIL and promote the success of more vulnerable and underserved learners.	1	2	3	4	5	6	□
52. I need further education in linguistic scaffolding techniques.	1	2	3	4	5	6	□

53. I need further education in student-centered methodologies which allow me to cater to diversity in my CLIL classroom.	1	2	3	4	5	6	☐
54. I need further education in using different classroom organizations which allow me to cater to diversity in my CLIL classroom.	1	2	3	4	5	6	☐
55. I need to have access to more materials which allow me to cater to diversity in my CLIL classroom.	1	2	3	4	5	6	☐
56. I need further education in how to design and adapt materials which allow me to cater to diversity in my CLIL classroom.	1	2	3	4	5	6	☐
57. I need further education in how to collaborate/coordinate with my colleagues to cater to diversity in my CLIL classroom.	1	2	3	4	5	6	☐
58. I need further education in how to engage with parents in order to serve all types of learners.	1	2	3	4	5	6	☐
59. I need further education in how to evaluate my students taking into account diversity.	1	2	3	4	5	6	☐
60. I need further education in how to critically analyze my own teaching practice.	1	2	3	4	5	6	☐

Now, please rank the three most important aspects for you in each section from 1 (most important) to 3:

DIFFICULTIES

1. I find it challenging to teach CLIL classes with learners who are diverse in their target language proficiency. ____
2. I find it challenging to teach CLIL classes with learners who are diverse in their academic achievement. ____
3. I find preparing CLIL lessons which are sensitive to students with diverse needs time-consuming. ____
4. In my case, CLIL teaching does not allow enough time to attend to different achievers. ____
5. I don't easily have access to materials and resources that already take into account different levels of achievement among students. ____
6. I find it difficult to create or adapt materials that take into account different levels of achievement among students. ____
7. It is difficult to assess diverse students fairly with the established assessment criteria. ____
8. I find it difficult to cater to diversity in my CLIL classroom without the support of multi-professional teams (special education needs support staff, psychologists, social workers). ____

BEST PRACTICES

1. I use scaffolding with respect to language as a useful technique to cater to diversity in my CLIL classroom. ____
2. I use scaffolding with respect to content as a useful technique to cater to diversity in my CLIL classroom. ____
3. My classroom work is student-centered in order to cater to diversity in CLIL. ____
4. I provide more personalized attention (individual or in smaller groups) to learners who need additional support. ____
5. I use multimodal instructional materials (with a combination of visual, textual, and/or numeric input) to cater to diversity in my CLIL classroom. ____
6. In my continuous (formative) evaluation I attend to diversity. ____
7. In my final (summative) evaluation I attend to diversity. ____
8. I coordinate/collaborate with my language/content/support colleagues in order to cater to diversity. ____

TEACHER DEVELOPMENT

1. I need further education in linguistic scaffolding techniques. ____
2. I need further education in student-centered methodologies which allow me to cater to diversity in my CLIL classroom. ____
3. I need further education in using different classroom organizations which allow me to cater to diversity in my CLIL classroom. ____
4. I need to have access to more materials which allow me to cater to diversity in my CLIL classroom. ____
5. I need further education in how to design and adapt materials which allow me to cater to diversity in my CLIL classroom. ____
6. I need further education in how to collaborate/coordinate with my colleagues to cater to diversity in my CLIL classroom. ____
7. I need further education in how to evaluate my students taking into account diversity. ____
8. I need further education in how to critically analyze my own teaching practice. ____

THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR YOUR PARTICIPATION.

Appendix IV Parent Questionnaires

Proyecto ADiBE: Atención a la Diversidad en Educación Bilingüe

Cuestionario

PADRES



1. NOMBRE DEL CENTRO EDUCATIVO DE SU HIJO/A: _____
2. CURSO QUE ESTUDIA SU HIJO/A: _____
3. EDAD DEL PADRE/MADRE: _____
4. GÉNERO: ☐ Masculino ☐ Femenino ☐ Otro
5. NACIONALIDAD: _____
6. NIVEL EDUCATIVO:
 - ☐ No ha cursado estudios
 - ☐ Certificado de Educación Secundaria
 - ☐ Certificado de Bachillerato
 - ☐ Certificado de Formación Profesional
 - ☐ Título universitario
 - ☐ Doctorado

POR FAVOR, EXPRESE SU OPINIÓN INDICANDO HASTA QUÉ PUNTO ESTÁ DE ACUERDO O EN DESACUERDO CON LAS SIGUIENTES AFIRMACIONES RELACIONADAS CON LA EDUCACIÓN BILINGÜE (1=Totalmente en desacuerdo; 2=En desacuerdo; 3=En parcial desacuerdo; 4=En parcial acuerdo; 5=De acuerdo; 6=Totalmente de acuerdo).

1. ASPECTOS LINGÜÍSTICOS							
AFIRMACIONES	TOTALMENTE EN DESACUERDO	EN DESACUERDO	EN PARCIAL DESACUERDO	EN PARCIAL ACUERDO	DE ACUERDO	TOTALMENTE DE ACUERDO	NO LO SÉ
1. Mi hijo/a considera un reto aprender en clases AICLE con alumnado que tiene distintos niveles en la lengua extranjera.	1	2	3	4	5	6	☐
2. Mi hijo/a considera un reto aprender en clases AICLE con alumnado que tiene distintos niveles de rendimiento académico.	1	2	3	4	5	6	☐
3. El profesorado de mi hijo/a le proporciona apoyo lingüístico para ayudarle a entender aspectos difíciles en la clase AICLE.	1	2	3	4	5	6	☐
4. El profesorado AICLE de mi hijo/a le proporciona estrategias para ayudarle a entender el contenido que están aprendiendo en la lengua extranjera.	1	2	3	4	5	6	☐
5. El profesorado AICLE de mi hijo/a imparte partes de la clase o la clase entera en su lengua materna para ayudarle a entender el contenido que está aprendiendo.	1	2	3	4	5	6	☐
6. Las destrezas comunicativas en la lengua extranjera del profesorado AICLE de mi hijo/a son suficientes para ayudar a todo tipo de alumnado.	1	2	3	4	5	6	☐
7. El conocimiento especializado de la asignatura del profesorado AICLE de mi hijo/a es suficiente para ayudar a todo tipo de alumnado.	1	2	3	4	5	6	☐

