



**UNIVERSIDAD DE JAÉN**  

---

**FACULTAD DE HUMANIDADES Y  
CIENCIAS DE LA EDUCACIÓN  
DEPARTAMENTO DE FILOLOGÍA  
INGLESA**

**TESIS DOCTORAL  
THE EFFECTS OF CONTENT AND  
LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING ON  
THE ORAL SKILLS OF COMPULSORY  
SECONDARY EDUCATION STUDENTS: A  
LONGITUDINAL STUDY**

**PRESENTADA POR:  
NINA KAREN LANCASTER**

**DIRIGIDA POR:  
DRA. DÑA. MARÍA LUISA PÉREZ CAÑADO**

**JAÉN, 5 DE FEBRERO DE 2016**

**ISBN 978-84-16819-65-2**



## Table of Contents

<b>Chapter 1. Introduction</b> .....	3
<b>Chapter 2. Definition and characterization of CLIL</b> .....	7
2.1. Canada and North America .....	9
2.1.1. Definition of bilingual education.....	9
2.1.2. Bilingual education in Canada.....	9
2.1.3. Bilingual education in North America.....	12
2.1.3.1. CBI taxonomy.....	13
2.1.3.1.1. English-only instruction .....	13
2.1.3.1.1.1. Submersion .....	14
2.1.3.1.1.2. Structured English Immersion .....	14
2.1.3.1.1.3. Sheltered Instruction.....	14
2.1.3.1.2. Models administering additional instruction in first languages.....	15
2.1.3.1.2.1. Transitional Bilingual Education.....	15
2.1.3.1.2.2. Maintenance Bilingual Education .....	16
2.1.3.1.2.3. Two-Way Programs.....	16
2.1.3.1.3. Language driven bilingual education .....	16
2.1.3.1.3.1. Adjunct courses .....	16
2.1.3.1.3.2. Theme-based models .....	17
2.1.3.1.4. Recent content-based ESL models .....	17
2.1.3.1.4.1. Push-in.....	17
2.1.3.1.4.2. Pull-out .....	17
2.1.3.2. Evolution of bilingual education in North America .....	19
2.2. CLIL characterization.....	23
2.2.1. Background.....	23
2.2.2. Definition.....	25
2.2.2.1. Content and language .....	25

2.2.2.2. Innovative form of education .....	28
2.2.2.3. Communication .....	28
2.2.2.4. Cognition and culture .....	29
2.2.2.5. Vehicular language learning .....	30
2.2.3. CLIL vs. immersion.....	30
2.2.4. Rationale.....	38
2.2.5. Traits.....	40
2.2.5.1. Context.....	41
2.2.5.2. Role of language.....	44
2.2.5.3. Role of the teacher.....	47
2.2.5.4. Role of the learner .....	49
2.2.5.5. CLIL methodology and evaluation.....	50
2.2.5.6. CLIL goals.....	51
2.2.6. CLIL assets .....	52
2.2.7. CLIL pitfalls .....	55
<b>Chapter 3. Research in Europe, Spain and Andalucía .....</b>	<b>63</b>
3.1. CLIL in Europe.....	65
3.1.1. Introduction .....	65
3.1.2. Research.....	66
3.2. CLIL in Spain .....	75
3.2.1. Introduction .....	75
3.2.2. Bilingual community research.....	77
3.2.2.1. BAC.....	77
3.2.2.2. Catalonia.....	82
3.2.2.3. Valencia and the Balearic Islands.....	85
3.2.2.4. Galicia.....	88
2.2.3. Monolingual community research.....	88
3.2.3.1. The Autonomous Community of Madrid .....	88

3.2.3.2. La Rioja .....	90
3.3. CLIL in Andalusia .....	90
3.3.1. Introduction .....	90
3.3.2. APPP objectives .....	93
3.3.3. APPP organisation .....	96
3.3.4. APPP methodology.....	97
3.3.5. APPP evaluation .....	98
3.3.6. APPP teacher roles .....	98
3.3.6.1. Coordinators .....	98
3.3.6.2. Language teachers .....	98
3.3.6.3. Non-linguistic area teachers .....	99
3.3.6.4. Teaching assistants .....	99
3.3.7. Research.....	99
3.4. Oral skills in CLIL.....	115
<b>Chapter 4. Research design .....</b>	<b>124</b>
4.1. Justification of the investigation.....	126
4.2. Objectives .....	130
4.3. Methodology.....	135
4.3.1. Research design .....	135
4.3.2. Sample .....	137
4.3.2.1. Quantitative sample .....	137
4.3.2.2. Qualitative sample .....	139
4.3.2.2.1. Students .....	140
4.3.2.2.2. Teachers.....	145
4.3.2.2.3. Parents .....	152
4.3.3. Variables.....	155
4.3.4. Instruments .....	157
4.3.5. Quantitative data collection process .....	161

4.3.5.1. Test design .....	161
4.3.5.2. Test validation .....	164
4.3.5.3. Test administration .....	166
4.3.5.4. Test assessment.....	167
4.3.6. Qualitative data collection process .....	169
4.3.6.1. Questionnaire design .....	169
4.3.6.2. Questionnaire validation.....	173
4.3.6.3. Questionnaire administration.....	175
4.3.6.4. Interviews .....	176
4.3.6.5. Conclusion.....	179
4.3.7. Intervention programme .....	179
4.3.8. Data analysis: statistical methodology .....	183
<b>Chapter 5. Results and discussion.....</b>	<b>186</b>
5.1. Intro .....	188
5.2. Across-cohort comparison.....	189
5.2.1. Pre-test.....	189
5.2.2. Post-test .....	192
5.2.3. Delayed post-test .....	198
5.2.4. Gender .....	203
5.3. Within-cohort comparison.....	204
5.3.1. CLIL (experimental group) .....	205
5.3.1.1. Pre- to post-test oral comprehension skills.....	205
5.3.1.2. Post- to delayed post-test oral comprehension skills.....	206
5.3.1.3. Pre- to delayed post-test oral comprehension skills .....	206
5.3.1.4. Pre- to post-test oral production skills.....	208
5.3.1.5. Post- to delayed post-test oral production skills.....	209
5.3.1.6. Pre- to delayed post-test oral production skills .....	209
5.3.2. EFL (control group).....	211

5.3.2.1. Pre- to post-test oral comprehension skills .....	212
5.3.2.2. Post- to delayed post-test oral comprehension skills.....	212
5.3.2.3. Pre- to delayed post-test oral comprehension skills .....	213
5.3.2.4. Pre- to post-test oral production skills .....	214
5.3.2.5. Post- to delayed post-test oral production skills .....	215
5.3.2.6. Pre- to delayed post-test oral production skills .....	215
5.4. Student perspectives .....	217
5.4.1. Global results .....	218
5.4.2. Specific results.....	225
5.5. Teacher perspectives.....	227
5.5.1. Global results .....	227
5.5.2. Specific results.....	234
5.6. Parent perspectives .....	236
5.6.1. Global results .....	236
5.6.2. Specific results.....	243
5.7. Cohort comparison .....	244
5.8. Interviews .....	244
5.8.1. Introduction .....	244
5.8.2. Use of the L2 in class .....	245
5.8.3. Development of the L2 in class: discursive functions .....	247
5.8.4. Development of competences in class.....	248
5.8.5. Methodology and types of groupings .....	249
5.8.6. Materials and resources .....	250
5.8.7. Coordination and organization .....	252
5.8.8. Evaluation.....	253
5.8.9. Teacher training and mobility.....	254
5.8.10. Motivation and workload.....	255
5.8.11. Overall assessment .....	256

<b>Chapter 6. Conclusions .....</b>	<b>259</b>
6.1. Recapitulation.....	261
6.2. Limitations of the study and further lines for research.....	272
<b>Summary of thesis in Spanish.....</b>	<b>279</b>
<b>References.....</b>	<b>301</b>

## **Appendices**

Appendix I. Oral comprehension test
Appendix II. Oral production test
Appendix III. Test assessment criteria
Appendix IV. Student questionnaire
Appendix V. Teacher questionnaire
Appendix VI. Parent questionnaire
Appendix VII. Students interview protocol
Appendix VIII. Teachers interview protocol
Appendix IX. Parent interview protocol

## List of Graphs

Graph 1. Breakdown of the quantitative sample in relation to group.....	138
Graph 2. Breakdown of the quantitative sample in relation to gender .....	138
Graph 3. Breakdown of the qualitative sample in relation to cohort.....	139
Graph 4. Breakdown of the qualitative sample in relation to nationality .....	140
Graph 5. Breakdown of the qualitative sample in relation to nationality .....	140
Graph 6. Age of students .....	141
Graph 7. Level of studies of students' parents .....	142
Graph 8. English level of students.....	142
Graph 9. Students' number of years in a bilingual programme.....	143
Graph 10. Number of subjects students study in English.....	144
Graph 11. Students' exposure to English within school.....	144
Graph 12. Students' exposure to English outside of school .....	145
Graph 13. Age of teachers .....	146
Graph 14. Nationality of teachers.....	146
Graph 15. Type of teachers.....	147
Graph 16. Administrative situation of teachers .....	147
Graph 17. English level of teachers.....	148
Graph 18. Subjects taught in English by teachers .....	149
Graph 19. Percentage of the subject taught in English by teachers.....	150
Graph 20. Coordinator of a bilingual section .....	150
Graph 21. Overall teaching experience .....	151
Graph 22. Bilingual teaching experience .....	152
Graph 23. Nationality of parents .....	152
Graph 24. Level of studies of parents.....	153
Graph 25. English level of parents .....	154
Graph 26. Students' exposure to English outside school according to parents ..	155
Graph 27. Overall means of the CLIL the EFL groups for oral comprehension at the pre-test phase .....	189

Graph 28. Overall means of the CLIL and EFL groups for oral production at the pre-test phase .....	191
Graph 29. Overall means of the CLIL and EFL groups for oral comprehension at the post-test phase.....	193
Graph 30. Overall means of the CLIL and EFL groups for oral production at the post-test phase.....	195
Graph 31. Overall means of the CLIL and EFL groups for oral comprehension At the delayed post-test phase .....	199
Graph 32. Overall means of the CLIL and EFL groups for oral production At the delayed post-test phase .....	201
Graph 33. Evolution of oral comprehension in terms of overall mark for the CLIL and EFL groups.....	217
Graph 34. Evolution of oral comprehension in terms of overall mark for the CLIL and EFL groups.....	217
Graph 35. Students' use, competence development of English in class (students).....	219
Graph 36. Methodology (students).....	220
Graph 37. Materials, resources and ICT (students).....	221
Graph 38. Evaluation (students) .....	222
Graph 39. Teachers' use, competence and development of English in class (students) .....	223
Graph 40. Mobility (students) .....	224
Graph 41. Improvement and motivation towards learning English (students)....	225
Graph 42. Students' use, competence and development of English in class (teachers) .....	228
Graph 43. Methodology (teachers).....	229
Graph 44. Materials, resources and ICT (teachers).....	230
Graph 45. Evaluation (teachers).....	231
Graph 46. Teacher training (teachers) .....	232

Graph 47. Mobility (teachers) .....	233
Graph 48. Coordination and organisation (teachers).....	234
Graph 49. Students' use, competence and development of English in class (parents).....	237
Graph 50. Methodology (parents) .....	238
Graph 51. Materials, resources and ICT (parents).....	238
Graph 52. Evaluation (parents).....	239
Graph 53. Teachers' use, competence and development of English in class (parents).....	241
Graph 54. Mobility (parents).....	241
Graph 55. Improvement and motivation towards learning English (parents) .....	243

## List of Tables

Table 1. Statistically significant differences across cohorts for oral comprehension at the pre-test phase.....	189
Table 2. Statistically significant differences across cohorts on oral comprehension tasks at the pre-test phase.....	190
Table 3. Statistically significant differences across cohorts for oral production at the pre-test phase.....	190
Table 4. Statistically significant differences across cohorts for oral production tasks at the pre-test phase.....	191
Table 5. Statistically significant differences across cohorts for oral production skills at the pre-test phase .....	191
Table 6. Statistically significant differences across cohorts for oral comprehension at the post-test phase .....	191
Table 7. Statistically significant differences across cohorts on oral comprehension tasks at the post-test phase .....	194
Table 8. Statistically significant differences across cohorts for oral production at the post-test phase .....	195
Table 9. Statistically significant differences across cohorts for oral production tasks at the post-test phase .....	197
Table 10. Statistically significant differences across cohorts for oral production skills at the post-test phase.....	198
Table 11. Statistically significant differences across cohorts for oral comprehension at the delayed post-test phase.....	199
Table 12. Statistically significant differences across cohorts for oral comprehension tasks at the delayed post-test phase.....	200
Table 13. Statistically significant differences across cohorts for oral production at the delayed post-test phase.....	201
Table 14. Statistically significant differences across cohorts for	

oral production tasks at the delayed post-test phase.....	203
Table 15. Statistically significant differences across cohorts for oral production skills at the delayed post-test phase .....	203
Table 16. Statistically significant differences between gender on oral comprehension skills at the pre-, post- and delayed post- test phases .....	204
Table 17. Statistically significant differences between gender on oral production skills at the pre-, post- and delayed post- test phases .....	204
Table 18. Evolution of oral comprehension in terms of overall mark For the CLIL group.....	207
Table 19. Evolution of oral comprehension in terms of task For the CLIL group.....	207
Table 20. Evolution of oral production in terms of overall mark For the CLIL group.....	211
Table 21. Evolution of oral production in terms of task For the CLIL group.....	211
Table 22. Evolution of oral production in terms of skill For the CLIL group.....	211
Table 23. Evolution of oral comprehension in terms of overall mark For the EFL group .....	213
Table 24. Evolution of oral comprehension in terms of task For the EFL group .....	214
Table 25. Evolution of oral production in terms of overall mark For the EFL group .....	216
Table 26. Evolution of oral production in terms of task For the EFL group .....	216
Table 27. Evolution of oral production in terms of skill For the EFL group .....	216

Table 28. Statistically significant differences in terms of gender (students).....	226
Table 29. Statistically significant differences in terms level of English (students) .....	226
Table 30. Statistically significant differences in terms of Level of studies of parents (students) .....	227
Table 31. Statistically significant differences in terms of Percentage of subject taught in English (teacher) .....	235
Table 32. Statistically significant differences in terms of bilingual teaching experience (teachers).....	236
Table 33. Statistically significant differences in terms of bilingual Teaching experience (cohort comparison) .....	244

CHAPTER 1  
INTRODUCTION



Attributable to the demands of an ever-changing, complex and in chief globalised society, foreign language learning has emerged as a matter of concern within national government policies throughout Europe. Coyle, Hood and Marsh (2010) give substance to this allegation by documenting that “globalization and the forces of economic and social convergence have had a significant impact on who learns which language, at what stage in their development, and in what way” (p. 2). Contingent on this aforementioned instability and changes in direction with relation to the urgent need to restructure language learning strategies, Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) has made an appearance on the European scene. Often considered as an offshoot of Canadian immersion programmes and North America’s numerous Content Based Instruction models, this recent and popular phenomenon “requires use of dual-focused language-sensitive methodologies alongside changing the vehicular language” (Marsh, 2006, p. 33). CLIL has frequently been manifested as an idealistic revelation with the answer to Europe’s language learning challenges (Lorenzo, 2007; Marsh, 2005, as cited in Lorenzo, 2007; Muñoz, 2007; Wolff, 2005).

Spain as a nation is currently taking advantage of this profusely accepted methodology, which is evident from registered widespread adoption within autonomous community frameworks. Assimilation of this innovative form of education was deemed particularly necessary in view of a pointedly unsatisfactory position measured by the Eurobarometer in terms of Spanish language competence. According to this macro-survey carried out by the European Commission in 2012, Spain occupied “the bottom rung of the foreign-language-knowledge ladder” (Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2009, p. 7). These authors also worryingly reveal that a mere 54% of the Spanish population are able to speak another language other than their

mother tongue and Spaniards also ranked lowest in Europe in light of the fact that only 18% can hold a conversation in another language. Alongside CLIL implementation, the European Commission's White Paper on *Teaching and Learning: Towards a Learning Society* (1995) underscored the principal aim of improving the foreign language proficiency of European citizens by declaring the requisite to be proficient in two foreign languages in addition to an individual's mother tongue as one of its general objectives.

The decision to incorporate CLIL as a teaching methodology in schools throughout Spain was bolstered by bilingual community findings as regards improved conditions in foreign language learning. Regions such as the Basque Autonomous Community and Catalonia have pushed forward Content and Language Integrated Learning approaches, substantiating their potential in light of encouraging research outcomes stemming from over 20 years of investigation on related issues (Jiménez Catalan & Ruiz de Zarobe, 2009; Navés, 2009; Navés & Victori, 2010; Pérez-Vidal & Juan-Garau, 2010; Ruiz de Zarobe & Lasagabaster, 2010).

Regarding monolingual communities within the Spanish context, "*the Plan de Fomento del Plurilinguismo (APPP)* in Andalusia and the Bilingual network in the *Comunidad de Madrid* encompass meaningful instances of the emergence of foreign languages as vehicles of instruction in state education" (Lorenzo, Casal, Quiñones & Moore, 2007, p. 12). The Plan for the Promotion of Plurilingualism came into effect in 2005 in the autonomous community of Andalusia, in a bid to void the hitherto immanent lack of foreign language tradition in the region. The effects of existing models of bilingual education in Canada, North America and the bilingual communities of Spain have collectively been validated, and, as Roa, Madrid, and Sanz

(2011) highlight, “these results need to be contrasted with monolingual contexts, which have much lower levels of social pressure, as in the case of Andalusia” (p. 111). A decade on from the inauguration of the APPP, we believe it is necessary to gauge the effects it is generating on various aspects. Pérez Cañado (2011) ascertains that researchers “[...] have actually only skimmed the surface due to the well-documented paucity of research in this sense, a first reason which clearly warrants and justifies further research into the topic” (p. 399). Simultaneously, Menezes and Juan-Garau (2015) claim “existing research shows that CLIL fosters abilities [...] such as oral communication skills and fluency” (p. 226).

As a result, we have deemed it imperative to contribute to research outcomes by examining CLIL in Andalusia in terms of the English oral comprehension and production competence of students in order to confirm if this latter affirmation is reflected in reality. In addition, it has been considered necessary to collate and interpret up-to-date stakeholder perspectives of the APPP in the province of Jaén in order to determine its viability. In this sense, we have focused on fundamental aspects in need of assessment in order to monitor the plan’s adequate functioning, such as students’ use, competence and development of English in class; methodology; materials and resources and ICT; evaluation; teachers’ use, competence and development of English in class; teacher training; mobility; improvement and motivation towards English; and coordination and organisation.

The analysis has involved the design of two separate language competence tests geared at effectuating an across- and within-cohort comparison between CLIL and EFL groups pertaining to oral comprehension and production. Questionnaires have also been designed, validated and administered with a view to identifying

student, teacher and parent attitudes towards Andalusian CLIL in the province of Jaén.

In reporting on our investigation, the present Thesis is structured into three theoretical chapters and three practical ones. After this initial introduction, in chapter two of the investigation, a comprehensive picture of bilingual education models is painted to serve as a basis on which our study is grounded. The antecedents of CLIL in Canada and North America are delineated, in turn, providing a backdrop against which this new educational approach can be framed. Orientated to enlightening the reader on the inner workings of CLIL methodology, a subsequent section is devoted to its characterization.

Chapter three underpins the CLIL situation and delivers a thorough overview of the corresponding research conducted on the topic in Europe and Spain. In the case of Andalusia, a comprehensive summary of the APPP is provided, delineating its structure and implementation, and relevant research in this domain is also presented. The last part of this chapter aims attention to findings associated to the effects of CLIL on oral skills, which has been assumed to be crucial given the prime focus of the study.

Chapter four begins with the justification of the investigation, profoundly related to the studies canvassed in the previous chapter. In the subsequent sections, the objectives and the materials and methodology are outlined, prior to the fifth chapter, in which a spotlight is shone on the results and discussion of the research. A final chapter reports on the principal conclusions, inclusive of the limitations of the study, suggestions for improvement and lines for further research.