2. METODOLOGÍA Y TIPOS DE AGRUPAMIENTO

AFIRMACIONES	TOTALMENTE EN DESACUERDO	EN DESACUERDO	EN PARCIAL DESACUERDO	EN PARCIAL ACUERDO	DE ACUERDO	TOTALMENTE DE ACUERDO	NO LO SÉ
8. Las clases del profesorado AICLE de mi hijo/a son sensibles al alumnado con diferentes necesidades.	1	2	3	4	5	6	☐
9. En las clases de AICLE de mi hijo/a, no hay tiempo suficiente para atender a distintos tipos de alumnado.	1	2	3	4	5	6	☐
10. El profesorado de mi hijo/a tiene un adecuado repertorio de métodos para ayudar a distintos tipos de alumnado en el aula AICLE.	1	2	3	4	5	6	☐
11. El trabajo en el aula AICLE de mi hijo/a se centra en el alumnado.	1	2	3	4	5	6	☐
12. El trabajo en el aula AICLE de mi hijo/a incorpora el aprendizaje cooperativo.	1	2	3	4	5	6	☐
13. El profesorado AICLE de mi hijo/a apela a las inteligencias múltiples en el aula AICLE.	1	2	3	4	5	6	☐
14. El profesorado AICLE de mi hijo/a usa trabajo en el aula basado en tareas o en proyectos.	1	2	3	4	5	6	☐
15. El trabajo en el aula AICLE de mi hijo/a lo lidera el profesorado.	1	2	3	4	5	6	☐
16. En el aula AICLE de mi hijo/a se usan distintos tipos de agrupamiento para atender a la diversidad.	1	2	3	4	5	6	☐
17. En el aula AICLE de mi hijo/a trabajan en parejas con estudiantes que tienen distintos niveles.	1	2	3	4	5	6	☐
18. En el aula AICLE de mi hijo/a trabajan en grupos con estudiantes que tienen distintos niveles.	1	2	3	4	5	6	☐

19. El profesorado de mi hijo/a proporciona atención más personalizada (individual o en grupos más reducidos) al alumnado que necesita apoyo adicional.

1 2 3 4 5 6 ☐

20. El profesorado de mi hijo/a usa asesoramiento entre compañeros/as y estrategias de asistencia para ayudar a todos los tipos de alumnado.

1 2 3 4 5 6 ☐

21. En la clase AICLE de mi hijo/a se usan distintos tipos de espacios de trabajo para facilitar el trabajo con todos los tipos de alumnado.

1 2 3 4 5 6 ☐

22. En el centro educativo de mi hijo/a, tienen clases de adaptación para ayudar al alumnado AICLE recién llegado.

1 2 3 4 5 6 ☐

3. MATERIALES Y RECURSOS

AFIRMACIONES	TOTALMENTE EN DESACUERDO	EN DESACUERDO	EN PARCIAL DESACUERDO	EN PARCIAL ACUERDO	DE ACUERDO	TOTALMENTE DE ACUERDO	NO LO SÉ
23. El libro de texto de asignaturas AICLE de mi hijo/a tiene en cuenta diferentes niveles de rendimiento entre el alumnado.	1	2	3	4	5	6	☐
24. Mi hijo/a normalmente usa materiales adaptados en las asignaturas AICLE que tienen en cuenta diferentes niveles de rendimiento entre el alumnado.	1	2	3	4	5	6	☐
25. El profesorado AICLE de mi hijo/a normalmente crea materiales para tener en cuenta diferentes niveles de rendimiento entre el alumnado.	1	2	3	4	5	6	☐

26. El profesorado de mi hijo/a usa las TIC para atender a la diversidad en el aula AICLE.

1 2 3 4 5 6 □

Si has respondido afirmativamente a la pregunta anterior, por favor especifica las principales opciones tecnológicas que sabes que usan:

27. Mi hijo/a usa materiales didácticos multimodales (con una combinación de aportaciones visuales, textuales y/o numéricas) en el aula AICLE.

1 2 3 4 5 6 □

4. EVALUACIÓN

AFIRMACIONES	TOTALMENTE EN DESACUERDO	EN DESACUERDO	EN PARCIAL DESACUERDO	EN PARCIAL ACUERDO	DE ACUERDO	TOTALMENTE DE ACUERDO	NO LO SÉ
28. Los criterios de evaluación que usa el profesorado AICLE de mi hijo/a evalúan justamente al alumnado con diferentes niveles.	1	2	3	4	5	6	□
29. En la evaluación, el profesorado AICLE de mi hijo/a tiene en cuenta diferentes niveles de rendimiento entre el alumnado.	1	2	3	4	5	6	□
30. En la evaluación continua (formativa), el profesorado AICLE de mi hijo/a atiende a la diversidad.	1	2	3	4	5	6	□
31. En la evaluación final (sumativa), el profesorado AICLE de mi hijo/a atiende a la diversidad.	1	2	3	4	5	6	□
32. El profesorado AICLE de mi hijo/a usa rúbricas de evaluación que tienen en cuenta la diversidad.	1	2	3	4	5	6	□
33. Los resultados de mi hijo/a han mejorado a raíz de que el profesorado AICLE tenga en cuenta la atención a la diversidad.	1	2	3	4	5	6	□

34. En la evaluación continua (formativa), el profesorado AICLE de mi hijo/a proporciona pautas más detalladas como apoyo adicional para atender a la diversidad.	1	2	3	4	5	6	□
35. En la evaluación continua (formativa), el profesorado AICLE de mi hijo/a proporciona un seguimiento más personalizado y regular según los distintos tipos de resultados.	1	2	3	4	5	6	□
36. En la evaluación continua (formativa), el profesorado AICLE de mi hijo/a ajusta el nivel de las actividades que pide hacer en clase a su nivel de rendimiento.	1	2	3	4	5	6	□
37. En la evaluación continua (formativa), el profesorado AICLE de mi hijo/a ajusta el nivel de los deberes que manda al rendimiento del alumnado.	1	2	3	4	5	6	□
38. En la evaluación final (sumativa), el profesorado AICLE de mi hijo/a resalta las palabras clave en el examen y adapta su vocabulario para atender a la diversidad.	1	2	3	4	5	6	□
39. En la evaluación final (sumativa), el profesorado AICLE de mi hijo/a proporciona diferentes versiones del mismo examen y concede más tiempo para realizarlo con objeto de atender a la diversidad.	1	2	3	4	5	6	□

5. COLABORACIÓN Y FORMACIÓN DEL PROFESORADO

AFIRMACIONES	TOTALMENTE EN DESACUERDO	EN DESACUERDO	EN PARCIAL DESACUERDO	EN PARCIAL ACUERDO	DE ACUERDO	TOTALMENTE DE ACUERDO	NO LO SÉ	NO PROCEDE
40. El profesorado AICLE de mi hijo/a se coordina/colabora entre sí para atender a la diversidad.	1	2	3	4	5	6	☐	☐
41. Tenemos el apoyo de equipos multi-profesionales (personal de apoyo a necesidades educativas especiales, psicólogos/as, trabajadores/as sociales) para atender a la diversidad en el aula AICLE de mi hijo/a.	1	2	3	4	5	6	☐	☐
42. En el centro de mi hijo/a, tenemos un/a orientador/a académico/a que ayuda al alumnado con diferentes necesidades y a sus familias.	1	2	3	4	5	6	☐	☐
43. El profesorado de lenguas extranjeras de mi hijo/a está suficientemente preparado para atender a la diversidad en el aula AICLE.	1	2	3	4	5	6	☐	☐
44. El profesorado de asignaturas bilingües de mi hijo/a está suficientemente preparado para atender a la diversidad en el aula AICLE.	1	2	3	4	5	6	☐	☐

45. Los/Las auxiliares de conversación están suficientemente preparados/as para atender a la diversidad en el aula AICLE de mi hijo/a.	1	2	3	4	5	6	☐	☐
46. En el centro de mi hijo/a, se favorece el apoyo e involucración parental para ayudar a todos los tipos de alumnado.	1	2	3	4	5	6	☐	☐
47. Estoy satisfecho/a con el sistema de apoyo que el centro de mi hijo/a tiene implementado actualmente para ayudarle con el aprendizaje AICLE.	1	2	3	4	5	6	☐	☐

MUCHAS GRACIAS POR SU PARTICIPACIÓN.