**CHAPTER 2**  
**DEFINITION AND CHARACTERIZATION OF CLIL**



## **2.1. Canada and North America**

### **2.1.1. Definition of bilingual education**

To underpin bilingual education with a single definition would be an impossible task (Horwitz, 2005) due to the complex variables involved within the term. Navés (2009) describes bilingual education as “any use of two languages in school –by teachers or students or both– for a variety of social and pedagogical purposes” (p. 4). Due to the fact that this type of education is subject to specific contexts, bilingual education from a US perspective is referred to as “approaches in the classroom that use the native language of English language learners (ELLs) for instruction” (National Association of Bilingual Education, 2004 as cited in Navés, 2009, p. 24).

### **2.1.2. Bilingual education in Canada**

As previously implied, each differing context employs bilingual education in a manner which is specific to its setting (Madrid & Hughes, 2011). In this respect, Canada is certainly no exception and we can go as far as to say that they stand as pioneers in the field. When considering bilingual education within the Canadian framework, we can refer to the immersion programmes, which have given us a remarkable insight into how bilingual education can make a significant contribution to language learning. They most certainly deserve to be foregrounded and have been depicted as “[...] the most interesting and effective innovations in second language education during the last three decades [...]” (Genesee, 1994, p. 1).

Immersion programmes have been in effect since the 1960's (Genesee, 1994; Madrid & Hughes, 2011). The rationale behind their inception was the proactive need to enhance bilingualism as a means to conserve national unity (Coyle et al., 2010) and the pivotal aim sought to increase the English-speaking Canadian children's proficiency in French given the two official language status of the country.

Two dimensions regarding immersion programmes can be identified: the first one pertains to the age of entry into the programme and the second is in line with the level of exposure to the French language. The former is characterized by the early, delayed or late entry in which first French instruction takes place at the ages of 5-6, 9-10 and 11-14, respectively. The latter encompasses total or partial immersion. Total immersion subjects all curricular subjects to French instruction for the first three years of the programme with a gradual decrease from 80% to 40% in subsequent years, whereas a constant 50% of French immersion throughout the programme comprises partial immersion (Canadian Council on Learning, 2007).

Navés (2009) also waxes lyrical about Canadian immersion, acknowledging it as "most highly acclaimed" and "extremely efficient and effective" (p. 2). This advocate goes on to outline the evaluation demands of stakeholders at the offset of the initiative resulting from uncertainties concerning the amount and quality of content, L1 and L2 to be learnt. The generalizations which materialized as a result of the empirical research conducted were that a threshold level of the L2 was necessary so as not to negatively affect content knowledge, total immersion drew better gains than partial immersion, in the long term the immersion groups outperformed the

mainstream peers with regard to L1 and the most significant weaknesses of the programme impinged on grammatical competence and vocabulary knowledge.

Genesee (1994) bolsters his positive attitude towards Canadian immersion by claiming that “instruction approaches that integrate content and language are likely to be more effective than approaches in which language is taught in isolation” (p. 9). He highlights that this is a result of the learner being engaged within a purposeful and meaningful context where the communicative function of language learning is promoted, in turn, increasing student motivation.

In spite of the great hype brought about by these immersion programmes, it is thought necessary to also reveal any implied weaknesses. The theory behind these programmes heavily relied on large amounts on rich comprehensible input based on the Input Hypothesis of Krashen (1985), as cited in Madrid and Hughes (2011). This increased quantity of language attained better results than traditional language programmes; nevertheless, a lacuna in production skills was identified and the level of the students was a far cry from that of a native-like proficiency (Järvinen, 2006).

To counteract this pronounced flaw, the development of the Output Hypothesis (Swain, 1985 as cited in Järvinen, 2006) ensued. Error-free production skills were scarce due to Input Hypothesis deficits, which resulted in one of Canada’s most renowned researchers in linguistics and immersion promoting extensive implementation of spoken activities spawning enhanced language abilities and interlingua of the students (Järvinen, 2006).

Muñoz (2007), to emphasize this shortcoming of immersion programmes, documents that the productive errors are “due to no encouragement to process

linguistic form” and the Output Hypothesis “highlights error correction importance” (p. 20). Swain supports this view by outlining four general weaknesses of immersion including no focus on form, functionally constrained, selective listening as a result of a focus only on meaning and dearth production skills of the learner (Swain 1990, p. 34, as cited in Muñoz, 2007, p. 22).

Reviewing the ambitious uptake of immersion in Canada and relevant research findings, it is important to admit that even though negative aspects have been identified with respective remedies put forward, this specific type of bilingual education has played a crucial part in the development of bilingual studies and is regarded as “the type of educational bilingualism which has perhaps had the greatest impact on learning [...]” (Hughes & Madrid, 2011, p. 362).

### **2.1.3. Bilingual education in North America**

Framed against the backdrop of the Canadian model of immersion, alternative forms of bilingual education emerged in the United States of America. These forms can be generally encompassed within the paradigm of Content-Based Instruction (henceforth, CBI). Dueñas (2004) defines CBI as the following:

Content- based approaches suggest that optimal conditions for learning a second/foreign language occur when both the target language and some meaningful content are integrated in the classroom, the language therefore being both an immediate object of study in itself and a medium for learning a particular subject matter. (2004, p. 74)

Compared to the Canadian models it must be acknowledged that CBI is seen from a completely contrastive perspective in the US scope. The participants taking part in Canadian immersion are majority-group English-speaking students who all

seek to fulfil the objective of improving French proficiency, whereas the students implicated in CBI are most often limited-English-proficient students from minority backgrounds. This major contrast in the learner's circumstances greatly affects the components involved alongside differing situations, which, in some cases, essentially deter away from the goal of bilingual education. In this respect, CBI "is commonly perceived as a flexible operational framework for language instruction, with a heterogeneity of prototype models and application options available for different contexts and pedagogical needs" (Dueñas, 2004, p. 75)

With a view to fully understanding how bilingual education has developed in the United States of America during the last four decades, a comprehensive and clearly delineated taxonomy of CBI models is presented below, illustrating an array of approaches towards language learning. This ample classification depicts diverse methods ranging from those that are least supportive regarding the needs of limited-English-proficient learners whose principal objective is complete English competence, towards examples of CBI taking an active role in assisting English language learners (ELLs) with integration difficulties with a preference to maintain native language proficiency simultaneously.

### **2.1.3.1. CBI taxonomy**

#### ***2.1.3.1.1. English-only instruction***

The central focus of models subsumed within this subtitle is on ELLs achieving competence only in English. No attention is paid to the native language of these students within the education system, inferring the development of their bilingual education is entirely dependant upon the family involved.

#### *2.1.3.1.1.1. Submersion*

This term is predominantly pejorative in the eyes of bilingual educators, owing to the fact that instruction in the classroom is hardly or not modified under any concept. English instruction in itself is minimal, as students who are placed in such educational surroundings are a minority, so no type of bilingual option is possible. Given that limited-English-proficient learners receive no kind of assistance and are expected to compete with native English speakers, submersion has often been known as the “sink or swim” method in which ELLs are subject to instruction organized for native-speaking students (Horwitz, 2005).

#### *2.1.3.1.1.2. Structured English Immersion (SEI)*

SEI differs from the Canadian model previously mentioned with non-bilingual goals due to a concern with minority in place of majority groups. This model, coined by Keith Baker and Adriana de Kanter in 1983, is often confused with submersion; however, a comparison is deemed unfeasible on account of the undertaking of a specifically designed curriculum orientated to ELLs. This requirement of the model draws upon a simplified usage of the L2 procuring recognition of and a tolerant attitude towards the minority language; nevertheless, no encouragement to maintain their native language is set forth. Students, systematically grouped in terms of proficiency level, receive extensive English instruction with a focus on language over content to attain rapid mainstream entry (Clark, 2009).

#### *2.1.3.1.1.3. Sheltered Instruction*

Also referred to as SDAIE (specially designed academic instruction in English), sheltered immersion targets language proficiency through content-based teaching, fostering increased academic achievement as opposed to solely promoting language development. ELLs, predominantly consisting of those possessing intermediate to advanced level skills, are taught by means of a selection of instruction methods facilitating access to academic content and, consequently, assisting the transition to mainstream groups (Clark, 2009). Gerdes (2009) mentions the Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol (SIOP), which exists as a measurement tool with regard to sheltered instruction and was furthermore created to aid in lesson planning in such environments.

#### ***2.1.3.1.2. Models administering additional instruction in first languages***

Cazabon, Lambert and Nicoladis (1998) mention three models in which attention is paid to instruction in the native language of the ELL in varying degrees, depending on the immediate background and context of the ELLs in question.

##### ***2.1.3.1.2.1. Transitional Bilingual Education (TBE)***

This theory of approach to bilingual education is rooted in the L1 to L2 transfer. As Krashen (2006) documents, “[...] bilingual education accelerates English [...] by providing literacy development in the first language, which is a short cut to English literacy” (para. 3). The students receive content subject instruction in their native language for a number of years alongside learning English explicitly so as to not drop back from their mainstream counterparts. Transition to English only classrooms is expected to take place within a limited number of years, usually no

more than three, with successful English acquisition as an ultimate goal (Horwitz, 2005)

*2.1.3.1.2.2. Maintenance Bilingual Education (Developmental Bilingual Education)*

Parallel to Transitional Bilingual Education, Maintenance or Developmental Bilingual Education promotes instruction in the native language and English aimed at guaranteeing continuous progress not only in English, but in both languages to, furthermore, obtain bilingual academic competence (Horwitz, 2005).

*2.1.3.1.2.3. Two-Way Programmes*

Cazabon et al. (1998) claim that “research on the most effective forms of bilingual education [...] suggests that two-way programs may be the best” (p. 3). Two-way programmes are also recognized as Dual Language Immersion, in consequence of the two learning groups and the two instructional languages involved in this option. An equal amount of the languages is fostered and is subject to specific organizational models. Due to no segregation, speakers of minority languages are not exposed to a disadvantage. In addition, native English speakers benefit from learning a foreign language.

***2.1.3.1.3. Language driven bilingual education***

Pertaining to Met’s “continuum of Content and Language Integration” (Met 1999, p. 7), Dueñas (2004) highlights two courses possessing language-orientated objectives.

*2.1.3.1.3.1. Adjunct Courses*

Although generally employed in a university context, some examples of use in secondary schools have been witnessed. Based on a combination of language and academic content courses, there is a strong influence of contextualized language learning with language skills at the forefront.

#### *2.1.3.1.3.2. Theme-Based Models*

These types of models are known to be popular in language classes. In a language-orientated fashion, several topics are chosen and elaborated on administering oral and written material. Dueñas (2004) goes as far as to establish that “theme-based courses constitute an excellent tool for the integration of language and content” (p. 85).

#### *2.1.3.1.4. Recent Content-Based ESL models*

##### *2.1.3.1.4.1. Push-in*

This term refers to the mainstream and ESL teacher working as a team within the same classroom. The two educational figures hold equal authority and provide their own specific knowledge and experience, catering for all ELLs’ particular needs, in a non-segregated setting, creating grounds for positive results regarding student collaboration and intercultural acceptance (Jiao, O’Brian & Reynolds, 2012; Reynolds, Nolin-Smith & Groshek, 2012).

##### *2.1.3.1.4.2. Pull-out*

Jiao et al. (2012) indicate that in pull-out instruction ELLs are given individual attention appropriate to their proficiency levels outside of the mainstream classroom.

They are not considered as effective as push-in, but necessary with a view to avoiding the deterioration of ELLs integration, linguistic and academic performance.

A quantitative and qualitative research study carried out to measure the effectiveness of push-in and pull-out models by Jiao et al. (2012) reveals the models contain significant flaws and proposes the need for a new blended model. The authors stress the importance of teacher training in collaborative instruction and propound the opinion that measures should be taken to prepare mainstream education teachers with the skills to be able to dually teach the ELLs.

Reynolds et al. (2012) provide further specifics on the topic by enlightening us with implications reached following the elaboration of a meta-analysis of all the available quantitative, qualitative and mixed research regarding existing CBI models. In order to circumvent a vision of their findings concerning push-in and pull-out models, it emerges that, in the case of the push-in model, students feel at an advantage in the position of having the opportunity to draw upon each others' strengths; exposure to the target language is increased and, due to the fact they are in an integrative social environment, outcomes are generally more successful. In the light of the pull-out results, it transpires that learners feel less embarrassment when it comes to participating in the classroom, they are able to reach a higher level of concentration and the smaller groups favour differentiation.

Other models are incorporated into and analysed by Reynolds et al. (2012), such as English Language Development (ELD), Individual Language Learning Plan (ILLP) and TESOL Inclusion Plan (TIP). An in-depth examination of such models, together with the push-in and pull-out methods, lead to the undeniable conclusion that

empirical studies in this field of research are seriously lacking. They voice their concern over the necessity of precise definitions and descriptions of the programme models.

### **2.1.3.2. Evolution of bilingual education in North America**

The topic of bilingual education has always been subject to controversy from a US perspective (Crawford, 1998; Navés, 2009). The Bilingual Education Act was put into practice from 1968 and endured 34 years as a national policy, coming to an end in 2002. Its implementation was a repercussion of the Canadian immersion programmes within a US framework doted with government funds to sustain its execution and promote bilingual teaching (Madrid & Hughes, 2011).

Madrid and Hughes (2011) endow us with supplementary information regarding this education strategy by citing that the underlying motives why the Bilingual Education Act was forced to run its course were that the country's social structure was under threat. Crawford (2006b) elaborates on this thought by stating that there has always been "fear among Anglos about losing their majority status and, with it, their political dominance" (p. 1).

Given the aforementioned conflicting situation, bilingual education under the Bilingual Education Act proceeded to be dismantled in key states where immigration, and thus residents possessing minority languages, was rife: "[...] the three states that passed anti-bilingual education initiatives enroll 43% of the English language learners in the United States" (Crawford, 2003 as cited in Krashen, 2005a). California (under proposition 227), Arizona (governed by proposition 203) and Massachusetts

constituted these three states where bilingual education became restricted in order to set forth the uptake of Structured English Immersion (SEI).

Laws were passed through voter schemes in favour of “English-only programs” (all English, monolingual programmes) encompassing SEI, thereby promoting the dissolution of bilingual education which was claimed to be “eliminated as part of a larger ‘school reform’ measure known as No Child Left Behind” (Language Policy Research Unit, 2002). Although this guiding principle was expected to become extinct in the year 2008, it is still underway to the present day. It is important to point out, however, that a recent bill was approved by the U.S. Senate on July 16<sup>th</sup> 2015. The aforesaid bill permits states to undertake a more flexible approach in terms of setting specific standards particular to their context in order measure school and student progress and performance. Klein (2015) certifies this in reporting that the Obama administration has made certain adjustments to initial waiver requirements predominantly concerning teacher evaluation issues, a topic embroiling a history of controversy in the USA.

Krashen (2004), a notorious advocate of bilingual education, signposts the driving forces behind the dismantling of bilingual programmes as an evident lack of information as regards the general public. He points out a direct need for more effective public relations as people acted out of ignorance opting for English-only programmes in the mindset that they were in support of English language learning, blatantly unaware of the positive bilingual education specifics.

This renowned promoter of bilingual education puts forward two prominent arguments for bilingual education. The first of these pro-bilingualism theories

indicates the short-cut to English literacy by means of developed native language literacy. Secondly, as with literacy, background knowledge learnt in a first language gives way to this information in English being more intelligible. These premises are supported by the testament that “knowledge and skills acquired in the native language, literacy in particular, are ‘transferable’ to a second language. They do not need to be relearned in English” (Cummins, 1992, as cited in Crawford 1998, p. 52; Krashen, 1996).

In line with these assertions, in the scope of English language learning, it can be acknowledged that bilingual education is, in fact, the best option for minority children. Krashen (2006) documents “children in bilingual programs typically do better than children in all-English programs on tests of English reading” (para. 6). Krashen (2004) evaluates varying programmes within this paradigm including two-way, transitional bilingual education and maintenance bilingual education, as a means to contrast their benefits and specifies “claims have been made that two-way has been shown to be the most effective form of bilingual education, and the best possible program for language minority children in general” (para. 1).

Following the incorporation of the “English-only programmes”, an increase in test scores was observed in the state of California. Onlookers considered this a product of proposition 227; however, Krashen (2004), subsequent to scrupulous examination and careful consideration of the variables implicated, saw fit to set the record straight with his estimations. He first articulated the unfair imposition of new tests being introduced, as this almost always implies enhanced test results. In addition to selective testing, evidence was uncovered that financial awards were promised in

exchange for certain attainment targets reached or if the opposite occurred and objectives were not fulfilled, there was a danger of school closure. To add to these deceitful circumstances, Krashen (2004) also contends that bilingual education, in reality, prepared the students for the transformation to “English only programmes” and the high test scores should be considered a backlash of the previous Bilingual Education Act.

Rossell and Baker (1996), as cited in Greene (1998), in the wake of evaluating 300 bilingual programmes, of which they considered 75 methodologically acceptable, determined bilingual programmes inferior to total immersion programmes. Greene (1998), another recognized advocate of bilingual education, circumvented Rossell and Baker’s study to have unreliable conclusions. Taking this into account, he reviewed the same studies in the form of a meta-analysis and proceeded to discover the contradictory outcome that “[...] native language instruction is useful” (p. 11).

The meta-analysis carried out by Krashen (2006) concludes that bilingual education “has a modest advantage over English-only methods” (para. 7), which confirms Greene’s assessment on the matter. Both scholars make a plea for supplementary studies performed applying controlled scientific methods.

Despite continuous controversy complemented by harsh criticism from opponents, it seems valid scientific research generating reactions against bilingual education is scarce. Its advocates and the repeated notion that bilingual programmes are beneficial to minority English language learners, not to mention to English native speakers in two-way programmes, are extensive. Pérez Cañado (2012) acknowledges abundant research studies into bilingual education, which have been developed in the

US arena and claims that they “attest to the success of these programs at the linguistic, subject content, cognitive and attitudinal levels” (p. 3).

Tedick and Wesely (2015) confirm investigation into US bilingual education to be positive, chiefly as regards student outcomes, minority language development and attitudes towards bilingual education. Although an optimistic outlook is exhibited, it is indispensable to point out that research is scanty if compared to the long-standing tradition of assessing Canadian immersion programmes. This makes a strong case for research to be stepped up. The aforesaid authors pinpoint longitudinal studies as a necessity to elaborate on specific characteristics of programmes. Issues such as teacher preparation, student diversity within the learning environment and the role of English in the classroom are also identified as areas for development.

## **2.2. CLIL characterization**

Framed against the Canadian and American backdrop, the following subsections report on the background, definition, rationale, traits, assets and pitfalls of Content and Learning Integrated Language (CLIL).

### **2.2.1. Background**

CLIL appeared when the offer of curriculum subjects taught through a foreign language (FL) emerged. Such a practice has become a regular occurrence during the last few decades. The CLIL approach started out as a mere strife for language awareness and gradually transformed into the great venture it is nowadays (Coyle et al., 2010).

The above-quoted authors, in unison with Marsh (2006), ascribe such a phenomenon to the influential events of globalization, European integration, converging technology, the knowledge age and socio-economic change from 1990 onwards. Consequently, current education systems in Europe have been under pressure to react rapidly and to cater accordingly for their young learners.

CLIL, existing as a methodological approach within a European framework, was adopted in 1995 (Marsh, 2006), following EU-funded research projects, (Navés, 2009). It transpired that CLIL was an endeavour on a European scale to replace existing models such as immersion, bilingual education and CBI. The emergence of this milestone technique has been expressed by Pérez Cañado (2012) as “distinct from its predecessors” whilst underscoring that “it thus merits attention in its own right, as it is no longer considered as a mere offshoot of other types of bilingual programs, but an increasingly acknowledged trend in foreign language (FL) teaching” (p. 4).