Appendix V Teacher Interview Transcripts

Teacher 1

Interviewer: Do you find it difficult to teach these classes, in English, with learners that are diverse in their target language proficiency and or academic achievement?

T1: It's more, the language is more of a challenge, since most of the students have an excellent language level as far as listening and communicating but then we have students who don't Spanish or English or students who are new to us, so it is complicated to get to them, so in the first months of class I repeat the class to them in Spanish.

Interviewer: Do you use scaffolding with respect to language and or content as a technique to cater to diversity in your classroom?

T1: No, I tell them because I have to deal with the group as a whole, and if I lower my language level I am not challenging the majority or the vast majority that are language listeners and speakers and so what I do when I see blank faces I tell them in their native language the important parts and I tell them that the information they don't understand they should get from their friends.

Interviewer: Do you repeat parts or the whole of the lesson in Spanish as a useful technique to cater to diversity?

T1: Yes.

Interviewer: Do you think your communication techniques and academic language are sufficient to cope with diversity?

T1: As a native speaker my English is perfect, and I teach what I have a degree in and my language skills are specific.

Interviewer: If your teaching allows time to attend to diversity, which methodologies, types of grouping, and activities do you use? Are they more innovative or traditional? Are they teacher-fronted or student-centered? Do they deploy higher-rank or lower-order cognitive processes?

T1: If I had enough time I would use other methods but unfortunately we don't have enough class facing time to adapt in any significant way my teaching, the only thing I can do is address the class in Spanish and for the Chinese students I have to have one of the other Chinese students that knows English or Spanish and translate for them until they get their level, it depends if I am in front of the class, there has to be a moment when you give the information and then the method they take the information and do something with it, the middle years program.

Interviewer: What materials do you use to cater to diversity?

T1: Almost all of my materials are originally design, I have had to adapt or adopt my online course to reflect the MYP process, everything is in English, I use no material in Spanish I have to write all the textbook material myself and I find videos and materials, if it is complicated I will put subtitles for complicated stuff, I don't have the computer skills to make my own materials.

Interviewer: How do you carry out assessment to take into account different levels of achievement among your students? Is it formative or summative? Which instructions and criteria do you use? Do you find that your students' performance improves as a result of taking into account diversity?

T1: Well here, the problem is linguistic not intellectual, there are few students who cannot meet the standard of content, our standard we have to meet the MYP standard and the Spanish standard we use exams and projects, some of the projects are videos, or presentations or on cardboard, so they are compensated, some of the linguistically challenged are graded based on their ability when the students who are not as motivated or able I am not grading them as much as the other students. Here's the thing, we can only legally adopt the exams for those students who have diagnosed significant academic problems who have an academic problem, I don't have any students like that, when I have a student like that with a vision problem I adopted some of the materials for him one year.

Interviewer: Do you coordinate or collaborate with other colleagues in the language or content subjects to cater to diversity?

T1: I collaborate with the other teachers in the MYP program.

Interviewer: Is the support of multi-professional teams (special education needs support staff, psychologists, social workers) essential to teach a CLIL class with different types of achievers?

T1: Absolutely, because you need them to do the diagnostic for you so you know how to approach the issue.

Interviewer: Are you satisfied with the parental support and engagement you offer?

T1: I don't know how to answer that question.

Interviewer: In which aspects do you consider both you and the other teachers involved in CLIL program require more training to address diversity in the CLIL classroom?

T1: All of those are helpful and any kind of training to address all of those. The most important would be the adapting of materials for computer dummies, like myself.

Interviewer: Which are the main difficulties which you and your school have encountered in addressing diversity in your bilingual program?

T1: Finding the professionals for the correct things, we are trying to find natives and many believe that simply because you speak English you know the subject, but I for example studied History and teach History in English but just because you are a native speaker doesn't mean that you can teach the subject, you need to be a subject teacher to competently give the subject, not just because you are a native speaker.

Interviewer: What are your best teaching practices to attend to diversity in CLIL?

T1: ... I give everybody personalized attention, in the MYP, I do that in project, I give very personalized attention, I follow up.

Interviewer: Are you satisfied with the support system which your school currently has in place to cater to diversity in CLIL or do you think it needs to be revamped, or improved, so that a multi-tiered support system is set in place?

T1: Not enough.

Interviewer: What is your overall appraisal of catering to diversity in the CLIL classroom?

T1: I think we do a very good job.

Teacher 2

Interviewer: Do you find it difficult to teach these classes, in English, with learners that are diverse in their target language proficiency and or academic achievement?

T2: Yes, I do, because depending on our students, some speak very well, can give us their opinion using a wide range of vocabulary, but other students who do not speak English very well I have to provide basic science vocabulary, since in most cases they have very poor communication skills so I have tried to organize a game in which we can translate Chinese words into Science words, where they can express simple Science concepts into English.

Interviewer: Do you use scaffolding with respect to language and or content as a technique to cater to diversity in your classroom?

T2: Yes, showing pictures, videos, games, translations.

Interviewer: Do you repeat parts or the whole of the lesson in Spanish as a useful technique to cater to diversity?

T2: Very few times, I think it is important for them to understand the concepts in both languages, since they might need to know them in English for the future and for Spanish I think it's important for them to control the concepts in both languages, at the end I translate a few of the major ideas, on the board, since some words are so technical, some of the words are very different in Spanish and English.

Interviewer: Do you think your communication techniques and academic language are sufficient to cope with diversity?

T2: I think so, I think so, actually before my classes I usually prepare and organize all the contents beforehand and vocabulary since it's important to control since every day there are new discoveries but it is true that many words are similar in Spanish and English but it's important to be prepared.

Interviewer: If your teaching allows time to attend to diversity, which methodologies, types of grouping, and activities do you use? Are they more innovative or traditional? Are they teacher-fronted or student-centered? Do they deploy higher-rank or lower-order cognitive processes?

T2: The truth is that all my methodologies are based on all of those, they have to learn by watching, they can watch me do an activity but then they have to continue on their own and that way they can learn to use tools and techniques by themselves, to see the characteristics of the specimen and I am always with them, but I am trying to help them in case they have some doubts, sometimes they have to discover, or realize a mistake, or analyze by themselves so they are learning for themselves, when I see someone is a little lost, I come over and give them personalized attention and give them extra help.

Interviewer: what materials do you use to cater to diversity?

T2: The main materials is the Moodle course, I use news articles, media, textbooks, and those are the originals, or sometimes I use my own ideas, and give them a summary that I have created, they also have to copy down the skills in the copybook and then in other cases, when they are doing their own projects, they look things up by themselves. They can see in their projects that when

scientists are discovering new specimens and see for themselves what it is like to discover a new species. They learn much more when they learn by themselves via projects.

Interviewer: How do you carry out assessment to take into account different levels of achievement among your students? Is it formative or summative? Which instructions and criteria do you use? Do you find that your students' performance improves as a result of taking into account diversity?

T2: Basically, I think I use grading rubrics, detailed guidelines and extra support, personalized feedback, and all the activities are the same for all of them, but there are some kids who are able to provide much more opinions, and can provide much more details because they have more skills, but it's important to appreciate the other students who cannot participate as much, but its normal if they don't have as much English level, grading rubrics I provide them to the students and show them the percentages, knowledge, understanding, inquiring and impact of Science there are four criteria, so we see the importance of the copybook in the different criteria and when we are doing some projects different criteria so the students know the assignments, they know they are all important for the evaluation. I try to help some students with homework a little more, and control a little more and see their activities and homework, I give out the activities and try to help them do well on the activities. Some cases I give out different exams if they need more time, 10 minutes more, if they have to provide a written answer, they have to organize their ideas. I keep in touch with tutor to make sure that we are helping all of them.

Interviewer: Do you coordinate or collaborate with other colleagues in the language or content subjects to cater to diversity?

T2: We tried to organize a few years ago, with an English teacher who worked here a few years ago, he tried to organize the subjects, but only because he was interested in that. But we do have a common unit planner with the use of minerals and rocks throughout history so we have a common unit with Science and history, and we talk together about some of the students who need help since they will need more help.

Interviewer: Is the support of multi-professional teams (special education needs support staff, psychologists, social workers) essential to teach a CLIL class with different types of achievers?

T2: Of course.

Interviewer: Are you satisfied with the parental support and engagement you offer?

T2: Yeah, actually it's for me, at the end of the year, when some parents have sent me an email that say thank you for showing my daughter a new way to learn Science it's nice to have that support from the parents.

Interviewer: In which aspects do you consider both you and the other teachers involved in CLIL program require more training to address diversity in the CLIL classroom?

T2: Of course, in linguistic scaffolding techniques and designing in materials that is crucial, for example I have seen have two Chinese students try to organize the information in English using google translator but I have realized that it is an interesting idea, using the google translator they were able to translate the project that they presented to the class.

Interviewer: Which are the main difficulties which you and your school have encountered in addressing diversity in your bilingual program?

T2: The most important difficulty is catering to the basic level of English, it is so basic that it is almost zero for some classes, and they are put into classes with other students who have very high levels of English, and this is a core subject and I sometimes speak Spanish and English but for students who do not know either Spanish or English then in this case, I have tried to search for some language websites since the student cannot even communicate anything to the teacher so the teacher should be the first one to communicate to the students, so we have to take the first step, but I have had to learn some Chinese words, I can say ni hao but we need to have some more support, so we can talk to them. Between kids that are very motivated and not motivated I find the biology classes so

motivating and dynamic and practical and most all the students in my class want to show what they have learned. My classes are very student based, they enjoy all the activities because linguistic communication is not always as important as just putting into practice using the scalpels and beakers etc.

Interviewer: What are your best teaching practices to attend to diversity in CLIL?

T2: I can say to you, first of all, individual teaching, since some of them are shy and do not want to say something improperly so I go to them individually and talk to them, and when they are much more confident I try to include them to the group so they can participate and are more interested in showing their classmates I can do this.

Interviewer: Are you satisfied with the support system which your school currently has in place to cater to diversity in CLIL or do you think it needs to be revamped, or improved, so that a multi-tiered support system is set in place?

T2: The other Science teachers have talked about this, it is important to count on other, secondary, support teachers, like in Primary, in IPC they have another teacher in the class to help, like in chemistry, when the students are studying chemicals, it is a very abstract subject but when you are talking about something so abstract so the students that can see what you are talking about, the problems, by adding an extra effort and in my case, I have extra activities for those who can see and do the activities very well. You have to provide much more extension activities for those that are doing very well, because the activities are not just for those who do not understand, they are also for those, the high achievers, to be extension activities, it is not just for focusing on the students who are falling behind but also to allow the kids who understand everything to continue learning and not be bored. It would be nice to have a supplemental teacher in the classroom either to help those who need more help or to continue with extension activities with those students who can and should continue learning, the high achievers.

I let the kids freely choose their seats and their groups. The students are honest, and when their partner is not helping they speak up, and they say my partner is explaining it to me, or I am going to try to do it by myself, all the class is controlling their pace of learning.

Interviewer: What is your overall appraisal of catering to diversity in the CLIL classroom?

T2: After every school year, I realize what I can improve as a teacher, if I am not going to get a supplemental teacher I have to do that extra work and create extra activities, it is true that there are three groups of students, the high, normal and low achievers so I realized I have to organize all my activities in the three different groups, so there is an activity for each of these three groups. My activities are divided into three groups and all of the students should do all three activities but they are by skill, and all the students should complete all the activities, but at their own pace. The first activity is very easy, the second is more difficult and the third activity is for those very high achiever activities and I can usually see from the notebook which students are in which category, some of the kids cannot do the activities but some kids just are not motivated to do the activity so I usually give them a second chance because I have to see which kids are not doing the activity because they are lazy and which are not doing it because they cannot.

Teacher 3

Interviewer: Do you find it difficult to teach these classes, in English, with learners that are diverse in their target language proficiency and or academic achievement?

T3: No.

Interviewer: Do you use scaffolding with respect to language and or content as a technique to cater to diversity in your classroom?

T3: What is that? [Interviewer explains scaffolding] Yeah, but the thing is that art is basically visual so I have videos, images, so they don't need to understand what I'm talking about.

Interviewer: Do you repeat parts or the whole of the lesson in Spanish as a useful technique to cater to diversity?

T3: No, I'm not used to speaking Spanish in the class.

Interviewer: Do you think your communication techniques and academic language are sufficient to cope with diversity?

T3: I guess so.

Interviewer: If your teaching allows time to attend to diversity, which methodologies, types of grouping, and activities do you use? Are they more innovative or traditional? Are they teacher-fronted or student-centered? Do they deploy higher-rank or lower-order cognitive processes?

T3: We usually work in small groups, and if I find that activity is going to be hard for anyone I try to do a balance of the groups out, it is for sure a student-based, because it is based on the creativity but I try to guide them so I'm giving a lot of examples, I don't like to take the tools, I like to let them try and experiment.

Interviewer: What materials do you use to cater to diversity?

T3: I try to adapt the materials that I find and I create my own materials, we don't have textbooks, but we have a platform, an online one.

Interviewer: How do you carry out assessment to take into account different levels of achievement among your students? Is it formative or summative? Which instructions and criteria do you use? Do you find that your students' performance improves as a result of taking into account diversity?

T3: We don't have exams here, they are all formative, I give them the guidelines, it's like a rubric but it's not that developed, it's just telling them I'm going to grade this this and that and depending on their achievement their given a grade ... I try to grade more the effort than the result, in art ...

Interviewer: Do you coordinate or collaborate with other colleagues in the language or content subjects to cater to diversity?

T3: Never.