To elaborate on its uniqueness, it is necessary to elucidate that CLIL is not a replication of, under any circumstances, Canadian or US models transferred to a European setting (Marsh, 2002; Marsh et al., 1998; Wolff, 2002b as cited in Perez Cañado, 2012). Marsh (2005) documents that “it is in this regard that CLIL is a European solution to a European need” (p. 5 as cited in Lorenzo, 2007, p. 27), confirming that “[...] CLIL is now a European label for bilingual education” (Lorenzo, 2007, p. 28) on account of it being “deeply rooted in the linguistic needs of the EU” (Muñoz, 2007, as cited in Pérez Cañado, 2012, p. 4) and is not well-known outside of the European spectrum.

A decade after the term was coined, the European Commission made a strong case for promoting CLIL throughout the European Union and testified in a 2005 report that “CLIL helps to ensure the attainment of EU objectives in the areas of language learning and enables pupils to study a non-language related subject in a foreign language” (Navés, 2009, p. 5). In this vein, it was by no means surprising that CLIL became a major priority on the EU educational scene (European Commission, 2002, as cited in Coyle et al., 2010).

In line with the foregoing, CLIL has had a rapid, widespread implementation in the European Community in recent years, in pursuit of a more developed plurilingual and pluricultural society (Coyle, 2006; Lorenzo, 2007; Pérez Cañado, 2012). Marsh (2006) articulates this acknowledgement and implies its importance by evincing that “the period 2000-2006 has seen swift adoption of this educational approach across Europe, at all levels of Education” (p. 29).

### **2.2.2. Definition**

CLIL bears a strong resemblance to bilingual education on the pretext of each notion bearing a plethora of definitions. Lasagabaster and Sierra (2009) specify that “the Eurydice study concludes that different labels are used in different contexts” (p. 368). Not only can CLIL be identified in terms of many different aspects; the expression itself can also be referred to as “Dual Focused Education” or, under certain conditions, as “Vehicular Language Learning”. We will progress to outline CLIL with regard to five contrasting classifications.

#### **2.2.2.1. Content and language**

What would conceivably be the central focus of CLIL constitutes the entwining nature of content and language. Differing to all existing teaching approaches, CLIL can be identified as chiefly content-driven while, simultaneously, bestowing the learner with augmented foreign language learning conditions. CLIL is not only a focus on content, nor does it centre principally on language, but interweaves both. As Coyle et al. (2010) maintain, “content and language integrated learning is a dual-focused educational approach in which an additional language is used for the learning and teaching of both content and language” (p. 1).

Pavón Vázquez and Ellison (2013) underscore that “the dual focus on content and language in the CLIL classroom makes learning and teaching more demanding. CLIL forces students and teachers to be more cognitively engaged” (p. 73). Reflecting on the aforementioned statement leads us to interpret CLIL as a powerful educational tool; however, flaws have come to light through recent research findings as to how the integration of content and language is achieved in classroom practice. Due to a lack of equally presented goals concerning the two components, Mehisto (2008) expressed that “[...] the dual focus on content and language, which is the essence of the CLIL approach, is likely not being applied in a systematic manner by teachers” (p.99, as cited in Bruton, 2013, p. 589).

Brüning and Purrmann (2014) argue “many programs focus too much on language and language teaching rather than on content or integration of both” (p.334), while Paran (2013) feels “it is important to understand the complexities of achieving the integration that is part of the acronym CLIL” (p. 329). Hüttner and Smit (2014) “[...] acknowledge that there is more work to be done to research into this

relationship with the aim to provide a coherent pedagogic provision” (p. 166). This sentiment is strengthened by Cenoz (2015), who ascertains “developing integration in CBI/CLIL programmes is certainly needed at different levels in order to share good practices in educational research” (p. 22), as despite the fact that signs of development have started to emerge, “there is not yet any guidance or pedagogical tools for teachers to implement integrated assessment methods” (Meyer, Coyle, Halbach, Schuck & Ting, 2015, p. 45).

Drawing upon such stipulation, these authors provide a solution to this predicament in the form of a pluriliteracies approach to CLIL, unveiling progress in the area on behalf of “The Graz Group”. They elaborate that “this group has developed a model of subject-specific literacies which we believe demonstrates that we have transcended the content/language divide through *interaction and interrelationship* between conceptual development and language development” (p. 49). It has been reported that students reinforce links between the “*conceptual continuum*” and the “*communication continuum*” and this is how meaning is made (Meyer et al., 2015, p. 50). Focus is taken away from the content knowledge and veered towards meaning-making in the context of systemic functional linguistics, which is perceived as generating fruitful learning.

Llinares (2015) is in agreement with Meyer et al. in that “the actual concept of integration, *what* it entails and *how* it can be materialised in the classroom, should receive more attention by researchers and practitioners” (p. 59). This researcher also endorses systemic functional linguistics, along with classroom discourse, as a means to decipher the relationship between content and language and in what way they

integrate. To epitomize content and language as the main infrastructure of CLIL we can establish they are “[...] interconnected as two sides of the same coin” (Llinares, 2015, p. 69), but it is necessary to recapitulate that “one of the greatest challenges in transforming current CLIL thinking is associated with the notion of integration, that is, that integrating content learning and language learning will lead to richer learning experiences” (Meyer et al. 2015, p. 53).

#### **2.2.2.2. Innovative form of education**

To draw upon the merging of content and language, it is necessary to highlight that CLIL does not constitute a new type of language education, nor is it a novel procedure for teaching content, but is considered an innovative fusion of both. Marsh (2006) sums up such an outlook by proclaiming that “integrated learning is thus increasingly viewed as a modern form of educational delivery designed to even better equip the learner with knowledge and skills suitable for the global age” (p. 32).

#### **2.2.2.3. Communication**

CLIL is considered an offshoot of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), and is depicted as “ultimate communicative methodology” (Graddol, 2006, p. 86 as cited in Coyle et al., 2010, p. 5). Coyle et al. (2010) attest that:

Communicative language teaching was one step towards providing a more holistic way of teaching and learning languages, but for various reasons, especially relating to authenticity, has been insufficient in realizing the high level of authenticity of purpose which can be achieved through CLIL (p. 5).

CLIL can be perceived as more authentic due to naturalistic conditions encompassed within the method, which CLT seems to lack. CLIL learners epitomize

active participants in the classroom setting and approaches such as Task-Based Learning (TBL) are fully taken advantage of. Coyle (2006) reports that “the CLIL environment demands a level of talking and interaction that is different to that of the traditional language classroom” (p. 11), while Lasagabaster and Sierra (2010) claim “the communicative approach is fundamental to all immersion programmes” (as cited in Bruton, 2013, p. 590). This seems to indicate that communication in CLIL is necessary and should not only be looked upon as an advantage within its methodological structure.

#### **2.2.2.4. Cognition and culture**

To further emphasize the crucial role of communication in CLIL, Coyle et al. (2010) acknowledge two supplementary essential features which accompany content and communication in order to delineate the term and define it as “planned pedagogic integration of contextualized content, cognition, communication and culture into teaching” (Coyle et al., 2010, p. 6). Both cognition and culture will be elaborated on in subsequent sections of this chapter (cf. heading 2.2.6). To accommodate us with up-to-date information on this matter, Piquer Vives and Lorenzo Galés (2015) interview Coyle and report on the scholar’s current mind-set. It transpires that the 4Cs framework (content, cognition, communication and culture) devised by Coyle is still a well-established model around the world and exists as a “wake-up call and a reminder not to focus only on language, or only on content” (p. 90). With reference to cognition and culture, the former is put forward to represent the negotiation of meaning, whereas the latter has recently emerged to advocate not only societal cultures but also learning cultures such as “literacies and collaborative problem solving” (p. 90).

### **2.2.2.5. Vehicular language learning**

CLIL administers language as a vehicle to teach content. Even though various vehicular languages exist regarding content and language learning, English comes across as the most popular. Marsh (2006) documents that “because of the need to have a shared linguistic medium, English has assured its place as the language of communication within the new linguistic global order” (p. 29). The dominance of English as a vehicular language on the CLIL scene has led to a plea for CEIL (Content and English Integrated Learning), only emphasizing the extent to which it is the preferred language in a global context (Dalton Puffer, 2011, as cited in Hüttner & Smit, 2014).

To conclude this section pertaining to the objective of defining CLIL, the following comprehensive definition provided by Marsh (2002, p. 58), as cited in Coyle (2006, p. 2), proves indispensable.

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

### **2.2.3. CLIL vs. immersion**

In recent years a debate has materialized with reference to CLIL’s relationship with immersion. Many scholars have questioned how steadfast the link actually is between the two concepts. We have already attested that CLIL emerged, to a certain extent, as a descendent of immersion within a European framework. In consequence, authors have articulated that “[...] CLIL is European in the sense that it has been

energized by European language policy and ideology and has in turn energized implementation of these policies at local or regional levels” (Dalton-Puffer, Llinares, Lorenzo & Nikula, 2013, p. 214). The differences and similarities that have been pondered over and have, at times, resulted in dispute will now be examined.

The point of contention commenced with the disorientation caused by CLIL’s various interpretations. Lasagabaster and Sierra (2009) underscore that CLIL portrayed as an “umbrella term” (Marsh, 2002) provokes confusion and causes the distinct definition of CLIL as opposed to immersion to be all the more nebulous. Cenoz, Genesee and Gorter (2013) substantiate this claim by stating that an analysis of CLIL and immersion’s parallel and divergent aspects have resulted in a “call for a clearer and more fine-tuned definition of CLIL that is pedagogically useful” (p.2). These researchers discredit the term highlighting that “such a flexible definition makes CLIL very broad, but arguably overly inclusive and at the expense of precision” (p. 3). This has been corroborated by Alejo and Piquer (2010), as cited in Cenoz et al. (2013), who disclose that it is difficult “to pin down the exact limits of the reality that this term refers to” (p.220).

On the grounds that CLIL exists as such a general term, the associated practical and theoretical benefits attached to the methodology can be obscured (Cenoz et al., 2013). Lasagabaster and Sierra (2009) are discouraged by a CLIL definition outlining the languages through which it is feasible to teach content. They argue that the difference between teaching in a local or foreign language brings about diverse effects on objectives and outcomes related to language, “which is why a clear-cut distinction is needed” (p. 369). Canvassing the outlook regarding CLIL as a

definition, we can sense a solution is evidently vital. The explained dilemma leads Cenoz et al. (2013) to conclude that the situation “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. 5). On closer inspection of the features of both CLIL and immersion, we are able to detect common and contrasting elements, which will now be, presented elucidating how they can be distinguished.

Gallardo del Puerto, Gómez Lacabex and García Lecumberri (2009) claim that immersion programmes “bear little resemblance to the study of English through CLIL programmes in Europe, particularly in terms of the sociolinguistic context in which the L2 is learned and the authenticity of the input” (p.65). The prevailing differences of the contenders in question centre on language used and level involved, balance of content and language, teachers’ status, age of entry, materials employed, language goals, selectivity and research carried out (Cenoz et al., 2013; Dalton-Puffer et al., 2013; Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2009; Paran, 2015; Somers & Surmont, 2012).

Lasagabaster and Sierra (2009) associate CLIL to the learning of content through a foreign language as opposed to the local, regional or minority language inherent in immersion programmes. Cenoz et al. (2013), at first glance, agree with this affirmation, but proceed to draw attention to the CLIL definition from Eurydice (2006).

The acronym CLIL is used as 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).

This clear contradiction is validated by Somers and Surmont (2012), who give examples of CLIL adopting second, heritage or community languages as the medium of instruction and immersion programmes of French existing in English language contexts providing minimum contact with French out of school. This evidence highlights that a language of any status can be applied in both CLIL and immersion.

An on-going debate relative to the primary focus of both bilingual education methods is evident. Cenoz et al. (2013) recount the history and diverse opinions of this embroilment and we are left with the impression that while CLIL is content-driven in the eyes of its advocates, the main focus in immersion techniques is language. Academics involved in immersion hit back to proclaim immersion is, in fact, content-driven in conjunction with CLIL. The CLIL promoters assign their views to the fact that research on the topic of immersion essentially reports findings to be connected to the effects on language, which was challenged by the aforementioned individuals with a long-tradition in immersion declaring dearth of research on the CLIL front as regards content (Coyle et al. 2010; Genesee, 2004; Marsh, 2002; Met, 1998. as cited in Cenoz et al., 2013).

A contrasting perspective was then brought to attention implying CLIL deserves to be commended on the subject of successful integration of content and language intrinsic to the approach. It is recognized that this is an aspect that needs to be improved upon in immersion; however, no substantial evidence exists to prove CLIL is the more triumphantly balanced methodology (Genesee and Lindholm-Leary, 2013; Lyster, 2007; Swain, 1996 as cited in Cenoz et al., 2013).

To define CLIL in terms of the language-driven vs. content-driven continuum, Paran (2015) proposes a weak CLIL and strong CLIL model. Objectives of the former are language-orientated with a focal point of content, whereas the latter operates with content objectives with a spotlight on language. Neither concept is novel in a general respect, but we have been a witness to countries deciding to undertake teaching in a language other than the traditional L1, ascertaining practice in education is undergoing a transformation.

Whatever the target may be in terms of language and content, Lorenzo et al. (2010) propound “in CLIL scenarios, however, 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), further substantiating the urgency to effectively combine the two elements.

Teachers of immersion are generally considered to be native speakers, contrary to the predominance of linguistically trained non-natives associated to CLIL. However, it comes to light that the reason for this is that the former is widely available in certain locations rather than a matter of preference. It is also brought into view that native teachers are not necessarily the optimum teachers, as success lies with the background and professional training of the individual (Somers & Surmont, 2012).

An additional issue in the limelight is the age of entry of the students into the corresponding programmes. Cenoz et al. (2013) and Lasagabaster and Sierra (2009) correlate immersion to early entry points and pinpoint CLIL as a programme in which students start later. This claim is questioned by Dalton-Puffer et al. (2013) and

Somers and Surmont (2012), with the affirmation that CLIL is implemented in primary schools all over Europe, with Spain being a prime example. This is further endorsed by an autonomous region in Spain, central to the present study, as CLIL has been adopted by 734 primary schools in contrast to 423 schools of secondary education in Andalusia.

It is supposed that immersion set out to integrate foreign language learners with native speakers in bilingual regions at the outset of the initiative, which went hand in hand with a desirable native proficiency. CLIL, on the other hand, initially originated to invigorate language-learning techniques in Europe to boost morale on the multilingual front, therefore comprising a wider range of goals within the spheres of job aspirations, travel and friendship with aims of lower competence levels in comparison to immersion (Cenoz et al., 2013; Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2009). Cenoz et al. (2013) underpin this interpretation as “difficult to substantiate” (p. 6), since no solid evidence exists to confirm immersion students are likely to be intrinsically motivated to reach the high attainment threshold. They also postulate levels of attainment can be interchanged between learning styles. In some cases, European countries demand high language-learning goals, while certain immersion programmes are complacent achieving functional proficiency as opposed to a native-like aptitude.

Cenoz et al. (2013) address how CLIL relates to immersion in quite a neutral fashion aiming to deliver a less biased representation. On this basis, a twofold vision on the topic of selectivity within both approaches is adopted. The authors submit evidence that CLIL is recurrently perceived as the more egalitarian option. Wolff (2002), as cited in Cenoz et al. (2013), maintains that “CLIL is not an elitist approach

to language learning, it functions in all learning contexts and with all learners” (p. 48). To counteract this opinion, Bruton (2013) throws a spanner in the works alluding to “disguised streaming” (p. 593) in CLIL as a result of higher socio-economic status parents opting to secure a place in the bilingual classroom for their children. Commenting on panorama of immersion, supporters avouch the open to all philosophy manifesting a student body from diverse backgrounds (Caldas & Boudreaux, 1999; Genesee, 2007; Holobow et al., 1991 as cited in Cenoz et al., 2013), although it has been known to be akin to the elite. Cenoz et al. (2013) conclude the open to all/elite tug of war by stating “it would appear that there are no grounds for claiming that CLIL is typically and uniquely less elitist than immersion” (p. 8), contradicting earlier comments to challenge CLIL as non-discriminatory.

To conclude this section, which has clearly mapped out the ongoing discussion of how CLIL and immersion are defined against each other, we can acknowledge that an array of distinguishing features are identified for both programmes, some of which entail complete contrasts and others of which result in total conformity, causing attributes to merge together. It is clear that reflection on these educational practices is far from straightforward.

Lasagabaster and Sierra (2009) assign immersion and CLIL to having remarkable differences giving rise to an apparent need of stalwart research in order to devise objectives specific to each method. Somers and Surmont (2012) criticize these aforementioned authors for not contributing to the clarification of the blurry outlook. They consider that that Lasagabaster and Sierra (2009) fail to highlight the countless variations involved which could be the foundation of a possible convergence. Cenoz

et al. (2013) devise a formula to reach the conclusion that CLIL and CBI (which subsumes all types of immersion), described as umbrella terms, are synonyms and CLIL could be interpreted as “an adapted version of a kind of partial immersion program” (p. 12). In a similar vein, Dalton-Puffer et al. (2013) consider CLIL and immersion as lexical variants. They agree solutions need to be found to clarify CLIL as a definition but defend CLIL as a European language policy that is “highly variable” (p. 215) in such a way it is impossible to be described in terms of CBI. Cenoz (2015) illustrates the CLIL and CBI comparison from an alternative perspective, stating that “[...] there are no differences between CBI and CLIL regarding their essential properties. There are accidental differences between programmes that are linked to specific educational contexts where the programmes take place but they are not unique for CBI or CLIL” (p. 21-22), emphasizing the distinction between the two as contextual and not defining (Paran, 2013).

Referring to Canadian immersion programmes Pérez Cañado (2012) postulates “the effects of these programs have been vastly, rigorously, and systematically researched” (p. 3), emphasizing the more pessimistic reality that “claims on behalf of the success of CLIL are all too often made without substantial empirical evidence” (Coyle 2007a; Wolff, 2007b; Bruton, 2011, as cited in Cenoz et al., 2013, p. 14). Dalton-Puffer et al. (2013) retaliate in light of accusations that immersion research is not accounted for in CLIL investigations and stress that it has been acknowledged. Two new research foci are foregrounded in line with the role of integration (cf. heading 2.2.2.1) and of the classroom environment, whilst a plea is made for research collaboration within the field. Final comments on this controversial issue can be encapsulated within the following declaration:

As true lovers of diversity in language and all human labours, we acknowledge differences but also feel the need of an overarching concept. For us, ‘additive bilingual programmes’ already in use in taxonomies is good enough, but if, as Cenoz et al. suggest, CLIL is a better name, we can only extend an invitation, which we will do in this postmodernist times of ours with the pop lyrics that entitle this paper: *You can stand under my umbrella.*’ (Dalton-Puffer et al., 2013, p. 217)

To provide enlightenment on the differing aspects of CLIL and the many contexts in which it is carried out alongside its pivotal participants, methodological and evaluative bearings and the principal goals involved, a section pertaining to traits can be located in heading 2.2.5. Prior to the delineated picture of CLIL, we now turn to a provision of explanations as to why CLIL appeared on the European scene.

#### **2.2.4. Rationale**

The first initiative to improve foreign language learning in Europe took place in 1978, with the promotion of teaching through a medium of more than one language. In a bid to boost efforts in the sphere of language education and, sequentially, enhance levels of proficiency, the foundations of CLIL were laid (Coyle et al., 2010).

Coyle et al. (2010) distinguish the drive behind this endorsement with four proactive sources, involving families’ wishes for their children to defend themselves in at least one foreign language, governments’ anticipation for socio-economic gains, the European Commission’s desire of integration and economic power and, lastly, a prospective advantage of the blending of language and content.

In the mid 1980's, inadequate foreign language methodologies and weaknesses in foreign language teaching and learning became evident (Wolff, 2005). This scholar describes how a plea was made for an effective solution to overcome the shortcomings with reference to motivation, enthusiasm and interest in traditional foreign language teaching and content teaching.