Interviewer: Is the support of multi-professional teams (special education needs support staff, psychologists, social workers) essential to teach a CLIL class with different types of achievers?

T3: It's not essential but it helps sometimes.

Interviewer: Are you satisfied with the parental support and engagement you offer?

T3: (The parents) they don't even care about this, art is like letting them play, I have for sure had parents that care but it's not common.

Interviewer: In which aspects do you consider both you and the other teachers involved in CLIL program require more training to address diversity in the CLIL classroom?

T3: For me it's healthy to collaborate with others but I feel there is a lack of cooperation here in the school, we probably need someone to help us with coordination.

Interviewer: Which are the main difficulties which you and your school have encountered in addressing diversity in your bilingual program?

T3: The main difficulty right now in relation to our language is the Chinese community, but we're adapting, but not officially, so I think we are doing it right.

Interviewer: What are your best teaching practices to attend to diversity in CLIL?

T3: Individual attention.

Interviewer: Are you satisfied with the support system which your school currently has in place to cater to diversity in CLIL or do you think it needs to be revamped, or improved, so that a multi-tiered support system is set in place?

T3: It has to be improved for sure.

Interviewer: What is your overall appraisal of catering to diversity in the CLIL classroom?

T3: Me? Well, maybe we have to because talking about the Chinese community, they are all inserted in the same classes, to break them up, but it has a negative and positive effect there, because they can feel isolated, everyone is helping.

Teacher 4

Interviewer: Do you find it difficult to teach these classes, in English, with learners that are diverse in their target language proficiency and or academic achievement?

T4: Yes, I find it very challenging, because you can tell clearly the children that are getting everything and some others that are not getting anything. In general, they pay much less attention when you speak in English than when you speak in their native language.

Interviewer: Do you use scaffolding with respect to language and or content as a technique to cater to diversity in your classroom?

T4: No ... I mean I go to the students if I see that they are not understanding and then I explain to them individually later on what they have to do.

Interviewer: Do you repeat parts or the whole of the lesson in Spanish as a useful technique to cater to diversity?

T4: Only sometimes, not always.

Interviewer: Do you think your communication techniques and academic language are sufficient to cope with diversity?

T4: Yes, I do.

Interviewer: If your teaching allows time to attend to diversity, which methodologies, types of grouping, and activities do you use? Are they more innovative or traditional? Are they teacher-fronted or student-centered? Do they deploy higher-rank or lower-order cognitive processes?

T4: I vary rarely use any methodology or plan methodology to help, cater to diversity, because one of the main reasons is we have too many students and too many hours to have the energy nor the time to cope with these things, obviously I try to make sure everyone understands what I am saying in a very traditional way which is going around in the class and seeing if they understand the activities and are doing the activities but in a very general way I don't use any strategies.

Interviewer: What materials do you use to cater to diversity?

T4: Nothing, it's true, I do not attend to diversity I use the same materials for anyone because I don't have time.

Interviewer: How do you carry out assessment to take into account different levels of achievement among your students? Is it formative or summative? Which instructions and criteria do you use? Do you find that your students' performance improves as a result of taking into account diversity?

T4: Okay, I do both formative and summative and I give some feedback I never attune to levels, I sometimes highlight key words, I don't adapt exams to different levels of English, maybe adapt to TDAH, give more time to carry them out.

Interviewer: do you coordinate or collaborate with other colleagues in the language or content subjects to cater to diversity?

T4: No.

Interviewer: Is the support of multi-professional teams (special education needs support staff, psychologists, social workers) essential to teach a CLIL class with different types of achievers?

T4: Uh, could be helpful, I think it would really help if the school psychologist, which I think this school has, was a bit more communicative about students and their needs and like what I need to be doing to help them.

Interviewer: Are you satisfied with the parental support and engagement you offer?

T4: Yes.

Interviewer: In which aspects do you consider both you and the other teachers involved in CLIL program require more training to address diversity in the CLIL classroom?

T4: Yes, I do think that we would, it would be helpful to have some training to address diversity, mostly about techniques for I don't know, scaffolding the diversity in class, like how to create materials, how to organize groups.

Interviewer: Which are the main difficulties which you and your school have encountered in addressing diversity in your bilingual program?

T4: the main difficulties is the amount of hours and number of students, so the teachers do not have the energy left for them.

Interviewer: What are your best teaching practices to attend to diversity in CLIL?

T4: Just the common sense to see if the student is paying attention and understanding or not.

Interviewer: Are you satisfied with the support system which your school currently has in place to cater to diversity in CLIL or do you think it needs to be revamped, or improved, so that a multi-tiered support system is set in place?

T4: There's no team so it would be helpful to have some system.

Interviewer: What is your overall appraisal of catering to diversity in the CLIL classroom?

T4: I think it would be important to address diversity and I think I'm not addressing it properly.

Teacher 5

Interviewer: Do you find it difficult to teach these classes, in English, with learners that are diverse in their target language proficiency and or academic achievement?

T5: I think any class is difficult when some kids speak English ... but other kids ... like are new to school are trying hard to learn coding and don't understand what, the directions I am giving, but I mean its coding so the computer helps them also figure things out and most of the kids know how to use a computer pretty well so even if they don't speak English, or Spanish even, they seem to be able to pick up pretty quickly what we are doing in class.

Interviewer: Do you use scaffolding with respect to language and or content as a technique to cater to diversity in your classroom?

T5: I mean me personally, I personally show the kids on the computer how to do the activities, like I have to help them or get them together in a group, those who don't understand the language or didn't understand what I was saying, I get them together and show them what they need to.

Interviewer: Do you repeat parts or the whole of the lesson in Spanish as a useful technique to cater to diversity?

T5: I don't speak Spanish, so no.

Interviewer: Do you think your communication techniques and academic language are sufficient to cope with diversity?

T5: I think I use pretty technical vocabulary, I don't think I would know any other way to talk about my subject, but i mean it's self-explanatory, I think.

Interviewer: If your teaching allows time to attend to diversity, which methodologies, types of grouping, and activities do you use? Are they more innovative or traditional? Are they teacher-fronted or student-centered? Do they deploy higher-rank or lower-order cognitive processes?

T5: the students sit where they want. I don't really talk to them for that long, I usually project my screen or show them a video and then let them work in pairs or individually, they seem to help each other more than I can.

Interviewer: What materials do you use to cater to diversity?

T5: None, we don't really have materials per say, like there is no textbook or anything.

Interviewer: How do you carry out assessment to take into account different levels of achievement among your students? Is it formative or summative? Which instructions and criteria do you use? Do you find that your students' performance improves as a result of taking into account diversity?

T5: I mean I know if someone doesn't understand what we are doing but all of the kids are expected to make the video game or produce what I am asking them to and really, computers are a language in and of themselves ... I mean I guess some students who seem to not be able to stay on task or something like that, but there's not really an excuse to not know what we are doing.

Interviewer: Do you coordinate or collaborate with other colleagues in the language or content subjects to cater to diversity?

T5: No.

Interviewer: Is the support of multi-professional teams (special education needs support staff, psychologists, social workers) essential to teach a CLIL class with different types of achievers?

T5: Undeniably, that's like the most important.

Interviewer: Are you satisfied with the parental support and engagement you offer?

T5: No, I don't really reach out to the parents ...

Interviewer: In which aspects do you consider both you and the other teachers involved in CLIL program require more training to address diversity in the CLIL classroom?

T5: I think I don't really understand what is attention to diversity, I would like to have more training in that area, to understand better what it is that I should be doing, because I am kind of just now like realizing that I am not doing anything related to this.

Interviewer: Which are the main difficulties which you and your school have encountered in addressing diversity in your bilingual program?

T5: Everything? Time, materials, time, extra classes.

Interviewer: What are your best teaching practices to attend to diversity in CLIL?

T5: Individual attention, personalized attention.

Interviewer: Are you satisfied with the support system which your school currently has in place to cater to diversity in CLIL or do you think it needs to be revamped, or improved, so that a multi-tiered support system is set in place?

T5: None.

Interviewer: What is your overall appraisal of catering to diversity in the CLIL classroom?

T5: More coordination, more importance given to this subject and not just English, as seems to be a big focus here.

Teacher 6

Interviewer: Do you find it difficult to teach these classes, in English, with learners that are diverse in their target language proficiency and or academic achievement?

T6: [Um], it's definitely different based on the two subjects I teach, (compares business with computers), with computers its software, it's actually not that challenging, even some of the weaker students, one student I have (name) he speaks almost no English at all, but it is really visual so he gets it you know when we're practicing things, the buttons are in the same place, the tools are in the same place. In computer Science the kids learn well what I'm saying, the buttons are in the same place, the tools are in the same place, and I actually think in computer Science I think the kids learn well because all the explanations are in English and our software is in Spanish, I wish it was in English, so he (the aforementioned student) hears what to do, you know it might be , text format, or bold in Microsoft word, and then on his computer he sees that in Spanish, so the whole time he's getting the two languages. And then he's always got the support, you know in class he always has his partner that he can talk to, you could do the class entirely without language and they could understand it. Economics and business is all about language.

Interviewer: Do you use scaffolding with respect to language and or content as a technique to cater to diversity in your classroom?

T6: Honestly, no. I wish yes, but no, I don't think that I do.

Interviewer: Do you repeat parts or the whole of the lesson in Spanish as a useful technique to cater to diversity?

T6: I don't speak Spanish very well as you know. Last year not at all, this year I have a little bit of Spanish, but this year, the software is in Spanish. In business not at all, in 4th of ESO, the kids are B1 B2, I don't speak Spanish. The problem is the one or two kids that are there. Sometimes, most times, I have to get a kid in the class, a kid who speaks English pretty well, and have them partner up, or sit, with the kids who don't know what I am saying, and use students to help with the translation.

Interviewer: Do you think your communication techniques and academic language are sufficient to cope with diversity?

T6: In English yes, since I have taught English as a Second Language for 6 years, with different speeds (and) vocabulary.

Interviewer: If your teaching allows time to attend to diversity, which methodologies, types of grouping, and activities do you use? Are they more innovative or traditional? Are they teacher-fronted or student-centered? Do they deploy higher-rank or lower-order cognitive processes?

T6: Generally, what I implement the most, project based and cooperative learning, but heavy project-based learning. I haven't had to make the groups, I let them make their own groups so that one or two weak students are usually in a group with high level of English.

Interviewer: What materials do you use to cater to diversity?

T6: We don't use textbooks, I adopt the materials, almost everything is adapted, sometimes I find a good enough resource and take that, but some things are just self-created, and the projects are self-created.

Interviewer: How do you carry out assessment to take into account different levels of achievement among your students? Is it formative or summative? Which instructions and criteria do you use? Do you find that your students' performance improves as a result of taking into account diversity?

T6: I am going to be honest, with the weaker students, language wise I haven't developed anything to give them any linguistic support, I give them all the same activities, generally what I do, I have, for the better learners, a. they have visual activities or they will assist me in class, I talk with them, we talk about responsibilities, goals, they like that set of responsibilities and they can help the weaker students, no highlighting on the exam, no different versions of the exams, I give out the same thing to other students, but do subjective evaluating, I am slightly subjective when it comes to grading throughout the year.

Interviewer: do you coordinate or collaborate with other colleagues in the language or content subjects to cater to diversity?

T6: No, we haven't cross-communicated on anything.

Interviewer: Is the support of multi-professional teams (special education needs support staff, psychologists, social workers) essential to teach a CLIL class with different types of achievers?

T6: Without a doubt, there are specialized needs and even if you understand some of those needs, you need help to actually know what to do.

Interviewer: Are you satisfied with the parental support and engagement you offer?

T6: The communication comes up by the request of the parent but they always seem positive.

Interviewer: In which aspects do you consider both you and the other teachers involved in CLIL program require more training to address diversity in the CLIL classroom?

T6: Hm.... You know really I think two things, really being student-centered teaching and the adaptation, if you think about it, if the goals are equal to learn the content and the language you are taking an A1 student and putting them into a B2 class, it would make sense to adapt it in a way so that they aren't left behind but so that the higher level higher achievers don't think that the class has been dumbed down, we need more adapted materials and cross communication between classes, like even tenses in English class, and if in English class they are learning the future tense, then in computer or business they could make their PowerPoint to link the English class in the content CLIL class, like doing a PowerPoint in the future tense outside of the English classroom.

Interviewer: Which are the main difficulties which you and your school have encountered in addressing diversity in your bilingual program?

T6: I'm not sure that we've done much. Maybe splitting up the foreign students. It happens naturally, you tend to migrate towards people you have things in common with, just like I tend to hang out and get together with Americans and English speakers, but you can see it as a problem maybe but they flock together but students tend to just group together.

Interviewer: What are your best teaching practices to attend to diversity in CLIL?

T6: For the new students, for me, I think with the weaker students is just breaking the ice, your uncomfortable, you're afraid to talk, you're afraid to do anything, especially if you're in a new place, that can take half a year, I engage with them in discussions, but it's

not the questions that will put them on the spot, no hard questions, just getting them comfortable and getting them to participate, I don't really have a system or a method I just like to make sure that they are incorporated because if it not it's easy for them to disappear into the back. The new students will generally try to be with the same students or will be left out, so I can usually, since I know the kids, I can group them with another kid with a good personality that can help get them integrated. Culture diversity is not being addressed.

Interviewer: Are you satisfied with the support system which your school currently has in place to cater to diversity in CLIL or do you think it needs to be revamped, or improved, so that a multi-tiered support system is set in place?

T6: I think we could work on something. I am not aware of a real strong integration type plan. I haven't really heard of anything. I think we have some type of English support.

Interviewer: What is your overall appraisal of catering to diversity in the CLIL classroom?

T6: Overall? The school is quite a bit low, there should be more of a system, and plans and awareness in place. The school has it just in classes where content is important but not essential like computers, art, and classes like business and IT it's like those classes are not so essential it's just a way of giving them more classes in English like giving them more hours of English, I think that we could strategize them a bit better.