Muñoz (2007) substantiates the aforesaid lacuna by ascertaining the scanty quality input implied in traditional language teaching, which has been described by Lasagabaster (2010) as “[...] too often inauthentic, functionally restricted and therefore lacking a real communicative function” (p. 13), which, most probably, results in negative effects on motivation. Järvinen (2006) additionally points out the dearth of focus on form in connection with immersion as its focal flaw. “Europe have consistently evinced that the resources and efforts invested in language learning have failed to deliver the goods, rendering FL education unresponsive to idealised competence standards” (Pérez Cañado, 2013, p. 13).

This combination of deficits has led to the emergence of CLIL as an alternative promoting communication and a processing of form (Muñoz, 2007). Wolff (2005) maps out the aim of CLIL as a method which is, undeniably, content-orientated, but which also pays attention to language whenever the need arises. Pérez Cañado (2013) adds that CLIL arrived on the European scene to “[...] satisfy a thirst of a post-modern multilingual world whose key words are *fusion* and *flexibility*” (p. 12).

Given that foreign languages are merged within other subjects, a naturalistic environment is created to which learners acclimatize well. They do not look upon

foreign language learning as such a dubious task, and their levels of motivation expand due to the setting. Marsh (2000) claims that “it is this naturalness which appears to be one of the major platforms for CLIL’s importance and success in relation to both languages and other subject learning” (p. 5, as cited in Coyle et al., 2010, p. 12).

Lorenzo (2007) proposes the motives behind the upsurge of CLIL are a result of three key elements encased in European language learning philosophy. The first facet addresses Europe’s aspiration for every individual to possess the ability to communicate in two foreign languages other than their mother tongue. This sets the second constituent in motion, which is to promote intercultural competence among citizens to encourage mobility within member countries. The third and more general factor concerns an overall improvement in language learning to be able to reap the benefits.

To accomplish the goals behind these three pillars, numerous educational approaches to foster language learning have been assumed throughout recent decades. Madrid and Hughes (2011) mention that “in order to meet new demands for plurilingual competence and to foster bilingualism or plurilingual education among citizens, almost every country in the world has adopted a multitude of initiatives [...]” (p. 11). It is manifest that in the European scope such an initiative is CLIL, a methodology, which “has been embraced as a lever for change and success in language learning and as the potential lynchpin to counter Europe’s deficient language standards” (Pérez Cañado & Ráez Padilla, 2015, p. 1).

### **2.2.5. Traits**

Having expounded on the swift progression of CLIL, the terms under which it can be defined and the motivation behind its appearance, we are ready to attempt to assemble CLIL's scores of attributes under a clear-cut categorization amongst which context, role of language, role of the teacher, role of the learner, methodology and evaluation, and goals, are all expounded on.

To allude to some initial remarks on CLIL features prior to the presentation of mentioned groupings may prove useful so as to facilitate a broad understanding of how CLIL functions in the European context. Bearing this in mind, Pérez Cañado (2012) accentuates that "CLIL implementation in Europe is highly variegated" (p. 5). This assertion coincides with declarations that CLIL entails a multitude of models throughout many countries catering for learners' diverse situations. Coyle et al. (2010) note that "one size doesn't fit all" (p. 14), while Coyle (2011) defends the idea that "CLIL is rooted in the local context, no one model is the right one".

Various scholars have set forth proposals of circumstance-sensitive models, which would only promote positive potential in a well-defined framework (Coyle, 2006; Hood, 2005 as cited in Coyle, 2006; Vazquez, 2007). Hüttner and Smit (2014, p. 164) document this "context-sensitive stance" on CLIL and Cenoz (2009) also maintains that "bilingual education is very diverse and the sociolinguistic context where each bilingual school is located also has specific characteristics" (p. 25). Context specifics are subsequently elaborated on.

#### **2.2.5.1. Context**

Wolff (2005) determines that "CLIL as an educational concept is not homogenous; a rather large number of different variants can be distinguished" (p. 11).

Encapsulating copious literature sources, the educational context in which CLIL can be operationalized is defined in terms of 10 different variables.

- ***Interpretation of content and language.*** Järvinen (2006) points out that along the content and language continuum varying focuses are selected, whereas Coyle et al. (2010) indicate the extent to which content and language are integrated constitutes a decision which is made by each individual educational institution (cf. heading 2.2.2.1).
- ***Content-subjects.*** Another factor which is highly inconsistent depending on the learning community affects the available curriculum subjects which can be taught in the vehicular language. Wolff (2005) believes subjects related to humanities are more adequate given the fact they encourage intercultural skills. However, an ample range of subjects can be chosen in CLIL teaching.
- ***Linguistic situation.*** The language used as the medium of content teaching is guided by a certain society. Pérez Cañado (2012) points to this reality in perceiving foreign, regional or minority languages as options to teach content. Coyle et al. (2010) stress that even though CLIL is vastly correlated with English, within Europe there are numerous alternatives. Madrid and Hughes (2011) add to this debate insinuating that the status of the L2 diversely affects CLIL outcomes regarding whether it is within reach of the learners in the social culture or if there is restricted contact.
- ***Educational level.*** Described by Wolff (2005) as a typological variant, this aspect refers to the stages of education such as primary, secondary and tertiary.

- ***Exposure to target language.*** According to Coyle et al. (2010), instruction in the foreign language consists of partial and extensive instruction. Concerning partial, less than 5% of the curriculum is taught in the target language, contrasting with 50% or more in extensive instruction. This can be interpreted as a guideline only, as many institutions devise their own percentages. It is, nevertheless, apparent that disregarding the designated percentage, exposure to the target language is greater (Pérez Cañado, 2012). Paran (2013) addresses the fact that extramural exposure outside the classroom must be considered when interpreting research outcomes, as the language employed through CLIL may have varying degrees of exposure in different European countries.
- ***Learner situation.*** Bilingual education in general, therefore encompassing CLIL, is commonly considered an educational custom intended for the elite. Such claims are currently outdated as a result of CLIL becoming widely accessible for all kinds of students (Coyle et al., 2010) (cf. headings 2.2.3 and 2.2.7).
- ***Teacher availability.*** This characteristic, for the most part, pivots on prospective teachers' proficiency levels. Coyle et al. (2010) allocate potential teacher data as the basis of CLIL model design (cf. heading 2.2.5.3).
- ***Information and communication technology (ICT) availability.*** CLIL incorporates various novel teaching strategies into its complex methodology and the majority of these techniques require the assistance of technology. Therefore, it is evident why this factor is deemed pertinent.

- **Assessment processes.** Evaluation needs to be addressed in terms of formative versus summative and, more importantly, the content versus language issue. Prior agreement between educators is fundamental, as this contributes to shaping model proposals (cf. heading 2.2.5.5).
- **Government situation.** For CLIL to succeed, there must be identical objectives envisaged by both top-down and bottom-up initiatives (Coyle et al., 2010; Lorenzo, 2007). Admission criteria and to what degree the community is decentralized, allowing superior control of concerns, are further matters which need to be taken into account (Pérez Cañado, 2012).

#### **2.2.5.2. Role of language**

It is evident that language plays a crucial role in CLIL. Language constitutes an indispensable element and the manner in which it is employed determines successful implementation. In spite of this acknowledged affirmation, it is a common misconception by stakeholders and onlookers to interpret language within the CLIL approach as the predominant component. Coyle et al. (2010) clarify that this is not the case with their avowal that there is no preferential treatment of language over content. Deller (2005) indicates that “in the CLIL classroom, the language really is a tool, rather than an end in itself” (p. 29).

As previously mentioned, stemming from weaknesses in immersion models, CLIL methodology proposes significant attention on form (Järvinen, 2006; Muñoz, 2007; Wolff, 2005). Järvinen (2006) emphasizes a necessity of negotiation of meaning and form activities providing vital explicit language teaching alongside language integrating tasks and focused feedback. Muñoz (2007) supports this vision

of furnishing the learner with valuable correction of errors and promoting CLIL as a partnership of communication with form. She highlights that, “[...] although the integration of a focus of form is not a defining characteristic of CLIL teaching, it is viewed as a highly desirable characteristic of all communicative lessons, including CLIL” (p. 23). Success, it is claimed, is not achieved if a purely meaning-focused approach is followed (Wolff, 2005).

The function of the mother tongue (L1) in second language (L2) acquisition is also contemplated as critical for literacy transfer and linguistic interdependence. Madrid and Hughes (2011) describe the underlying theory of these concepts by attesting that “[...] competence in L2 depends, in part, on the level of competence already acquired in the mother tongue; the higher the level of development in the L1 the easier it will be to develop the L2” (p. 25). In a similar vein, Deller (2005) underscores that if there are considerable deficiencies in the L1, the L2 level and cognitive progress will be restricted. Use of the L1 actually aids the comprehensive input hypothesis, as input is only meaningful if it is comprehensible. A negative attitude towards the employment of the L1 in bilingual education classrooms derived from immersion programmes, whereas CLIL has developed a more flexible approach in this respect. A study carried out by Gierlinger (2015) “revealed a clear potential of code switching as a pedagogical and learning support tool” (p. 17). Considering code switching was once viewed from a sceptical standpoint, it can now be confirmed that it acts as scaffolding in CLIL lessons and assists in the learning of new content. Gierlinger (2015) adds that the L1 provides “an affective and cognitive benefit for the communication and learning processes in CLIL” (p. 17).

In addition to the L1, great importance is accorded to Cummins' theories of Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS) and Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP). BICS embodies skills necessary for everyday, social situations, whereas CALP comprises language of a formal or more academic status. As Madrid and Hughes (2011) claim, "[...] in order for bilingual learning to be effective, students would ideally have appropriate levels in both areas" (p. 22). Pavón Vázquez and Ellison (2013) stress "the ability to use language for communicative purposes and the capacity to use the academic language of content matter should be treated in parallel, and content teachers, for example, should develop the correct strategies to make students apply them appropriately" (p. 72). As CLIL flourishes and research evolves, we are faced with novel and, in some cases, contrasting viewpoints. From a pluriliteracies perspective, BICS and CALPS are no longer highlighted as separate entities. Meyer et al. (2015) stress the concepts no longer need to be distinguished, as it is situation and function which define language, hence their absence in their corresponding model to promote integration.

Supplementary aspects worthy of mentioning in the domain of language within CLIL correlate to vocabulary and discourse. Heras and Lasagabaster (2015) identify that in a CLIL environment "there are more opportunities to learn vocabulary because it is used in contexts for real communication and, as a result, learning takes place in a more meaningful way" (p. 75). It has been pinpointed that, when dealing with terminology in a CLIL setting, it is advisable to begin with more general lexis leading towards expressions of a more specific nature; Pérez Cañado (2013) proclaims "dual focused education thus appears to provide opportunities to study content through different perspectives, accessing subject-specific terminology in the

target language” (p. 17). Discourse skills generally pursue a similar pattern, from general to functional (Wolff, 2005). As a final point in this section, representing an imperative characteristic of language function in CLIL, it is necessary to emphasize that frequent language use should be encouraged whenever possible (Madrid & Hughes, 2010; Wolff, 2005).

### **2.2.5.3. Role of the teacher**

“All teachers take responsibility for nurturing its development in the classroom. This is because successful learning depends on the amount, quality and richness of the input” (Marsh, 2006, p. 33). This quote documents the pivotal role of the teacher within the CLIL classroom. The linguistic behaviour of a CLIL teacher, if constructive, is capable of activating students’ progression of thought. The way in which questions are posed and feedback is given, negatively or positively, affects a student’s overall development (Muñoz, 2007).

Knowledge of bilingual education, CLIL practice, second language acquisition, cognitive learning and students’ characteristics impinge on the productivity of teaching in general (Deller, 2005; Navés, 2009). The incorporation of all the afore-mentioned aspects in conjunction with continuous upgrading of the foreign language employed as the vehicular language determines the undisputable and fundamental role of teacher training to maintain and improve teacher quality. Severe lacunae in CLIL teacher training have transpired in recent studies (Cabezas Cabello, 2010; Madrid Manrique & Madrid Fernández, 2014; Navés, 2009; Pavón Vázquez & Ellison, 2013; Pérez Cañado, 2012, 2014; Rubio Mostacero, 2009; Sánchez Torres, 2014; Tobin & Abello-Contesse, 2013) (cf. heading 2.2.7).

The apparent deficit of teacher training has a landslide effect on teachers' efficiency. Pressure on the CLIL teacher to be entirely confident teaching in a foreign language, accompanied by the prerequisite of possessing up-to-date teaching techniques whilst adapting to the implementation of novel ICTs, can take its toll, giving rise to a confidence crisis (Deller, 2005), leading us to believe "the key to any future vision for bilingual education is teacher development" (Pérez Cañado & Ráez Padilla, 2015, p. 7). Pavón Vázquez and Ellison (2013) give prominence to prior training due to the fact that "CLIL is demanding for teachers in terms of adjusting practice and developing competences" (p. 69). In order for such training to become available to professionals, first and foremost, it is necessary to decipher specific needs in practical terms on the basis of the competences required for integrating language and content within a single lesson (Brüning & Purman, 2014).

Navés (2009) calculates that in order to accomplish complete bilingual progression, a minimum of seven years of continuous enrolment in a bilingual programme is required. Lack of teacher stability in particular contexts may impede bilingual evolution. With a view to prevailing over negative occurrences within CLIL, collaboration among all stakeholders is a must. As Muñoz (2007) claims,

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

According to Pavón Vázquez and Ellison (2013), it is not necessary for the teacher to develop a "native-like competence" (p.70); nonetheless, they "should acquire a sound knowledge of how the language works", which is achievable through

teamwork of the teaching figures involved in CLIL. It is especially important “that both content teacher and foreign language teacher work together towards the common objective – content and language integrated learning” (p. 76).

To supplement the CLIL teacher who teaches content through the medium of the FL and the FL teacher who focuses on specific language aspects and the four skills of speaking, listening, reading and writing, certain educational authorities have introduced the figure of the Teaching Assistant (TA). Tobin and Abello-Contesse (2013) describe these educators from a Spanish context as “educated native speakers – or proficient users of the target language – who come to Spain for an academic year to work with the regular teachers in *bilingual-track* classes” (p. 207).

#### **2.2.5.4. Role of the learner**

Equal consideration to the learner within the CLIL environment is essential given that the learner has a central role in this approach. They now have to assume an active and participative role within the classroom. Coyle (2006) reports that “CLIL learners need to discuss, debate, justify and explain using more complex language and different sorts of language than would be practiced in the regular foreign language lessons” (p. 10).

Learners may encounter frequent difficulties in their CLIL experience, offset by limited understanding of the FL in the development of classroom tasks, which may sequentially incite an ephemeral hindrance in their linguistic development (Deller, 2005). In contrast, Coyle (2006) restores confidence regarding this setback in affirming that learners are not expected to attain bilingual status and expresses that CLIL represents “[...] a more holistic educational experience for the learner [...]” (p.

1). This focus draws a parallel vis-à-vis motivation, whose positive consequences will be disclosed in a subsequent section (cf. heading 2.2.6).

#### **2.2.5.5. CLIL methodology and evaluation**

To further flesh out the use of a more complex language by the learner within CLIL, Coyle (2006) stresses that CLIL involves sophisticated speech to a higher degree than in an EFL classroom, which is enabled by a “[...] constant and meaningful contextualisation of content in lessons” (p. 11). This existence of meaningful learning is a chief characteristic of CLIL; “the FL is used for real communication purposes, with more efficient learning outcomes ensuing from such authentic embedding” (Pérez Cañado, 2013, p. 17) and “[...] thus seems to create a language environment which is more alluring to students” (Lasagabaster, 2010, p. 15).

Lorenzo (2007) signposts analogous intentions between CLIL and the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR), anchored in increasing communicative competence, incorporating task-based approaches into teaching, concentrating on text production and reception and exploitation of a systematic functional approach, in which meaning is the focal point rather than a system of rules. Pavón Vázquez and Ellison (2013) consider “the change to a new methodology in the language classroom should be labelled, thus, as a shift from a traditional methodology to a more communicative, participative and interactive methodology” (p. 74) and ascertain that “as it is participative, and dialogic [...] it demands self-awareness and self-regulation as it involves conscious thinking about learning processes” (p. 73).

Repetition and summarizing are considered to be fundamental to classroom methodology, assuring student interpretation of content to be learnt (Deller, 2005; Madrid & Hughes, 2011). Coyle (2006) defends CLIL as, under no circumstances, an imitation of previous models and certifies that it does not consist of simply teaching what is known in the FL or teaching what needs to be known but in the FL. Pérez Cañado (2013) documents that CLIL teaching “brings about a modernization of classroom didactics and a diversification of methodologies and form of pedagogical practice” (p. 17).

Materials are key pillars in CLIL methodology. Wolff (2005) voices the need for appropriate materials, whereas Deller (2005) makes it clear that ICTs beget optimistic learning outcomes. Assessment is also an important factor to be taken into account in a CLIL framework. There is a strong case for both the L1 and the L2 to be evaluated; the extent to which each language is valued is entirely dependent upon school procedure (Wolff, 2005).

Madrid and Hughes (2011) make a plea for CLIL to be implemented in the correct manner due to the fact that “ultimately poor CLIL teaching is poor teaching” (Coyle, 2006, p.11). This leads to an emphasis on the execution of precise CLIL methodology (Wolff, 2005).

#### **2.2.5.6. CLIL goals**

The major goals of CLIL will now be briefly summarized. They are closely related to the advantages of CLIL dealt with in the following part of this section (cf. heading 2.2.6).

At the forefront of CLIL, an increase in language competence constitutes a principal aim (Dalton-Puffer, 2007b; Järvinen, 2006), preparing students to enter into the internationalised society that exists today and to be able to excel in terms of job prospects (Eurydice, 2006 as cited in Lasagabaster, 2010). In connection with this is the pursuit of an improvement in oral communication skills (Coyle, 2006; Dalton-Puffer, 2007b). A third objective comes under the term of what Coyle (2006) identifies as *community*. This refers to aspects such as student self-awareness, respect, purpose of learning, learner motivation and personal identity (Coyle, 2006; Dalton-puffer, 2007b; Madrid & Hughes, 2011). These scholars also accentuate the requirement to develop intercultural competence and linguistic tolerance. Another aim worthy of mention involves advances in cognition and encouragement of thinking skills (Coyle, 2006; Madrid & Hughes, 2011). A final note in line with aims encompasses the use of diverse methods and a variety of strategies to develop subject-related knowledge (Dalton-Puffer, 2007b; Madrid & Hughes, 2011).

#### **2.2.6. CLIL assets**

Intrinsically linked to the aforementioned goals of CLIL are the advantages brought about by this teaching method, summarized in the following paragraphs.

Firstly, it is manifest that CLIL prepares our young society for manifold options of future studies and grants them with skills for working life. Marsh (2000) supports this declaration documenting that “CLIL offers are additional means by which to give our youngsters the opportunities to develop their capacity to use language and to reap the benefits in their present and future lives” (p. 10).

The competences which students develop are generated by the fact that CLIL presents a situation in which naturalistic conditions and meaningful learning with real communication take place; therefore, a purpose for language learning exists (Dalton-Puffer, 2007b; Navés, 2009). Marsh (2006) cites “the change of medium of instruction acts as a catalyst for overall educational improvement” (p. 35).

Navés (2009) highlights that CLIL guarantees enhanced exposure to the target language resulting from this focus on negotiation of meaning within a more acquisition-based instruction, which, in turn, stimulates an upgrading of linguistic and communicative competence (Coyle et al., 2010; Dalton-Puffer, 2007b). Language development in general is impinged on from a positive perspective (Wolff, 2005).

In addition to a higher level of overall language fluency, a deeper knowledge of the content subject is also achieved, generating a more sophisticated cognitive ability and mental agility. In addition, awareness, academic competence (CALP), metalinguistic capacity and attitudinal competence are success-prone assets (Coyle, 2006; Coyle et al., 2010; Madrid & Hughes, 2011). As Vázquez (2007) explains, “the contents, the basic principles and the emphasis on cognitive processes implicit in CLIL encourage the recognition of diverse ways of interpreting the world” (p. 100). Marsh (2000) elaborates on this issue by claiming that “[...] being able to frame their thoughts in more than one language can give advantages to a youngster in terms of thinking and studying” (p. 8). Referring to how this is accomplished, CLIL “advances learners’ cognitive development broadening their conceptual mapping resources, and develops a wider range of skills: not only communicative ones, but also problem-

solving, risk-taking, pragmatic and interpersonal abilities” (Pérez Cañado, 2013, p. 17).

In such a learning environment, students witness their growing capacities and therefore become more self-confident and motivated. Coyle (2006) presents us with evidence and claims that “one of the most powerful findings of CLIL groups centres on increased motivation in both learners and teachers” (p. 11). Hüttner and Smit (2014) attribute student motivation to “the complementary nature of CLIL and its diversity” (p. 166). Teachers are given the opportunity to update knowledge and skills, therefore participating in lifelong learning. They are presented with opportunities to enjoy collaborative teaching in which each educator plays a key role and improvements are witnessed in the teaching-learning process. Pavón Vázquez and Ellison (2013) promote CLIL pertaining to the benefits teachers can experience:

Any teacher who becomes directly involved in a CLIL programme should consider it an extension of professional development, for as with any experiment involving new methodologies or techniques in the classroom, the experience inevitably leads to further reflection on beliefs, values and practice which leads to change and professional growth (p. 77).

Motivation can also be boosted by the myriad of teaching methods implicated in CLIL, encouraging autonomous learning, individual learning strategies, cooperative learning and, in addition, task-based learning (Coyle et al., 2010). The notion of integration, learning subject content alongside language can seem more attractive to students as they become aware of the link between the L1 and the L2. CLIL offers them greater challenges and overcoming such obstacles increases their confidence and, in turn, lowers the affective filter (Pérez Cañado, 2013).

Commendable improvement in linguistic ability is accompanied by the flourishing of intercultural knowledge. Learners become more understanding and tolerant towards other cultures and this caters for an expansion in their intercultural communication skills, which tend to develop more competently within CLIL methodology than in a traditional language learning context (Coyle et al., 2010; Madrid & Hughes, 2011; Pérez Cañado, 2013).

All in all, the benefits of the CLIL educational approach can be encapsulated in Lorenzo's words: "CLIL is bilingual education at a time when teaching through one single language is seen as second rate education" (2007, p. 35).

#### **2.2.7. CLIL pitfalls**

It is unmistakable that CLIL fosters many underlying benefits to the stakeholders who take part in the process; on the other hand, akin to all educational programmes, a variety of disadvantages can be distinguished. Mehisto (2008) blames the fact that "CLIL is so complex a task that it can malfunction" (p.108 as cited in Bruton, 2013, p. 588). Pérez Cañado (2012) determines assets to be predominantly allied to students whereas teachers first and foremost, confront pitfalls.

On the student front, regardless of linguistic, cognitive and affective advantages, problems could arise from an adaptation perspective. Students may feel perplexed or even intimidated by the approach, resulting in discouragement in general, curbing learning processes.

The other central contender to be negatively affected is teaching staff. Prospective teachers may not be adequately familiar with CLIL programmes,

provoking misconceptions. There is a possibility of being led to believe that increased exposure to the foreign language can have adverse consequences on the L1 or content subject knowledge. Bruton (2013), a CLIL adversary, gives an insight to this problem quoting Mehisto (2008), who proclaims “common sense seems to say that students studying a second language cannot possibly learn the same amount of content as studying in the first language” (p.588).

A question brought to the fore concerns whether students feel there is a purpose to CLIL learning and view it as more motivating due to the content focus, or whether they would be equally as inspired with engaging activities related to their personal interests. Further uncertainty transpires in the matter of content in that the CLIL subjects available to students depend on teacher availability, provoking inconsistencies in programmes. In addition, it has been suggested that increasing the hours of FL classes with the equivalent time that is dedicated to CLIL subjects could have the same effect or place them in an even better position as regards FL competence (Bruton, 2013).

Predicaments bearing on language development have also been diagnosed. It has been disclosed that subject matter that is too difficult to understand and unlikely to foster communication could handicap rather than assist in improving language competence (Bruton, 2013): “[...] CLIL students will often be struggling, with limited FL, with lexically dense texts, and limited background knowledge of the subject matter [...]” (Bruton, 2014, p.122). This author declares “actual outcomes in terms of both FL and content development are not that convincing in themselves” (2013, p. 595). An argument has ensued on the basis of viewing CLIL as a replacement for FL

learning. In a response to Bruton's article (2013), which lays out the pros and cons of CLIL, albeit from a negative stance, Hüttner and Smit (2014) articulate that "CLIL is typically an additional element of FL instruction and does *not* replace dedicated language classes" (p. 163).

As we have seen in heading 2.2.3, Somers and Surmount question the differences between CLIL and immersion predicating the many similarities. CLIL has, likewise, been referred to as an unmatchable method to promote communication with the integration of TBL principles (cf. heading 2.2.2.3). It is, therefore evident that CLIL has stemmed from various methodological approaches and this fact, on many occasions, is looked upon as detrimental to the practice in itself. Dalton-Puffer (2011) goes as far as to claim that "CLIL classrooms share a great deal more with traditional language classrooms than a partisan look could make one believe and that CLIL cannot therefore be expected to prepare learners for other situational contexts in any direct way" (p. 195, as cited in Bruton, 2013, p. 589-590). On examining these estimations, the innovation and novelty of CLIL appears to be disputable.

Teachers are often misguided in the fact that CLIL entails elitist pedagogy, not apprehending that it comprises a teaching strategy, which adapts to all types of learners. To revisit this controversial issue, which has been touched upon in heading 2.2.3 with reference to a CLIL and immersion comparison, we are aware there are differing opinions on CLIL as regards student profiles.

Lorenzo et al., (2010) maintain that "admission to the bilingual section is open to everyone" (p.422) and that "bilingual sections are, therefore, essentially egalitarian (although the corollaries between social class and parental choice cannot be ignored)"

(p.423, as cited in Bruton 2011, p.529). In spite of mentioning the uncontrollable variables that affect the system, Bruton (2011) makes it clear he does not see eye to eye on this matter by stating that “[...] the CLIL defended on paper [...] is rarely the CLIL in practise” (p. 523). In a later paper, this scholar, clearly in opposition to CLIL, exploits an interpretation of Viebrock (2012) to authenticate his mind-set by revealing “structural selectivity of CLIL appears to have a greater impact on student achievement than CLIL itself has on student achievement” (2013, p. 594). Paran (2013) broaches the possible effects of discriminatory CLIL and expresses “the issue of self-selection is likely to mean higher initial competence as well as higher motivation” (p. 326), all of which can skew test results.

Speculating on the situation, Hüttner and Smit (2014) claim “CLIL in itself is a negligible factor compared to other system-inherent sources of privileging some groups on socio-economic grounds” (p. 161) and point out that “general accusations launched against a highly diversified teaching approach such as CLIL, lack the investigative rigour and applicability that a matter as serious as educational discrimination actually requires” (p.162). Bruton (2014) strikes back, once again, to call this concern in question. He defends his opinion and reveals he believes CLIL to be “disintegrative” (p.125), which contradicts the EU’s aim of CLIL promoting integration between member states. Bruton (2014) draws the feud to a close requesting that “selection in CLIL should not just be recognised, but justified, if only to admit it may be critical to its implementation” (p. 125).

The greater part of complications for teachers comes in the form of training. Apart from possessing specialized knowledge in content, they are under pressure to be

constantly upgrading language competence whilst, simultaneously, striving for educational success by means of providing substantial amounts of meaningful input in the foreign language. The results from a European study carried out by Pérez Cañado (2014) expose the scarcity of training pertaining to the theoretical underpinnings of CLIL and ongoing professional development in particular. Pérez Cañado and Ráez Padilla (2015), referring to what has already been done to rectify the situation, state “the growing body of research in this area has evinced, however, that these actions have been insufficient to prepare practitioners to step up confidently to the CLIL challenge” (p. 7).

An aspect, which is not accounted for in training is the immediate requisite in teacher collaboration. The constant strife for ideals, in some cases, causes frustration and friction between colleagues. In line with such a predicament, Coyle (2006) documents that “since effective CLIL depends on a range of situational and contextual variables, the need for a shared understanding of CLIL pedagogies becomes a priority” (p. 3). Touching on the subject of TA’s, Tobin and Abello-Contesse (2013) signpost that “[...] difficulties in implementing both a new style of teaching that includes both *culture* and *interaction* as major components as well as a *second teacher* into the classroom” (p. 224-225), which ties in with the absence of know-how regarding the implementation of major programme goals.

A further shortcoming involves methodological practices. Further relating to teachers, the innovative and novel advances to which they must be accustomed proves to be a sore point for some practitioners. It is brought to our attention by Pavón Vázquez and Ellison (2013) that “unfortunately, many content teachers are unsure

about the way they should perform in the CLIL/bilingual class because they are not aware of the methodological changes required in these contexts” (p. 70). There is reluctance, to some extent, to jump on the bandwagon regarding use of revolutionized teaching strategies. Järvinen (2006), referring to teachers indicates that “some of them make few alterations to their teaching apart from the change of the language of instruction” (p. 2). Encompassed within methodology, teaching instruments deserve to be mentioned due to a downright deficit in suitable materials. Many educators are left to their own devices to create their own resources with no specific blueprint to follow.

As a reaction to the acknowledgement of the “[...] generalized training needs of all in-service teachers in CLIL settings” (Pérez Cañado, 2014, p. 20), with reference to initial training for CLIL teachers, Madrid Manrique and Madrid Fernández (2014) voice the need for curriculum implementation of bilingual studies in all undergraduate courses in Spanish universities. They identify this proposal, in conjunction with uniquely designed bilingual MA programmes for CLIL teachers and linguistic and methodological upgrade courses provided by official language schools, as the most efficient formula to support CLIL teachers’ induction and progression. We are left with the impression that the authors view adequate training as paramount to the effective practice of bilingual education conducive to overcoming arising obstacles in pursuance of fulfilling students’ needs.

Pertaining to evaluation (cf. heading 2.2.5.5), we have remarked that both the L1 and the FL should be taken into account; the problem lies in the establishment of evaluation instruments and criteria. Coyle et al. (2010) highlight that an accumulation

of inapt decisions may well result in apprehension among those involved, particularly parents.

Bruton (2011) accentuates some dubious research pertaining to CLIL by pointing out that there is consensual lack of initial scores when CLIL and non-CLIL group results are compared in studies (Admiraal, Westhoff & de Bot, 2006; Alonso et al., 2008; Ruiz de Zarobe, 2007; San Isidro, 2010; Villarreal Olaizola & García Mayo, 2009). Other negative conditions exposed are sustained by way of CLIL groups receiving extra English classes (Villarreal Olaizola & García Mayo, 2009) and differing attitudes between groups when it comes to motivation (Hüttner & Rieder Bünemann; 2007, Navés & Victori, 2010).

From a different point of view, Hüttner and Smit (2014) petition that “cross-study evaluations need to remain particularly careful not to disregard the different education specificities the respective CLIL studies are taken from” (p. 163), which leads to the campaigning for “[...] a more genuinely constructive approach that acknowledges the diversity and dynamics integral to CLIL practices” (p.164). Bruton (2015) adds “local, contextual variation cannot be used as an excuse for not clarifying what CLIL is and what it is supposed to do, while defending the implementation of CLIL, with any credibility, responsibility, or accountability” (p. 126). To return to the definition conundrum, it has become apparent that there remains a burning need for clearer CLIL guidelines, which can only be devised on the basis of reliable empirical evidence.

To underline the importance of evidence and to bring the opposing sections of CLIL assets and pitfalls to a close, wise words are provided by Lasagabaster (2008) as

cited in Pérez Cañado (2013) and remind us that “neither optimistic nor alarming viewpoints should be accepted unless they are supported by empirical evidence. Therefore the more research data there is available, the more theoretically sound the decision will be” (p.20), fully validating the present study’s mission.

**CHAPTER 3**  
**RESEARCH IN EUROPE, SPAIN AND ANDALUCIA**



### **3.1 CLIL in Europe**

#### **3.1.1. Introduction**

Having presented a thorough synopsis of when CLIL emerged and how it has evolved, provided an array of definitions under which CLIL can be labelled, supplied evidence of why it has spread within the European scene, reviewed its chief traits and underlined its profuse gains and drawbacks, research outcomes of the main studies carried out within European countries will now be elaborated on.

Lorenzo (2007) states, “[...] as an offshoot of bilingual teaching CLIL brought better language education to the European arena” (p. 29) and “[...] is coming to the fore as the pre-tertiary equivalent of the European Higher Education Area” (Pérez Cañado, 2013, p. 14). Without solid substantiation by means of empirical investigation, these declarations should be construed with caution. Examining an ample selection of wide-ranging studies conducted by chief researchers in the field will provide us with a more reliable representation of CLIL practice within the European backdrop.

Prior to a comprehensive inspection of the significant conclusions drawn from scientific enquiry, and despite having previously proclaimed that CLIL has extended throughout the continent in a swift manner, it is now necessary to underscore the exact current scope of CLIL in Europe. “Multilingualism is seizing schools and the CLIL scheme has grown stronger as a solution” (Lorenzo, 2007, p. 29). This is undeniably accurate if we consider the number of European member states that have, at present, adopted CLIL and implemented a variety of such models into their educational institutions.

The 2006 Eurydice report consolidates widespread CLIL and identifies 30 European countries executing the CLIL approach, either as mainstream or pilot projects. The only six countries of the continent where CLIL is not in full operation are Cyprus, Denmark, Greece, Iceland, Lichtenstein and Portugal.

### **3.1.2. Research**

Data regarding noteworthy studies will now be provided on the European countries in which CLIL provision exists. Countries are clustered pertaining to the degree to which research proves least to most relevant with connection to the endeavour at hand.

The first group of countries includes *The United Kingdom, Sweden and Norway*. The United Kingdom deserves first mention if only to comment on their atypical standpoint concerning languages. Throughout Europe, English is the most extensively exploited language for CLIL implementation and yet, the UK unveils the slackest commitment on the issue. It has been disclosed that “[...] educational policies do little to promote the learning of two or more languages: human capital does not extend to linguistic priorities in these contexts despite warnings of being left behind” (Nuffield Languages Enquiry, 2000, p.14, as cited in Coyle et al., 2010, p.155).

In the face of the present situation, one of the most significant figures on the UK scene is the scholar Do Coyle. Although this academic embodies expertise on CLIL mechanism, she disappoints when research is concerned, providing inconsiderable conclusions (Pérez Cañado, 2012).

Contrary to the preceding comments, Ullmann (1999) recounts his attempts at bringing the UK up to speed by giving a descriptive account of CLIL implementation

in a UK secondary school. He confirms bilingual education is “almost unheard of in the United Kingdom” (p. 103), and if so, it normally exists in the form of modular courses with partial exposure to the target language. Nevertheless, with regard to the CLIL practice he describes in Hockerill State Comprehensive School through the medium of French, resulting from an interview process, students listed increased concentration and a greater knowledge of subject content as motivating factors, even admitting to a preference of tests in the foreign language.

Wiesemes (2009) supports these acclaimed effects of CLIL in his evaluation of the Content and Language Integrated Project (CLIP). After assessment of the initiative, in association with both the National Languages Centre and the University of Nottingham, it emerged that CLIL is a complete success. Despite flaws in research methodology and existing as one in a few isolated cases of CLIL schemes in the UK, the author professes CLIL as positively affecting language teaching, causing no negative repercussions on the L1 and improving students’ skills in relation to thinking, spoken production and learner achievement.

Investigation on CLIL in Sweden and Norway bears little resemblance to the present study due to an inclination towards research at tertiary level (Pérez Cañado, 2012). In both countries the level of comprehension in CLIL university lectures is examined. What was obtained was that the lectures, which were taught through the medium of a foreign language, were substantially more difficult to follow. Observed problems comprised note-taking, classroom interaction, need for compensation strategies, intensified preparation and reviewing and understanding of pronunciation and vocabulary. Proposed solutions included increased attention to curriculum planning and enhancement of teacher lecturing techniques (Airey & Linder 2006; Hellekjaer, 2010, as cited in Pérez Cañado, 2012).

In the Swedish setting, a study performed by Sylvén (2006) correlated extramural exposure in English to self-assessment. She concludes that the extent of contact with English outside the classroom is related to level of self-assessment; however, the impact of this matter on performance is in need of further investigation. The author stresses the importance of making students aware of the positive effects of extra-curricular English exposure on language proficiency and calls for the diffusion of this reality to reach both teachers and parents.

*The Czech Republic, Hungary, Estonia, Poland and Italy* will now be explored. The primary motive for classifying this sub-division of countries collectively relies on the qualitative nature of all studies implied, in line with the complementary part of this present investigation. The Czech Republic and Hungary will be discussed first owing to studies of a more distant connection and the section will finalize with enlightenment on research conducted in Estonia, Poland and Italy, all of which directly correlate to the qualitative section of this research project.

Research in the first two countries can be classified as descriptive. Novotná and Hoffmanová (2007) put forward a purely descriptive account of CLIL as a Czech perspective. The current situation is outlined, the country's particular CLIL objectives are stated, teachers' situation is discussed and curriculum and methodological aspects are expounded on.

Bognár (1999) attempts to underpin CLIL in Hungary exposing satisfying results on the completion of 5-year programmes, in the face of dearth of CLIL training on language. Since the disappearance of Russian as a compulsory FL, German and English have stepped to the fore as leading CLIL mediums, propelling the popularity of this approach to the extent to which extra points are awarded to

CLIL students, allowing 65-100% to enter higher education and with prestigious universities valuing their CLIL experience.

Unfortunately, although a wide network of schools at different education levels presently function in Hungary, CLIL, as a means to learn English, is not at the forefront of government plans since the New Education Act of 2012. It has been reported that strict regulations regarding the functioning of CLIL have been introduced which may have taken their toll on all that bilingual education has already achieved (Brüning & Purrmann, 2014).

To provide an overview of qualitative studies, Estonia, Poland and Italy deserve to be foregrounded based on their assessment of stakeholder perspectives in CLIL programmes, which is exactly what the objectives pertaining to qualitative research in this study set out to examine.

Czura, Papaja and Urbaniak (2009) and Mehisto and Asser (2007), investigators from Poland and researchers from Estonia, respectively, both provide an overview of CLIL practice. Harmonious results derived from questionnaires, interviews and classroom observation involving teachers and students denote CLIL success on almost all counts. Satisfaction and commitment are documented by teachers and students, along with enhanced learning. Defects to address entail heightened parent collaboration, avoidance of unsystematic code switching and a solution to the shortcomings affiliated to curriculum, materials and ICTs.

In Italy, Coonan (2007), Infante (2009) and Infante et al. (2008), as cited in Pérez Cañado (2012), announce findings uniform with the previous authors mentioned. Qualitative methods also in the form of questionnaires and interviews yield outcomes which consider CLIL a dynamic procedure. Cited benefits include

augmented attention, reinforced motivation, improved fluency, better developed thinking skills, incorporation of cooperative techniques and a higher degree of active participation, whereas from a negative viewpoint the increased workload and lack of materials are brought to light. In Italy, CLIL has been thought to have undergone a slow evolution on behalf of the country's decentralized system.

Turning to five countries most in line with this precise venture, *Finland, The Netherlands, Austria, Germany and Switzerland* present commendable studies with a focus similar to that of this investigation. Contrasting greatly to all aforementioned countries, *Finland* and *The Netherlands* have, undoubtedly, made an outstanding contribution and executed a remarkable dissemination of research in the CLIL dimension. These two countries provide us with sound findings in the form of longitudinal, quantitative, qualitative and descriptive research.

Commencing with Finland, Järvinen (2006) maps out Finnish CLIL as an offspring of immersion, which has been popular for many years with English as the main vehicular language. Research in general shows consistency with the findings of Canadian immersion in that L2 skills improve significantly while L1 skills are unaffected. Common pitfalls cover scanty teacher training and a deficit in materials. David Marsh is, without a doubt, the most prevalent scholar functioning in Finland. Although not renowned for his research, he constitutes a major contribution to the European CLIL scene.