Appendix VI Observation Protocol

Observation Protocol (adapted from Pérez Cañado, 2016c)

Teacher name _____ Class _____
 Subject name _____ Date _____

i. USE OF L2 (ENGLISH) IN CLASS

1. What level of the FL does the teacher have?
 - a. A1-A2
 - b. B1-B2
 - c. C1
 - d. C2 / Native speaker
2. The amount of class given in English:
 - a. 0-25%
 - b. 25-50%
 - c. 50-75%
 - d. 75-100%
3. The teacher translates into Spanish during the class:
 - a. Very frequently
 - b. Frequently
 - c. Not much
 - d. Never
4. The teacher uses 'code-switching' in a systematic way:
 - a. Very frequently
 - b. Frequently

- c. Not much
 - d. Never
- 5. The linguistic level of the students' is adequate for their class:
 - a. Definitely
 - b. Reasonably
 - c. Not quite
 - d. No
- 6. The students use English in class:
 - a. Very frequently
 - b. Frequently
 - c. Not much
 - d. Never
- 7. The students translate from Spanish into English throughout the class:
 - a. Very frequently
 - b. Frequently
 - c. Not much
 - d. Never
- 8. The students practice 'code-switching' in a systematic way:
 - a. Very frequently
 - b. Frequently
 - c. Not much
 - d. Never

Observations: _____

II. DEVELOPMENT OF THE L2 IN CLASS: DISCURSIVE FUNCTIONS

English is used in class to:

Give instructions	All the time	Frequently	Not much	Never
Introduce the topic	All the time	Frequently	Not much	Never
Give content	All the time	Frequently	Not much	Never
Do activities	All the time	Frequently	Not much	Never
Clear doubts	All the time	Frequently	Not much	Never
Ask questions	All the time	Frequently	Not much	Never
Correct problems	All the time	Frequently	Not much	Never
Go over content	All the time	Frequently	Not much	Never
Organize group work	All the time	Frequently	Not much	Never
Interact with the students/teachers	All the time	Frequently	Not much	Never
Give feedback about the class	All the time	Frequently	Not much	Never
Other:				

III. DEVELOPMENT OF THE COMPETENCES IN CLASS

In class, the development of the following is promoted:

Oral comprehension	All the time	Frequently	Not much	Never
Oral expression	All the time	Frequently	Not much	Never
Written comprehension	All the time	Frequently	Not much	Never
Written expression	All the time	Frequently	Not much	Never
Listening and speaking	All the time	Frequently	Not much	Never
Reading and writing	All the time	Frequently	Not much	Never
Critical capacity	All the time	Frequently	Not much	Never
Creativity	All the time	Frequently	Not much	Never
Autonomous learning	All the time	Frequently	Not much	Never
Metalinguistic consciousness	All the time	Frequently	Not much	Never
Intercultural aspects of the FL	All the time	Frequently	Not much	Never
Other:				

IV. METHODOLOGY AND TYPES OF GROUPINGS

Task-based learning	All the time	Frequently	Not much	Never
Project-based learning	All the time	Frequently	Not much	Never
Priority is given to the lexical dimension	All the time	Frequently	Not much	Never
Cooperative learning	All the time	Frequently	Not much	Never
Grammar-translation method	All the time	Frequently	Not much	Never
Audiolingual method	All the time	Frequently	Not much	Never
Open-ended activities	All the time	Frequently	Not much	Never
Single-answer activities	All the time	Frequently	Not much	Never
Low-cognitive level activities (memorize, understand, apply)	All the time	Frequently	Not much	Never
High-cognitive activities (analyze, evaluate, create)	All the time	Frequently	Not much	Never
The teacher promotes scaffolding (through paraphrasing, repeating, examples, defining, synonyms and antonyms)	All the time	Frequently	Not much	Never
Other:				

V. MATERIALS AND RESOURCES

Authentic materials are used	All the time	Frequently	Not much	Never
Adapted materials are used	All the time	Frequently	Not much	Never
Originally designed materials are used	All the time	Frequently	Not much	Never
Diversity factors are employed in the materials	All the time	Frequently	Not much	Never
Multimedia software is used	All the time	Frequently	Not much	Never
Online materials are used	All the time	Frequently	Not much	Never
Blogs, wikis and web quests are used	All the time	Frequently	Not much	Never
Digital whiteboards are used	All the time	Frequently	Not much	Never

Online communication platforms are used	All the time	Frequently	Not much	Never
Other:				

VI: COORDINATION AND ORGANIZATION

Coordination between the NLA and conversation assistant	All the time	Frequently	Not much	Never
Coordination between the NLA and English teacher	All the time	Frequently	Not much	Never
Coordination between English teacher and conversation assistant	All the time	Frequently	Not much	Never
Interdisciplinary content is seen	All the time	Frequently	Not much	Never
Linguistic support is given through content	All the time	Frequently	Not much	Never
Content learning support is given	All the time	Frequently	Not much	Never
Connection is made between the L1, L2, and L3	All the time	Frequently	Not much	Never
Collaboration takes place in preparing and designing of materials	All the time	Frequently	Not much	Never
Other:				

VI: EVALUATION

Priority is given to content over linguistic acquisition	All the time	Frequently	Not much	Never
An oral component is used to evaluate	All the time	Frequently	Not much	Never
Diversified evaluation takes place	All the time	Frequently	Not much	Never
Interdisciplinary content is seen	All the time	Frequently	Not much	Never
Formative evaluation takes place	All the time	Frequently	Not much	Never
Summative evaluation takes place	All the time	Frequently	Not much	Never
The students are asked to self-evaluate	All the time	Frequently	Not much	Never

Other:				

Teacher vs. student-focused instruction (from Hora & Ferrare, 2014)

	L	LW	LVIS	LDEM	SOC-L	WP	IND	MM	A	AT	SGW	DW	SP
The entirety of the class													
The majority of the class													
Frequently													
Sometimes													
A few times													
Once or twice													
Not used													

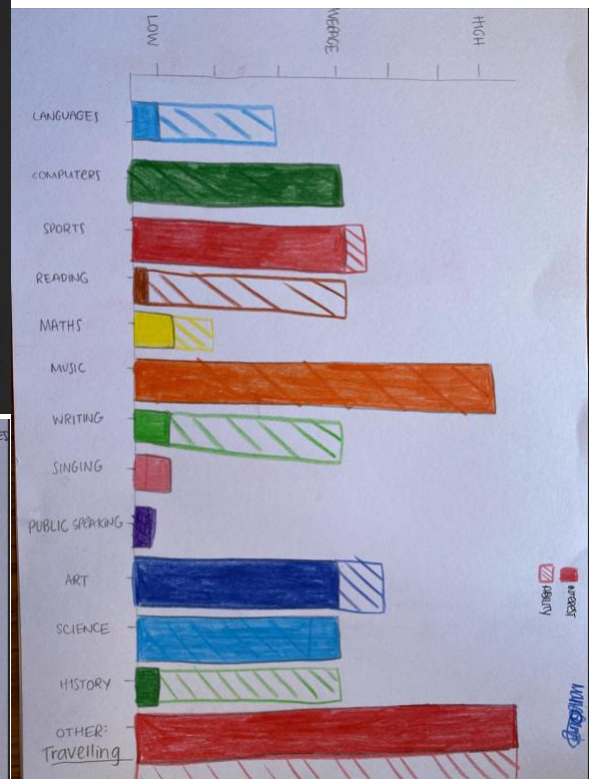
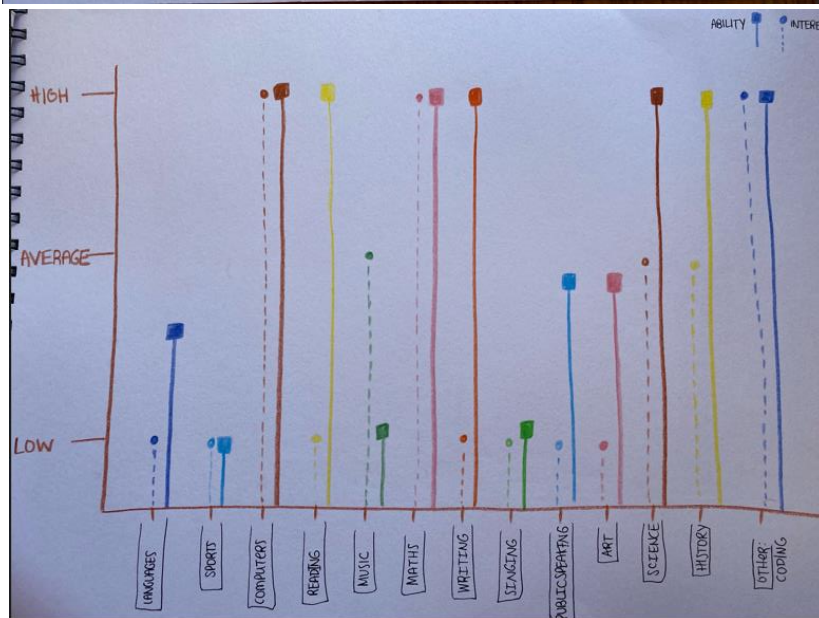
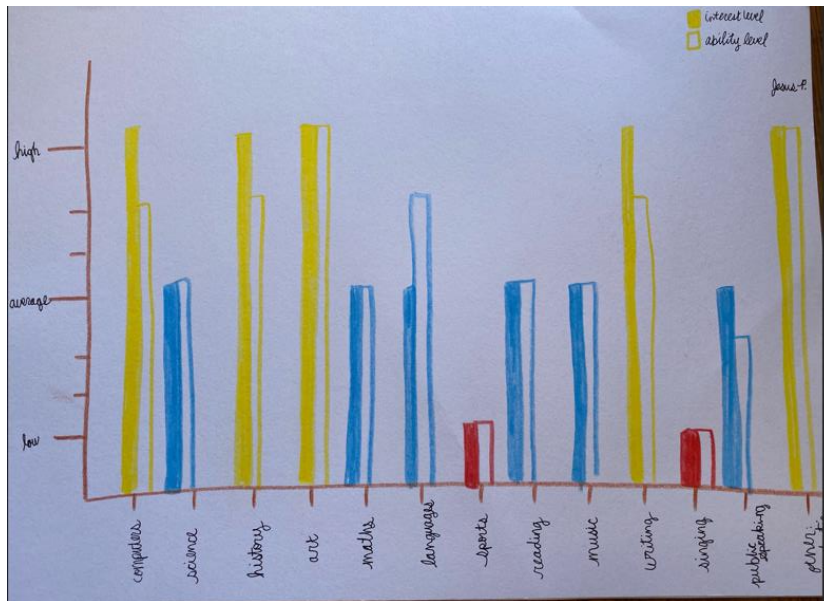
Teacher-focused instruction

L	Lecturing (the instructor is talking to the students and not using visuals, demonstration equipment, actively writing)
LW	Lecturing while writing
LVIS	Lecturing from pre-made visuals (use if video is being played but instructor is talking or explaining during the video)
LDEM	Lecturing with demonstration of phenomena
SOC-L	Socratic lecture (the instructor is talking to the students while asking questions successively one after another and students are responding)
WP	Working out problems
IND	Individualized instruction (given to individuals, groups and not the entire class. This often occurs while the instructor is roaming the classroom, but students may also approach the instructor)
MM	Multimedia (video or movie is played without speaking)
A	Assessment (student learning data is being collected or gathered explicitly through tests, quizzes, etc.)
AT	Administrative task (discussing exams, homework, or other non-content related topics)

Student-focused instruction

SGW	Small group work (groups of 2+)
DW	Deskwork (students work alone at their desks)
SP	Student presentations

Appendix VII Sample Activities from Intervention Program



Appendix VIII Reading Lists / additional course materials

	Fiction / Non-fiction
***Man's Search for Meaning (Frankl, V.)	NF
***The Path (Puett, M. & Gross-Loh, C.)	NF
**Cosmos (Sagen, P.)	NF
**Aspects of European History (Lee, S. J.)	NF
**The Culture Map (Meyer, E.)	NF
**How Democracies Die (Levitsky, S.)	NF
**Guns, Germs and Steel (Diamond, J.)	NF
**A Convenient Hatred: The History of Antisemitism (Evans, H & Goldstein, P.)	NF
**Governing the World: The History of an Idea, 1815 to the Present (Mazower, M.)	NF
**Prisoners of Geography (Marshall, T.)	NF
**Debt: The First 5,000 Years (Graeber, D.)	NF
**The Origins of Political Order (Fukuyama, F.)	NF
**Silencing the Past: Power and the Production of History (Trouillot, M. R.)	NF
**'Exterminate all the Brutes' (Lindqvist, S.)	NF
**A Splendid Exchange: How Trade Shaped the World	NF
**Paper Promises: Debt, Money and the New World Order (Coggan, P.)	NF
**The Broken Ladder: How Inequality Affects the Way We Think (Payne, K.)	NF
**The Buried Mirror: Reflections on Spain and the New World	NF
**The Right to be Intelligent (Machado, L. A.)	NF
*Think Like Socrates: Using Questions to Invite Wonder (Peeples, S. F.)	NF
*Bringing Words to Life: Robust Vocabulary (Beck, I. L. & McKeown, M. G.)	NF
*Make it Stick: The Science of Successful Learning (Brown, P. C. & Roediger, H. L.)	NF
**The Geography of Thought: How Asians and Westerners Think (Nisbett, R.)	NF

**Empowering Global Citizens (Reimers et al.)	NF
*Why Don't Students Like School? (Willingham, D. T.)	NF
*Grit: The Power of Passion and Perseverance (Duckworth, A.)	NF
**Mindset: Changing the Way You Think to Fulfill Your Potential (Dweck, C.)	NF
*Teach Like a Champion Field Guide: A Practical Resource (Lemov, D.)	NF
****The Kitchen House (Grissom, K.)	F
****Homegoing (Gyasi, Y.)	F
****Don Quixote (de Cervantes, M.)	F

*teacher resource for planning

**extracts used in class

***mandatory reading for students

****optional reading for students