Turning to the subject of empirical research, Bergroth (2006), Järvinen (1999) and Merisou-Storm (2006) all make a strong case in favour of CLIL. Järvinen (1999), yet again, proves CLIL strands outperform their traditional language learning counterparts with reference to acquisition of the foreign language. Merisou-Storm

(2006), assessing the effects of CLIL on literacy skills development, concludes that, although attitudes towards reading and writing are not influenced in any way, those students enrolled in the CLIL programme demonstrate a more positive attitude towards FL learning. Södergard (2006) and Romu and Sjöberg-Heino (1999) published results confirming student and parent attitudes towards CLIL as optimistic, correlating to the topic of stakeholder perspectives covered in the qualitative part of this study.

The Netherlands offers ample research in the field of CLIL. It is necessary to allude to a longitudinal study carried out by Admiraal, Westhoff and de Bot (2006). These academics measured FL (English), L1 (Dutch) and subject matter proficiency using a sample of 1,205 students from 5 bilingual schools throughout 4 years of secondary schooling. The results revealed accentuated English language proficiency in the case of the bilingual students, an outcome becoming somewhat of a trend taking into consideration previous studies on CLIL. Enhanced oral proficiency and reading comprehension were observed alongside no effects at all regarding receptive vocabulary knowledge, and furthermore, no negative effects on subject matter. Despite controlling for intervening variables, the authors profess that a series of limitations such as restricted data, ambiguous conclusions and the schools being pioneers in the context, interfered with the outcome. For this reason, they deem the study unworthy of representing a generalization of CLIL for their country.

Subsequent research in the Netherlands considering the effectiveness of CLIL teaching also spawned encouraging results backing CLIL pedagogy. It transpired, after observation and analysis in 3 Dutch CLIL schools, that teachers facilitated input, meaning-focused processing, form-orientated processing, and opportunities for output and strategic language use, branding CLIL teaching effective on the whole. The

investigators (De Graff, Koopman & Westhoff, 2007) declare that their objective was only to detect and describe; their intention was, by no means, to contribute to qualitative or quantitative research.

The central European countries of Germany, Austria and Switzerland are brought to the forefront of this European research compendium due to their direct link to the principal focus of this investigation: effects of CLIL on L2 oral skills in secondary education, with specific relevant studies in this domain being expounded on in a subsequent section of the literature review (c.f. section 3.4). Focusing attention on Germany, Vázquez (2007) points out that, in spite of investment in education representing less than the European average, CLIL plays an important part in the country's compartmentalized system. By 2007 there were 847 bilingual programmes running throughout 16 federal states, some of which dated back to the 1960's. Wolff (2005) allocates CLIL research in Germany to five topics of interest amongst which acquisition of linguistic, subject content and intercultural competence, CLIL subject content methodology and teacher and learner CLIL evaluation come into view. He reports, on the other hand, that investigating CLIL is in the early stages and makes a plea for more empirical research (Wolff, 2002a, as cited in Pérez Cañado, 2012).

In Germany two studies yield instructive results. One of the quantitative study contributions operated by Wode (1999) administered tests which applied various tasks to CLIL treatment and comparison groups. Of the 700 students investigated, those who belonged to the CLIL strand significantly outstripped the non-CLIL peers in terms of target language level and, furthermore, produced as good as or better scores in subject matter development. Such findings were endorsed by Zydatiņ (2007, as cited in Pérez Cañado, 2012) in the light of the results following the examination of 180 students in Berlin, incorporating grammar, lexis, communicative competence and

subject matter literacy assessment. Extensive disparity in overall language competence between CLIL and non-CLIL groups materialized, with the CLIL students coming out on top.

Austrian researchers have embarked on estimable studies with concurring outcomes. Pérez Cañado (2012) acknowledges their merit, yet goes on to reveal procedural flaws such as no homogeneity between treatment and comparison cohorts and scanty statistical distinctions. Congruent with Bognár's (1999) venture, attributable to a concern with university entrance exams, Ackerl (2007), analyses the written competence of 5 CLIL and 5 non-CLIL contenders. Although the former did not exhibit fewer mistakes, they superseded the latter in the complexity of their sentences and a more sophisticated level of vocabulary was visible in the essays produced by the CLIL branch, accommodating promising target language production, thus far a topic of considerable debate in CLIL.

Jexenflicker and Dalton-Puffer (2010), Hüttner and Rieder-Bünemann (2007, 2010) and Seregély (2008), as cited in Pérez Cañado (2012), all accredit Ackerl's standpoint in their appraisal of CLIL. Hüttner and Rieder-Bunemann (2007, 2010) detect a superior command of linguistic cohesion and thematic coherence in CLIL students, while Seregély (2008) finds CLIL boosts students' lexical competence. Moreover, questionnaire conclusions reveal a high degree of satisfaction amongst teaching figures. Finally, Jexenflicker and Dalton-Puffer (2010) dispense further affirmation of the commented outcomes declaring CLIL students outshine their mainstream peers in general language ability and written skills.

In the specific case of Switzerland, studies are primarily exploratory. We are presented with a parallel counteracting comparison upon inspecting studies carried

out by Serra (2007) and Stehler (2006), as cited in Pérez Cañado (2012). Both assigned CLIL and non-CLIL branches and whereas the former, via a longitudinal study, claimed CLIL students outstripped their counterparts with regard to subject content knowledge, the latter located no differences between the experimental and control groups.

Stotz and Meuter (2003) investigated CLIL consequences on listening and speaking skills in English by means of classroom observation and receptive and productive tests in a Swiss primary school. Surveillance of CLIL lessons revealed an embedded use of English by teachers; however, students were not being assigned as many productive opportunities as considered necessary. Test results exposed that the CLIL group outperformed their mainstream peers regarding oral competence, yet implications were uncertain concerning production and interactive skills.

Gassner and Maillat (2006) conduct a similar analysis of spoken proficiency, within a late immersion programme in a high school in Geneva. They sought to analyze three components: pragmatic and discursive competence, pragmatic effect and the teaching environment. In addition to audio and video recordings of classroom interaction, student interviews were set up. Collectively, the outcomes that transpired contradict the conclusions provided by Stotz and Meuter (2003) in that productive competence is favourably affected by CLIL implementation.

Summarizing the canvassing of research hitherto, we can conclude that the majority of studies conducted harbour a positive outlook regarding CLIL. The variegated flaws which the research presents must be accounted for in the interpretation of results. These deficiencies are in need of rectification through the existence of studies with homogenous samples, controlled use of variables and valid

statistical analyses (Pérez Cañado, 2012). There is no doubt that empirical evidence in the form of substantial longitudinal studies is a critical necessity in CLIL investigation, which is exactly what this thesis aims to provide. Coyle et al. (2010) pinpoint an abundance of research topics to arise in the near future and determine that “future research agendas should map the evolving CLIL terrain and respond to rapid societal change, thereby both ‘connecting’ and ‘being connected’ within a range of research communities” (p. 165).

Having contemplated CLIL from a European perspective, the particular situation of Spain will now be scrutinized.

## **3.2. CLIL in Spain**

### **3.2.1. Introduction**

It was recently announced by Phil Ball at the 2012 CLIL conference in Prague that “CLIL is alive and prospering in Spain” (Brüning & Purrmann, 2014, p. 324). Spain can be considered a country of great CLIL diversity on the grounds of prominent bilingual communities within the peninsula. Subject to a decentralized education system, as in the case of Italy, no well-defined guiding principles for the implementation of CLIL have evolved. It has been described as “[...] a mixture of heterogeneous language situations that lead to different ways of understanding and managing L2 education” (Fernández Fontecha, 2009, p. 4, as cited in Pérez Cañado, 2013, p. 391).

We are faced with two extreme situations concerning the language-learning paradigm. On the one hand, the immanence of the communities in which there are two official languages has put Spain on the map due to the positive functioning of

their bilingual programmes in the last 20 years, further rendering stalwart research, which is regarded as of valuable essence in the sphere of CLIL investigation. On the other hand, there are the unbefitting monolingual communities of Spain, which are renowned for their backward attitudes to language acquisition.

Spanish students in monolingual communities have the earliest starting age in Europe when it comes to learning foreign languages. This, however, has never achieved the desired results. Only after discovering, through extensive research, that learning languages from an early age only fosters positive language acquisition if carried out in a natural learning context did governments begin to realize they needed to pursue the bilingual communities' established approaches (Muñoz, 2006; Navés, 2006 as cited in Navés and Victori, 2010).

Taking this fact into account and in the wake of worrying outcomes of Spaniards' language competence in Eurobarometers, Spanish autonomous communities began to shape their education systems to adapt to the European CLIL scheme and this appeared in the form of AICLE (Aprendizaje Integrado de Contenidos y Lenguas Extranjeras). Navés and Muñoz (1999), as cited in Muñoz (2007), define Spanish CLIL:

A descendent of the Canadian immersion programmes and the North American content-based language teaching programmes, and strongly based on the linguistic necessities of the European Union [...] this orientation is extensively known by the English acronym CLIL, which was translated in Spain as AICLE (Adquisición Integrada de Contenidos y Lengua Extranjera) (pp. 17 & 18).

Lasagabaster and Ruiz de Zarobe (2010, p. 284) stipulate that “drawing an uncomplicated, homogenous picture of CLIL policy in Spain is an impossibility”. Perhaps the only existing common characteristics between monolingual communities

are that English is usually first choice as the vehicular language and that non-elitist CLIL has grown in popularity throughout regions (Pérez Cañado, 2012). Remaining features, including the extent to which the FL is used in the classroom, the subject matter chosen to be delivered in the FL and the FL level of the CLIL teacher, depend entirely upon autonomous initiatives and even on individual school policies.

The prevailing bilingual communities in Spain comprise *The Basque Autonomous Community (BAC)*, *Catalonia*, *Valencia*, *The Balearic Islands* and *Galicia*, whereas the autonomous community of *Madrid*, *Extremadura*, *Castilla La Mancha*, *La Rioja* and the autonomous community of *Andalusia* are the predominant monolingual communities which have adopted a CLIL approach. A selection of these regions will subsequently be presented adverting to their research backgrounds, the bilingual communities occupying preliminary focus prior to the monolingual ones.

### **3.2.2. Bilingual community research**

#### **3.2.2.1. BAC**

This autonomous community under inspection certainly stands due to the robust research studies carried out on the region's immersion programmes in a Spanish/Basque paradigm. Only recently has there been an interest in CLIL in a third language and its effects on a society already exposed to bilingualism.

Basque competence was considered an objective at the end of Compulsory Secondary Education (CSE) after the passing of the 'Basic Law for the Normalisation of the Use of Basque' in 1982. In a bid to broaden language-learning horizons, English has been adopted as a medium for content teaching in some schools in the past few years, resulting in the implementation of a *Plurilingual Experience* in 12

schools in 2003. 7 hours of CLIL teaching are incorporated into the established Spanish/Basque curriculum. The project's principal goal is achieving communicative competence in the FL in a bilingual context.

In spite of difficulty in monitoring the existing CLIL endeavours due to their diverse nature, a substantial number of studies have been conducted on various aspects of FL competence, Spanish/Basque competence, content learning and language attitudes (Jiménez Catalan & Ruiz de Zarobe, 2009; Ruiz de Zarobe & Lasagabaster, 2010).

This wide range of research themes brings about mainly positive accounts. Ruiz de Zarobe (2008) and Lasagabaster (2008), as cited in Ruiz de Zarobe and Lasagabaster (2010), report similar results, with CLIL groups outperforming their non-CLIL counterparts with regard to FL competence skills. The former author focuses on oral and written production and describes CLIL as a “more effective approach towards language learning” (p.18), whereas the latter researcher assesses students on their grammar, writing, listening and speaking ability and concludes that “the CLIL approach had a clear impact on all language skills and the grammar test analyzed in this study when students enrolled in the same grade were compared” (p. 19).

Still pertaining to language competence analyses, concerning English pronunciation in particular, significant statistical differences were pinpointed with regard to intelligibility and irritation in oral expression. CLIL students were found to be more intelligible and less irritating than those students participating in traditional English lessons (Gallardo del Puerto et al., 2009).

In line with the previous study, with reference to the same storytelling task, morphology features were examined drawing upon the omission rate of verbal inflectional morphemes in obligatory contexts. Villarreal Olaizola and García Mayo, (2009) claim CLIL peers demonstrate oral production, which is far more target-like, in contrast to their mainstream counterparts (all of these aforementioned studies will be illustrated in more detail in heading 3.4, as they bear a direct relation to the investigation in question).

Significant contributions on contrasting vocabulary aspects yield further predominantly optimistic results provided by a myriad of academics. Focusing on receptive vocabulary, Jiménez Catalán and Ruiz de Zarobe (2009) compare female students from CLIL and non-CLIL branches, in Bilbao and La Rioja respectively, both groups being subject to similar sociolinguistic characteristics. They discovered differences in favour of the CLIL students following the administration of a language test. Two subsequent receptive vocabulary tests also revealed higher scores for the CLIL learners. The authors stress that extramural exposure was not considered in the study. In the light of this limitation, we are led to believe it is possible that CLIL may not be responsible for the positive outcomes. The researchers support this view voicing the need for more studies in this particular area.

The vocabulary panorama is examined from different angles producing heterogeneous conclusions. On the one hand, Agustín Llach (2009), set out to analyse the role of the L1 in written production, detecting types of language transfer in letter and composition writing. On the other hand, Ojeda Alba (2009) carried out a comparison of general vocabulary use. Both studies' samples comprised CLIL students in the BAC and non-CLIL pupils in the monolingual community of la Rioja. The results which emerged from the first study were that non-CLIL learners manifest

a higher number of L1-orientated lexical errors resorting to ‘borrowings’ rather than the ‘coinages’, more frequently identified within the CLIL learners’ tests. In the light of the second studies’ outcomes, we are presented with a blurrier picture. More abstract terms could be found in the compositions of the CLIL learners, implying more developed linguistic skills; however, the non-CLIL students proved to demonstrate a higher lexical richness in some cases. Given this situation, the author underscores a lacuna in inferential statistics, necessary to be overcome.

A final contribution in terms of language competence impinges on syntax in English. Narration of a story is once again employed to measure morphosyntactic aspects, albeit with no statistically significant differences occurring. CLIL students significantly outstripped the corresponding control group only in the use of placeholders. Martínez Adrián and Gutiérrez Mangado (2009) make a strong case for longitudinal studies in this respect, acknowledging necessary research on whether it is the CLIL learning process or simply increased amounts of exposure which cater for success.

Egiguren (2006) and Grisaleña et al. (2009), as cited in Ruiz de Zarobe and Lasagabaster (2010), research CLIL consequences on the Spanish and Basque language in separate studies. Both authors report on commendable findings in which it is declared that CLIL, as a learning approach, in no way hampers the progress of the two official languages present in the curriculum.

Grisaleña et al. (2009), as cited in Ruiz de Zarobe and Lasagabaster (2010), put forth posterior research confirming improvements in CLIL treatment groups’ L3 (English), in comparison to non-CLIL control groups. No negative effects were rendered on content matter. Eleanitz-Ingelesa Taldea (2003), as cited in Ruiz de

Zarobe and Lasagabaster (2010), corroborates these outcomes in a study of the network of private schools *Ikastolen Elkartea*.

To identify any existing correlations between motivation and language achievement in CLIL, Lasagabaster (2010) conducted a study involving 191 students in the BAC. CLIL and EFL (non CLIL) groups were formed to be subject to grammar, listening, speaking and writing tests to confirm or refute the hypotheses. The CLIL group was found to be more enthusiastic than its EFL counterparts and higher motivation amongst students resulted in increased achievement. An interesting outcome pertaining to this study transpired in that no evidence was collected to associate student attitudes to effort in the skills of listening and speaking. The author claims the relationship connecting the two concepts is complex and each specific educational setting is individual, leading him to collaborate with another researcher in a study of a similar nature.

Five years later, Heras and Lasagabaster (2015) delved deeper into affective factors in CLIL teaching and learning to assess attitudes of male and female students and gender differences within CLIL/non-CLIL groups after the application of vocabulary tests. The motive behind this focus was borne out of sparse findings in this domain, resulting in this longitudinal contribution using pre-, post- and delayed-post tests. The investigators reveal that CLIL is held to influence receptive skills to a greater extent compared to production of language. Due to the fact “gender has received a great deal of attention in research into FLL during the last three decades and results seem to suggest that it is a variable which plays a significant role” (p. 76), they consider it should be examined from a CLIL perspective.

A substantial number of students took part from various schools in Navarre to unveil no statistically significant differences between CLIL and non-CLIL cohorts as regards motivation resulting in the first hypothesis not being confirmed. Based on Dörnyei's (2009) L2 motivation self system, it emerged males demonstrate a more extrinsically developed demeanour in CLIL while with females it is inclined to be more intrinsic. This may have been affected by the subject matter in question, as Physical Education (PE) was the content to be evaluated and it is a well-known fact that boys generally view this discipline more positively. No gender differences in the CLIL group in terms of vocabulary acquisition seem to prove that the real communication and meaningful learning inherent in CLIL cause a blurring effect between genders. Further longitudinal studies employing methodological triangulation and integrating oral production tests are called for which this current project effectively takes under advisement.

To conclude this section on the BAC, Lasagabaster's (2009) study, as cited in Ruiz de Zarobe and Lasagabaster (2010), reveals CLIL was conceived to have a positive effect on language attitudes towards trilingualism.

#### **3.2.2.2. Catalonia**

Catalonia represents the other dominant force regarding CLIL within the Spanish dimension. CLIL experts at the Autonomous University of Barcelona had the opportunity to interview Do Coyle after the scholar was invited to present a lecture on the latest CLIL developments in the bilingual region. This renowned figure of bilingual education in the European context conveyed her appraisal in declaring "in general, all the regions of Spain, including Catalonia, have been some of the leaders in developing classroom pedagogies in CLIL settings" (Piquer Vives & Lorenzo

Galés, 2015, p. 91) and stressed the need for English teachers to disseminate their extended knowledge to subject content instructors in order to secure harmonious, successful programmes.

Although landmark research has been pursued to a lesser extent than in the BAC, remarkable researchers such as Navés, Muñoz and Pérez Vidal have contributed to unveiling CLIL implications in this autonomous community. Navés put the first CLIL pioneer projects in motion between 1994 and 1998 in 4 public secondary schools, offset by a successful pilot experience at the end of the 1980's which emerged from Spanish/Catalan immersion programmes similar to those administered in the BAC (Navés & Victori, 2010).

Such a mission propelled CLIL implementation forward, resulting in the creation of resourceful projects under the names of the CLIL innovation project (1999), the Orator Project (1999-2005) and the Experimental Foreign Language Plan (2005-2008). CLIL became part of integrated school projects in order to benefit FL learners' competence. The difficulties which were encountered at this stage involved the almost non-existent teacher training schemes and the unstable circumstances in CLIL regulation. Initiatives on this front have flourished; it is now admissible for practitioners to apply for paid leave grants to assist the development of CLIL materials and to take part in crucial CLIL research. Degrees have even come to the fore offering a range of CLIL components.

Despite the aforementioned advances, research remains scarce. The GRAL research team instigated research on the effects of onset age in FL acquisition. Muñoz, (2006) as cited in Navés and Victori (2010), provided cross-sectional and longitudinal data to prove that starting FL learning at an earlier age yielded no

significant improvements regarding competence levels. Navés (2006), as cited in Navés and Victori (2010), drew the same conclusions, which provoked congruent reactions to further investigate CLIL programmes as an alternative method of instruction.

Complementary GRAL research studies followed, initially comprising exploratory studies, canvassing proficiency gains of CLIL learners. A number of battery tests were applied to CLIL and non-CLIL cohorts in primary and secondary schools. After undergoing statistical analysis, it transpired that CLIL learners superseded the pupils of English as a foreign language respecting general language competence and writing skills in particular. It emerged that CLIL students were some grades ahead as regards proficiency. However, attention is drawn to a shortcoming in the research in that the number of hours of the groups' CLIL instruction was not kept constant (Navés & Victori, 2010).

In a similar vein, investigation into gains in content or language acquisition has scarcely been conducted. Exceptions to this reality have been provided by Codo et al. (2007), as cited in Navés and Victori (2010), who claim that CLIL is no hindrance to content learning. However, the research shows no evidence of the benefits of CLIL. Victori and Vallbono (2008), as cited in Navés and Victori (2010), also publish inconclusive results after comparing CLIL and non-CLIL students' productive and receptive skills in semi-private primary and secondary schools. Their outcomes show CLIL students' advantage in writing skills, although negative results transpire for teacher training and language proficiency, as well as for time and resources. Parallel to this study, but differing in context due to a tertiary level perspective, Feixas et al. (2009), as cited in Navés and Victori (2010), report on teacher and student

perceptions, documenting increased motivation in CLIL settings and lack of student proficiency as a negative CLIL aspect.

Pérez-Vidal and Roquet (2015) contemplate the effects of CLIL on receptive and productive skills declaring inconstant findings concerning primarily productive vocabulary, cohesion and coherence and pronunciation. A devised research plan with the aim of evaluating linguistic progress in CLIL programmes compared to non-CLIL mainstream education in Barcelona tests students on reading, writing, listening and grammar, yielding significant results coinciding with other studies. The specific conclusions will be outlined in a subsequent section (cf. section 3.4) in view of considering relevant research to this endeavour in a collective manner. It is, however, necessary to point out that oral skills were not taken into account in the aforesaid study, emphasizing the justification of the thesis being carried out.

### **3.2.2.3. Valencia and the Balearic Islands**

Peréz-Vidal and Juan-Garau (2010) outline CLIL implementation in the Balearic Islands and the Valencian community in relation to their adoption of Catalan and Valencian as second official languages. Since 2004/2005, *European Sections* have been in expansion within schools in the Balearic Islands. An external technical committee assesses the programmes to determine whether their gains outweigh limitations and priority is also given to teacher training to ensure quality teaching.

Valencian immersion, put into practice by means of *The Linguistic Immersion Programme*, materialized in the 1990s and was geared at primary education students with Spanish as their first language in order for them to attain competence in both languages. *The Basic Programme* introduced Valencian into the curriculum as a compulsory subject of the Spanish-speaking part of the community to foster a

multilingual environment. To broaden the scope of plurilingualism, *The Enriched Bilingual Education Programme* has employed English as a teaching medium for over a decade and exponential growth of schools adhering to the programme has been witnessed throughout this period.

The linguistic benefits of CLIL programmes are investigated by *The SALA-COLE PROJECT*, a conjoint venture between Pompeu Fabra University and the University of the Balearic Islands. The project's research certifies that CLIL improves oral fluency. Pérez-Vidal and Juan-Garau (2010) propound that "CLIL as an innovative force seems to be fulfilling hopes and expectations" (p. 133), although they also chart the need for "top-down foreign language multilingual policies" (p. 132). Apropos of the *COLE* part of the project, prominent studies have been brought to fruition shedding light on an amalgamation of aspects within secondary education.

Not comprehensively consistent with the present objective, although equally worthy of mention, are three separate investigations conducted in the Balearic Islands in line with writing competence, lexico-grammar learning and affective factors, respectively. CLIL and non-CLIL groups were the focal point, the former receiving three hours of EFL instruction, in addition to an extra three hours of content subject through means of the FL, and the latter, three hours of traditional EFL learning exclusively. Writing competence improved over three years, especially in the first two years, revealing statistically significant differences between groups in the three dimensions of complexity, accuracy and fluency, although holistic assessments show there is still room for improvement. CLIL groups outstripped EFL counterparts relating to development in matters of lexis and grammar; however, a step-up in focus on form and classroom observations is required. The conclusions drawn on motivation divulge more positive attitudes and beliefs on the CLIL part, but with the

absence of any statistically significant differences (Gené-Gil, Juan-Garau & Salazar-Noguera, 2015; Juan-Garau, Prieto-Arranz & Salazar-Noguera, 2015; Amengual-Pizarro & Prieto-Arranz, 2015).

Consubstantial research to this study carried out recently in this region provides us with significant accounts on receptive skills, productive competence and willingness to communicate in CLIL. Prieto-Arranz, Rallo Fabra, Calafat-Ripoli and Catrain-González (2015) assess student progress on receptive skills in CLIL and non-CLIL contexts, whereas Rallo Fabra and Jacob (2015) focus on CLIL and its effect on oral skills, with fluency and pronunciation taking centre stage. A comprehensive report on these two contributions can be found in section 3.4 of this investigation owing to their relevance in connection with our objectives.

To complement the aforementioned studies, Menezes and Juan-Garau (2015) throw a spotlight on willingness to communicate (WTC) in CLIL. They claim “the acquisition of a second language depends inevitably on the learner’s willingness to communicate” (p. 221) and CLIL is a main player in fostering abilities encompassed within WTC, such as oral communication and fluency. In order to demonstrate the effects of WTC on language achievement, a study was devised and took place in three semi-private schools in Majorca. 158 students in a CLIL group, with social sciences taught with English as the vehicular language, were tested against a control group of traditional EFL, with results emerging in favour of the CLIL peers. The overall conclusion verified that CLIL does, in fact, encourage WTC, which, in turn, positively affects language attainment. Communicative language use, interactive tasks, collaborative work and low emphasis on explicit corrections all had a place in nurturing the WTC.

#### **3.2.2.4. Galicia**

With a view to developing minority language learning, the official language of Galician is employed in schools with a minimum of 50% instruction. This has resulted in the subsequent fostering of foreign languages in conformity with European educational policy regarding multilingualism. In addition to establishing CLIL initiatives in mainstream education, the Galician Educational Administrative Department is striving to increase motivation towards the learning of additional languages (San Isidro, 2010).

Research in Galicia validates the conclusions of the majority of the studies mapped out in the other parts of this section on CLIL in Spain in sustaining its educational benefits. San Isidro (2010) illustrates CLIL's effectiveness by means of conducting the first endeavour in the region to externally test CLIL students' language competence. His study proves CLIL to be a success with CLIL students outperforming their non-CLIL peers on a global skills test in English, even within this bilingual community, where there is no social presence of the L3 involved.

#### **3.2.3. Monolingual community research**

##### **3.2.3.1. The Autonomous Community of Madrid**

Madrid is an exemplary monolingual community derivable from its vast and expeditious CLIL magnitude. Llinares and Dafouz (2010) identify CLIL as a "recent teaching phenomenon" (p.95). They elaborate on two key projects which have boosted CLIL extension: the *MEC/British Council Project*, doting native Spanish and English instructors, and the *CAM Bilingual Project*, promoting CLIL in 206 primary schools. The former was set up in 1996 and makes use of assessment tools such as

recordings, questionnaires and observation to monitor practice. In spite of no external assessment, it has been revealed that skills and affective aspects have been positively affected. The latter, teaching 30-50% of the curriculum to primary pupils in the L2 (English), has reported an increase in motivation, self-esteem and confidence amongst all stakeholders.

Support is supplied by various research groups functioning within Madrid universities. Those most pivotal to CLIL research are represented, to begin with, by the *UAM-CLIL Project*, run by the Universidad Autónoma de Madrid and led by Llinares and Whittaker. The objectives of the research group consist in identifying good CLIL practice, testing CLIL effectiveness and describing language features of CLIL students.

Another research project carried out at the *UAH*, the Universidad Alcalá de Henares, is pioneered by Halbach. Teacher approaches are preferred research topics in order to detect teachers' opinions and attitudes towards CLIL. The group also focuses on primary education, advert to improving methodology, training and materials.

Finally, the *UCM-CLUE Project* is concerned with the CLIL approach in higher education. At the Universidad Complutense de Madrid, Dafouz engages in needs analyses to promote effective CLIL practices in university settings. A handful of Madrid universities currently offer bilingual degrees to prospective students. Such degrees could prove useful in light of the increased demand for English proficiency in the working environment.

In line with the study being carried out, with reference to the qualitative part, it is crucial to point out that one of the biggest challenges which Madrid and most

other regions face are complications in teacher training for secondary CLIL, regarding their integrated content and language knowledge.

### **3.2.3.2. La Rioja**

In the monolingual community of La Rioja, CLIL efforts are highly estimated, given its fame as a region with a lack of foreign language tradition. It borders with the BAC; on that ground, research is executed conjointly between Jiménez Catalán and Ojeda Alba, members of the Applied Linguistics Group at the University of La Rioja (GLAUR group) and BAC researchers. Fernández Fontecha (2010) makes a plea for empirical research orientated at assessing CLIL implementation in the region with regard to learning outcomes, methodology and teacher training, identifying problem areas and addressing these deficiencies in order for the projects incorporated into public schools to work to their full potential.

The Autonomous Community of Andalusia, although being compounded within this present section as a monolingual community, will be characterized separately in the following part. This is on account of the community deserving attention in its own right, on behalf of this current study's objective to analyze the specific CLIL programme of the region. Background details of the programme will be underscored, with a consequent overview of the CLIL plan in effect, and, finally, research conducted regarding the plan will be outlined.

## **3.3. CLIL in Andalusia**

### **3.3.1. Introduction**

Lasagabaster (2015) acknowledges that “it is a truism to say that the education system has to play a paramount role in helping to pave the way for successful FLL”

(p. 85); in this respect, the regional government of Andalusia is undeniably ahead of the game. This monolingual community of Spain has been put forth as “the clearest example of the introduction for Bilingual Sections [...]” (Madrid & Hughes, 2011, p. 12). The network of 1,157 public bilingual schools (734 primary schools and 423 of Compulsory Secondary Education level) in the region to date enables us to appreciate its swift uptake. An average of 35,000 students sign up to become a part of this audacious plan every academic year, which has resulted in nearly 300,000 students receiving CLIL instruction in Andalusia at present. This autonomous community boasts the most bilingual centres in the country and recent regional government instructions set forth the guidelines to secure its successful advancement. A projection of the inner workings of these professed bilingual sections, the manner in which they have evolved and the landmark research which has embarked upon their assessment will be the focal point of this section. Attention to detail is imperative bearing in mind the study in question aspires to further evaluate aforesaid bilingual sections in the autonomous community currently subject to scrutiny.

Madrid and Hughes (2011) further characterize the situation of Andalusia by noting that “in our case we are dealing with pedagogical bilingualism [...] which is introduced in school curricular in contexts where opportunities for natural communication outside the classroom are significantly less common” (p.13). Regardless of this unfavourable environment, Andalusia has succeeded in transforming an ambitious language policy into a reality, addressing the lack of FL tradition which was embedded in its society. This acclaimed policy is known as the Andalusian Plan for the Promotion of Plurilingualism (APPP), which was approved in March 2005 by the Andalusian government.

The APPP emerged as a response to the average Spaniard's low language competence in an ever-increasing globalised society and was devised in lock-step with European ideals such as the Lisbon Strategy's European educational goal to improve language quality between 2000 and 2010 and the Common European Framework's (CEF) 2001 aim to create a Europe brandishing plurilingual citizens. Other indicators which had an impact on the APPP's implementation in the academic year of 2005/2006 comprise the successful pilot experience of 26 French and German bilingual schools in the region between 1998 and 2004. Support of Official Language schools (OLSs), enthusiasm of teachers, interest in a third foreign language (L3) and the priority of achieving a plurilingual communicative competence within the community also raised the stakes.

This led to the laying down of foundations, which rest upon linguistic and methodological renovation and the promotion of teamwork to engage in the elaboration of an Integrated Language Curriculum (ILC). Five subprogrammes are incorporated into the APPP to cater for the diverse aspects to which the plan procures to attend: *the Bilingual Schools Programme, the Official Language Schools Programme, the Teachers and the Plurilingualism Programme, the Plurilingualism and Society Programme and the Plurilingualism and Cross-culturalism Programme*. These five benchmarks concurrently stipulate a total of 63 actions to be accomplished. This number rises to 74 when methodological, organizational and evaluation elements are considered. At large, the five components harbour to benefit teachers, students and society on the whole, by virtue of two basic principles: improving the Mother Tongue (MT) language skills of the Andalusian population and increasing not only plurilingual, but also pluricultural communicative competence in order to get ahead in an unpredictable European system.

### **3.3.2. APPP objectives**

The multiple objectives of the APPP are presented in the form of the 74 actions previously mentioned, 13 of which function as general goals, which the plan envisages to fulfil in order to represent across-the-board correct functioning. Given their status as a general reference point, the 13 actions are exemplified below. In the conclusion of this section, details concerning the current degree of success in this regard will be provided.

General actions:

- An increase in the number of hours of language study and Official Language Schools
- An expansion of the bilingual schools network
- The bringing forward of L2 learning to Infant Education
- Everyday exposure to the FL
- The elaboration of curricular adaptations to cater for special educational needs
- Increased access to distance learning language programmes
- The promotion of European Programmes
- The encouragement of student and teacher foreign exchanges
- The maintenance of the Language and Youth Programmes
- An increase in the number of summer camps
- The twinning of schools between countries

- The design of the Integrated Language Curriculum (ILC)
- The implementation of the English Language Portfolio (ELP).

Alongside these paramount objectives, the new curricular CLIL model endeavours to adapt to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR), implicating the elaboration of the ILC, which specifies the connection between the L1, L2 and L3 and clarifies how these languages are assimilated in terms of content. Students will also benefit from the use of the ELP in class, serving as a self-management tool to reflect upon their learning and assess their progress. We will now briefly discuss each of the five subprogrammes in turn, contingent on the intricate aims involved.

The *Bilingual Schools Programme* is principally geared at generally stepping up students' L2, L1 and L3. The initiative encompasses actions pertaining to specific teacher training (linguistic and methodological), the appointment of a bilingual project coordinator and a native teaching assistant, the coexistence of an L2 and L3 in the curriculum and an earlier starting age for both languages, the provision of aid for curricular materials and ICT equipment, the setting up of foreign institution partnerships, and the availability of immersion courses and guidance for parents.

The *Official Language Schools Programme* actions include their expansion and reform offering a greater diversity of languages, specialized linguistic upgrade courses for bilingual school teachers, the incorporation of language assistants, distance learning programmes, and an emphasis on research and innovation.

The *Teachers and the Plurilingualism Programme* involves teacher training courses at Teacher Training Centres (TTCs), OLSs and Andalusian universities on

theoretical issues such as ICTs, the CEFR and the ELP, in conjunction with the exchange of good practices, the opportunity to apply for study licenses to take part in immersion courses or carry out research, work exchange programs and the implementation of a new recruitment system.

The *Plurilingual and Society Programme* is orientated to make Andalusian society aware of the importance of FLs, introduce measures to facilitate language learning, organize linguistic and cultural activities for parents, accommodate extra-curricular activities organized by the government in the form of immersion camps and school exchanges, and initiate collaboration with the media.

The final programme, the *Cross-Culturalism Programme*, aims at promoting tolerance and integration of immigrants by creating Linguistic Adaptation Programmes, FL training for teachers who work with immigrants, the proposal of a new language as an FL bearing immigrants' needs in mind, establishing joint educational programmes between Andalusia and immigrant countries and creating a pilot programme for mixed schooling.

Taking into consideration the totality of all actions, we can conclude that the majority have been applied. The target to establish a network of 400 bilingual schools employing CLIL provision between the years 2005 and 2008 and to further expand this development beyond 2008 certainly represented a challenge. Needless to say, the figure of 1,157 public bilingual schools recorded at the beginning of the 2015/2016 school year has superseded expectations. Official Language Schools have also triumphed more than doubling in number between 2004 and 2010. Owing to CLIL methodology, exposure to FLs has increased. During this current academic year of 2015/2016, 9,508 teachers give their classes through CLIL and the Andalusian

government has given 564 teaching assistants from English-speaking countries the opportunity to form an essential part of the bilingual sections. At this point, of chief relevance to the study at hand, the additional components of organization, methodology, evaluation and teaching roles within the *Bilingual Schools Programme* deserve to be foregrounded.

### **3.3.3. APPP organisation**

The decree of July 24<sup>th</sup> 2006 characterized the organizational principles of the plan for CLIL to be implemented in primary and secondary schools throughout Andalusia, and established that 30%-50% of the curriculum (even though this was raised to a minimum of 50% by the order of June 28<sup>th</sup> 2011 and the government deems it desirable to be of a higher percentage if possible) and 2-4 content subjects should be taught in the FL. Language study, thus, presupposes 5-6 hours of possible CLIL teaching, 3-4 hours of the FL, 2-3 hours of the L3 and 3-5 hours of the L1. CLIL subjects range from Mathematics and Sciences to Art and Music.

From its embryonic stage until the beginning of the academic year 2011/2012, the procedure for a school to become bilingual called for a preparation year zero (in the same order of June 28<sup>th</sup> 2011, this phase was eliminated with a view to launching the plan directly from year one due to increased familiarization with the practice and school readiness to jump on the CLIL bandwagon).

Schools submit a proposal testifying their aspiration to bring a CLIL section into effect. Following the approval of authorization by educational authorities, teachers undergo linguistic and pedagogical training prior to CLIL implementation, inclusive of the design of the ILC and teaching materials and the appointment of a bilingual coordinator. Encompassed within the instructions of the May 20<sup>th</sup> 2015, all

schools wishing to embark upon a CLIL crusade are required to establish all the groups of an academic level as CLIL streams. In line with this adjustment to the bilingual plan, all bilingual centres with CLIL groups existing alongside non-CLIL ones are subject to progressively increasing the CLIL streams until every student in the school is receiving a bilingual education. There is a time limit of five academic years for this process to be completed without regard to schools that already have sufficient human resources to attend to an entirely bilingual institution, in which case it will be obligatory. This manifests the autonomous community's desire to push CLIL to its maximum performance.

#### **3.3.4. APPP methodology**

We have profusely illustrated that there is no ideal CLIL model (cf. section 2.2.5). This is further substantiated when considering the scope of methodological considerations involved. CLIL fosters, first and foremost, a learner-centred policy and independent learning. The increased exposure to the L2 seeks to consolidate knowledge of the mother tongue and aid acquisition of the L3; students are expected to recognize the connection between all languages implicated in the learning process. It harmoniously prioritizes constructivist, experiential, communicative, interactive and cooperative approaches facilitated by means of collaborative efforts and the administration of task-based projects. As Järvinen (2006) points out, "shared expertise in planning and disseminating instruction seems an optimal solution to implementing good language and content teaching" (para. 2 of concluding remarks), stressing the importance of quality teamwork.

The apparatus to convert methodological implications into practical CLIL applications comes in the form of materials. CLIL materials necessitate variation and

cater for diversity in the classroom through reinforcement and extension activities. There must be predominance with regard to didactic innovation, communicative activities, use of ICTs and visual aids. In addition, CEFR principles should be adhered to and the ELP is recommended as a CLIL guide for students.

### **3.3.5. APPP evaluation**

CLIL evaluation should be geared at a communicative framework; communicative competence and communicative strategies are techniques which need to be evaluated, although assessment of content knowledge is thought to be a priority over language competence. CEFR and ELP recommendations should be followed whilst simultaneously encouraging peer and self-assessment.

### **3.3.6. APPP teacher roles**

#### **3.3.6.1. Coordinators**

Bilingual coordinators receive a reduction in teaching hours to devote time to fulfilling a multitude of functions. Their obligations encompass the calling of meetings to address ILC elaboration, supervision of its correct implementation, coordination of teaching activities, scheduling of the teaching assistants' timetable and sufficient contact with other bilingual centres and the provincial coordinator to assure the programme is running to maximum efficiency.

#### **3.3.6.2. Language teachers (FL)**

Teachers of the FL must promote communicative teaching and work collaboratively with other members of the bilingual section to contribute to the development of the ILC. Similarly to methodological and evaluation conventions, CEFR and ELP guidelines should be taken into account.

### **3.3.6.3. Non-linguistic area teachers (NLA)**

These educators represent the third collaborator concerning ICL adaptation from a content point of view. They are responsible for the design of their own CLIL materials and must only be considered for such a post if they are in possession of a B2, C1 or C2 level certificate of English. Since the beginning of the 2011/2012 school year, a minimum of 50% of their bilingual teaching subject must be taught in the FL.

### **3.3.6.4. Teaching assistants (TA)**

Bilingual schools are supplied with native teaching assistants to principally work alongside the non-linguistic area teacher. Under no circumstances are they expected to substitute a teacher, but to complement and support CLIL teachers in general. Their main goal is to give rise to oral conversation practice in the classroom, whilst correcting pronunciation, vocabulary and to a lesser extent grammar. They are assigned to collaborate in materials design and deliver valuable insight into their culture. Jáimez and López Morillas (2011) address the teaching assistants as “one of the most recognized benefits of the plan by teachers and students” (p. 95), assimilating the dissemination of their culture and their sound knowledge of ICTs as their fortresses.

A synopsis of the APPP has been presented providing details of all the incorporated elements. However it is now essential to comment on significant studies which have been conducted to exclusively assess the APPP as an educational practice in the autonomous community of Andalusia in order to shed light on how it is currently functioning.

### **3.3.7. Research**

The first study under inspection is needs analysis research with the final goal of proposing a teacher training course for NLAs. This research is connected to the present study on the basis that it analyses the APPP. However, it is the study of those which will be discussed with the least significance to our research, considering our objective does not involve any aspect of teacher training design.

Rubio Mostacero (2009) carried out needs analysis interviews collaborating with twenty school teachers from four secondary schools in the province of Jaén in 2005, in the first year of APPP implementation, with a view to designing a training course for NLA teachers based on her findings. The researcher designed the teacher training course in three consecutive stages. The first stage was purely based upon personal experience; the course was then amended once the needs analysis was complete and again after evaluation of the interviews and feedback from local teacher training centres was collected.

It emerged that teachers' language and CLIL knowledge levels were lower than expected. The outlook relating to the APPP was generally positive, considered as a healthy challenge by the teaching community. On the other hand, concerns transpired referring to lack of student motivation and negative effects of low language levels of teachers on students.

Possible problems detected by the local government included stakeholder reluctance, funding difficulties and lack of formal adoption. Teachers voiced concerns about too much responsibility, no available training or materials and made a plea for specific language and methodological courses. On the whole, families exhibited negative attitudes, whereas learners seemed enthusiastic.

The limitations of this study comprise the early stage at which it was conducted, as teachers were not familiar with the approach resulting in vague opinions. No methodological or data triangulation was employed and the sample could be considered as numerically and geographically restricted.

Relevant to recent developments on the teacher training front two studies are put forward as laudable contributions demonstrating the progress made in this terrain in the form of substantial solutions to the teacher training deficit. Madrid Manrique and Madrid Fernández (2014) present the perceptions of students studying the contents (50%) of a primary education degree in the FL (English) as opposed to students enrolled on the same course participating within a monolingual context. It emerged that those subject to lectures through CLIL did not find the implication in the programme any more difficult than the degree students with modules in their native language. The prevailing conclusion went as far as to reveal a higher level of satisfaction within the bilingual stream connected to the competences, objectives, contents, methodology and evaluation involved in the bilingual endeavour.

With a sole focus to be educated on CLIL, in terms of a pedagogical methodology, with a view to becoming a successful professional teaching through the medium of a foreign language, we are presented with a noteworthy proposal of the first specific CLIL Master's in our region (Pérez Cañado, 2015). After examining CLIL schemes throughout Spain and Andalusia, the Master's has been devised with the aim of overcoming training deficiencies by means of a providing a structure to deal with the aspects of CLIL teaching which are in need of development. CLIL features to be targeted include theoretical, methodological, life-long learning and practical elements to be able to form a steadfast workforce in CLIL education.

Turning to the assessment of the APPP's extensive components, Cabezas Cabello (2010) published results of research in the form of a SWOT analysis venturing to illustrate a top-down/bottom up contrast. The sample was numerically and geographically large in virtue of 100 teacher and 30 coordinator interviews executed in 30 primary and secondary schools in all 8 provinces of the autonomous community.

*Strengths* were set forth as cognitive, cultural, social and affective benefits for the students involved. A greater degree of communication, enthusiasm and coordination was identified, contingent on teachers. In addition, ICTs were more readily available.

Against this grain, the *weaknesses* highlighted involved lack of training, an increased workload, scarce materials and incongruous aspects between the policy on paper and practice in the classroom. The majority of these negative declarations are in harmony with those in Rubio Mostacero's research.

The consequent *opportunities* advocated were homogeneity of the APPP with real bilingual environments and the request for teacher training, both linguistic and methodological, which appears to be a constant concern pertaining to the APPP.

In last place, the *threats* acknowledged high student/teacher ratios, parents no longer being able to help their children with homework tasks and a tendency to overrate the programme without clear evidence of how it is working. Cabezas Cabello (2010) concludes by expressing a less than optimistic outlook on his behalf and states, "in the present circumstances of Andalusian schools it is neither viable or doable" (p. 90).

Cabezas Cabello (2010) adds his opinion regarding the research arena in line with the evaluation of the CLIL journey by suggesting “all the agents involved, at all levels, should be explored more deeply by conducting rigorous, valid research in order to obtain first-hand assessments of the APPP, as it is currently being implemented and monitored” (p.90). While he is quick to underscore the imperative necessity of research, Pérez Cañado (2011) does not hesitate to commend his research in articulating ‘it deserves praise if only for being the first endeavour to orchestrate a balance between the grassroots and top-down implementation of the APPP and to trace its inconsistencies’ (p.399).

In a similar vein, two studies of a qualitative nature put forward by Lancaster (2012) and Gálvez Gómez (2013) assessed stakeholder perspectives on CLIL within the APPP in the monolingual context of Jaén. The objective of the former was to gain an insight into the general outlook on CLIL at secondary level while the latter focused on a specific bilingual centre of primary education.

The research presented by Lancaster involved the design, validation and administration of two sets of questionnaires to 745 informants (692 students and 53 teachers) within eight secondary schools, with a view to identifying student and teacher attitudes towards Andalusian CLIL in the province of Jaén. Perceptions are outlined in terms of students’ use, competence and development of English in class; methodology; materials and resources and ICT; evaluation; teachers’ use, competence and development of English in class (students); teacher training (teachers); mobility; and, finally, improvement and motivation towards English (students); and coordination and organisation (teachers).

Overall outcomes reveal predominantly positive attitudes on behalf of both the stakeholders who are implicated in the study. The teacher cohort can be considered to

hold somewhat of a more optimistic outlook on the whole; however, degrees of difference are inconsequential given the students' virtually equal enthusiasm concerning Andalusia's bilingual programme. The students appear to have responded more positively to aspects with reference to their own use, competence and development of English and the methodology employed in the bilingual class. On the other hand, teachers reveal their satisfaction with the APPP is derivable from contrasting components relating to materials, resources and ICT, evaluation, teacher training and mobility. When asked to give their views on the plan in general, harmony ensues between both cohorts in the form of ubiquitous acceptance of the specific CLIL methodology in question.

Gálvez Gómez (2013) submitted her investigation in the form of a SWOT analysis of CLIL implementation. Questionnaires based on those from Lancaster's (2012) study were administered to 89 students, 64 parents and 3 teachers from a bilingual primary school in the town of Mengíbar, Jaén. The students at the forefront of the study were enrolled in 2<sup>nd</sup> and 3<sup>rd</sup> grade and most had formed part of the bilingual programme for two or three years. One of the main aims was "to analyse the onset of CLIL; how it is working from the very beginning with students of early ages" (Gálvez Gómez, 2013, p. 116).

The overall outcome concurs with the previously described study (Lancaster 2012) in that all groups which constituted the sample displayed positive views towards CLIL evincing an outright turnaround with regard to the gloomy predictions documented by Cabezas Cabello (2010). The student cohort transmitted a more optimistic frame of mind in comparison to the teachers and parents on the whole, in contrast to the findings offered by Lancaster (2012).

In spite of opposing stakeholders holding the more positive outlook, in light of the results it emerged that both the students and teachers are satisfied regarding coinciding aspects. Students more highly rate their own use, competence and development of English and the methodology applied in bilingual class, whereas it transpires teachers (and parents) are content with evaluation, teacher training and mobility.

Parents also rejoice in the implementation of the bilingual programme expressing that they feel it is worthwhile to take part in it. They have witnessed an improvement in the English level of their children and it has even positively affected their own learning of the English. There is total agreement that exchange programmes are advantageous for students although no participation is recorded hitherto, presumptively due to the young ages of the students. Diverging away from this enthusiasm, parents admit that they find it difficult to aid their children in homework duties and that materials guidelines are not explained in Spanish.

To underpin the conclusions of the SWOT analysis, strengths are represented by communicative methodology and teacher collaboration, weaknesses involve increased workload and scarcity of materials, opportunities are clearly testified by improved levels of the FL and threats draw upon lack of knowledge of the programme and government support to develop initiatives.

Both the aforementioned projects embody solid research yielding significant conclusions to paint a picture of how CLIL is panning out pertaining to stakeholder points of view. This has provided the community with an insight into which imperfections need to be overcome. Nevertheless, prevalent limitations concerning methodological shortcomings are detected. Both investigations can be referred to as cross-sectional; therefore, they have allowed us to gain an understanding of student

and teacher attitudes at the present time, but we are unable to comment on the perspectives of stakeholders over a period of time due to lack of a longitudinal focus.

Although the samples relevant to the research are numerically substantial, especially the number of participants in Lancaster's (2012) study, the bilingual centres involved are within a restricted geographical area. The implicated centres fall under the public bilingual school category, highlighting that a sole type of school has been involved in the research procedure. Finally, there is a methodological deficit: only questionnaires have been applied and, in the case of Lancaster's (2012) contribution, a focus on a double cohort comparison was chosen indicating a data triangulation flaw.

Superseding certain lacunae in research design mapped out in the preceding research we can report on two further qualitative studies, which scrutinize the particular aspect of the role of teaching assistants as an essential jigsaw piece of the APPP by means of longitudinal studies. They complement each other in the fact that they provide enlightenment on the same topic but at different points in the implementation stage of the APPP carried out in 2008 and 2014.

The first venture in this terrain is provided by Tobin and Abello-Contesse (2013) as a multiple case study research project and it overcomes the geographically restricted obstacle as data is collected from around Andalusia and involves seven teaching assistants being interviewed over eight months to gather first-hand information.

They contemplate situations of CLIL programmes that come hand in hand with incorporating a teaching assistant from the target language country into the classroom. Two main themes discussed centre around culture and team teaching. The authors hold the opinion that "the opportunity to interact with a person from another

culture and to learn skills on how to deal with differences based on interaction styles seems especially important for a programme that aims to create functional bilinguals [...]” (p.208), which leads them to underscore that the assistants “could significantly encourage a more positive outlook on learning other languages and dealing with other cultures among Spanish learners” (p.208).

They claim research has suggested that the implementation of the teaching assistants can be a tricky task, as successful collaboration on all parts must be a success and in certain circumstances different ideas about teaching are ascertained. On the bright side, the teaching assistant, alongside other teaching instructors, can bring about fruitful and far-reaching results; this is exemplified by their viewpoint that “team teaching provides real opportunities for both linguistic and cultured dialogue in regular classwork” (p.209).

The extent to which students dominate culturally appropriate interaction is levied against how successfully the teaching assistant communicates with the students. This is a feat which the teachers of the bilingual school are held responsible for. The collaboration inherent in team teaching is also deemed necessary in terms of the bilingual plan on the whole. Regional and provincial planners, bilingual coordinators, FL and NLA teachers and TAs must work as a team to strengthen the programme which is conceived to provide linguistic and cultural (?)benefits to Andalusian students.

The overall conclusion boils down to teaching assistants producing considerable cultural and linguistic gains when fully implemented. A blend of positive and negative aspects were outlined by the informants but the salient message perceived was the inexperience of the teachers to successfully execute the programme’s goals through team teaching, accentuating the recurring issue of dearth

teacher training (Cabezas Cabello, 2010; Navés, 2009; Pérez Cañado, 2012; Rubio Mostacero, 2009).

Although longitudinal, the study was based on a very small sample and was carried out at a very early stage of the APPP when it may not have been in full swing. It also falls short of methodological and data triangulation, as only teaching assistants were polled via interviews.

A more substantial investigation by Sánchez Torres (2014) offers the second longitudinal study which also boasts methodological and data triangulation by means of interviews (semi-structured and group) and observation of multiple informants (teachers, coordinators, teaching assistants, representatives from teacher training schools, the regional bilingual coordinator and the director of international educational programmes of the province).

This researcher aims to generate feedback with regard to five research questions involving changes which the teaching assistants and coordinators (teachers) experience, the extent to which functions are fulfilled, the approach which is effectuated concerning team teaching, which specific aspects affect the success of the programme and which opinions the stakeholders hold about the strengths and weaknesses of the programme.

It transpires that the coordinators (teachers) and the teaching assistants experienced modifications caused by individual differences of expectations, motivation, work ethic, attitudes towards the APPP, varying levels of the L2 and their personal outlook on the languages and cultures involved. The teaching assistants did fulfil their functions in general, but not in their entirety, stemming from a lack of clear instructions from educational authorities. There is little evidence of team teaching, although both stakeholders agree cooperation ensues between them and also

collaboration, albeit to a lesser extent. Aspects considered to affect the success of the programme were manifested in terms of excessive paperwork, increased workload, new requirements for the creation of bilingual centres and the economic crisis. Surprisingly, elements which are usually cause for concern, such as teacher training, didn't come into view, which tallies with the previously explored studies of Lancaster (2012) and Gálvez Gómez (2013). This goes against the grain of prevailing findings in that a plea is consistently made by principal teaching figures to upgrade teacher training opportunities. It is possible we could be witnessing the positive backwash effects of those authors who have voiced a concern in pivotal research for enhanced training schemes and ground has been gained in this respect. Finally, coordinators (teachers) and teaching assistants display congruent perspectives concerning the strengths and weaknesses of the plan. It is also worthy of mentioning, which contradicts the teachers' indifference towards training, that the representatives from teacher training schools, the regional bilingual coordinator and the director of international educational programmes recognize training, coordination and planning need to be carried out more effectively on all accounts to fully take advantage of the teaching assistant.

It is fair to profess that these endeavours provide a praiseworthy contribution to assist in enhancing the Andalusian bilingual programme in distinct domains; however, only isolated contexts are covered, which makes a strong case for the multitude of scenarios involved in the CLIL plan of action to be delved into in order to excel. Paran (2013), providing us with his vision on studies estimating stakeholder perceptions, denotes that “although such studies are valuable, they say little about the effects of CLIL teaching” (p. 322).

In harmony with integration as a recent research topic to have been scrutinised on the CLIL agenda (cf. 2.2.2.1), Ruiz Gómez (2015) seeks to enlighten CLIL stakeholders with vital advances a propos the methodology framework in the Autonomous Community of Andalusia. Following the launch of an assessment plan to monitor the extent to which objectives of the APPP were being accomplished, two specific situations were diagnosed. Positive accounts transpire in which CLIL is executed in an integrative manner yielding encouraging, homogenous results. However this was not always found to be the case. Unfortunately, a tunnel vision approach was also detected giving rise to minimal adaptation and unification of content and language. It emerged that many of those involved in CLIL regarded the approach as a means of increasing exposure of the L2 alone. The broader takeaways bring to light a flawed methodological model lacking consistency, leaving teachers with no option but to improvise.

In response to such undesirable circumstances, a working group of experts was formed to counteract this inappropriate approach to CLIL. The aims were two-fold and attended to the training of teachers to use CLIL effectively by means of feasible models and the creation of a bank of materials which professionals could have recourse to. The principal modification impinged upon a didactic sequence to replace the well-known didactic unit to provide a logical and systematic methodology structure promoting the successful integration of content and language objectives. Novelty components centred on a task-based approach involving pre- and post-tasks developed within realistic situations to foster motivation. Self-assessment with use of the ELP to encourage reflection on one's abilities and competences was also highlighted. Ruiz Gómez (2015) demonstrated an optimistic outlook for the future declaring "excellence in L2 acquisition in our education system is possible and

feasible wherever the association between language and content is tightly managed” (p. 29), emphasizing, once again, the importance of merging the two integral elements of the CLIL method.

Bearing a direct relation to our study in terms of research focus, the effects of the APPP on the L2, Madrid and Hughes (2011) submit a significant contribution to CLIL assessment in Andalusia, providing crucial insight into how the APPP influences participating students regarding L2, L1, subject matter and cultural competence.

The data for the research was collected by six researchers and ten collaborators in 2007/2008 in bilingual public schools, bilingual private schools, monolingual public schools and semi-private monolingual schools. A casual, non-probabilistic sample of 312 students was taken from 6<sup>th</sup> grade primary and 4<sup>th</sup> grade secondary levels for English, Spanish and subject matter tests to be designed, piloted and applied (Roa, Madrid & Sanz, 2011).

The tests on all four skills of the L2 proved that CLIL has a positive effect on student performance. It was found that the L2 used as a medium rendered no negative effects on the L1, as CLIL students performed as well as or better than their monolingual counterparts on the L1 tests despite receiving less exposure. A correlation between student achievement between L1 and L2 proficiency was also detected, supporting Cummins’ interdependence hypothesis (Ramos García & Ortega Martín, 2011; Villoria, Hughes & Madrid, 2011).

The bilingual students did not exhibit lower levels of subject matter competence in spite of L2 instruction, proving CLIL does not hinder content learning and suggests a transferral of knowledge. Although it is necessary to mention that, in

certain cases, bilinguals did not reach the required cognitive levels, they make up for this in more developed L2 vocabulary skills and increased communicative competence (Madrid, 2011).

The bilingual students exhibit cultural knowledge to a higher degree to that of monolinguals, with pronounced differences between students of public bilingual and public monolingual schools, to the detriment of the latter (Ramos García, 2011).

To sum up the research findings, encouraging results were revealed on behalf of the bilingual public schools, whereas the monolingual public school demonstrated the most negative outcomes.

This remarkable study brought to the fore by Madrid and Hughes (2011) correlates to the final study in our analysis of research with regard to the APPP, constituting the first empirical study to be conducted and mirroring our thesis in terms of research methods, given the mixed quantitative and qualitative research design to evaluate bilingual education in Andalusia. Pérez Cañado (2011) pinpoints that “being the first instance of empirical research into the effects of CLIL in Andalusia, it becomes a necessary starting reference point in the research panorama of our autonomous community” (p. 393).

Commissioned by the *Junta de Andalucía*, Lorenzo, Casal and Moore (2009) administered skills-based tests to 1,768 students in 61 schools amongst English, French and German sections. The English students had only been enrolled in a CLIL course for one and a half years, while the French and German students had studied in a bilingual section since primary level. The cross-sectional research assessed 4<sup>th</sup> grade primary and 2<sup>nd</sup> grade secondary students, with control and experimental groups for L2 English. Qualitative data complemented the tests in the form of questionnaires to

gather teacher, student and parent opinions, and coordinators were interviewed in order to decipher their attitudes towards the plan. The four key meta-concerns of the study related to competence development, curricular organization, classroom praxis and level of satisfaction to be able to answer research questions concerning linguistic outcomes, entry point effects, use of the L2 in the classroom and CLIL effects beyond the L2.

Descriptive statistics revealed exclusively positive outcomes regarding linguistic competence of the L2, coinciding with Madrid and Hughes' (2011) results. The fact that CLIL was proven to foster rapid results accentuates that any age of entry is advantageous to the learner. In light of the qualitative results, the FL teachers' classroom practice was described as semi-immersion, the NLAs revealed code-switching and the TAs demonstrated full immersion.

Lorenzo et al. (2009) underpin CLIL as "an extremely rich environment" (p.433), referring to the combination of teachers involved. They claim that CLIL consolidates cohesion in schools and coordination between teachers, echoing Cabezas Cabellos's (2010) conclusions on this point. Teachers are in total agreement that CLIL improves the generic competence acquisition of students, boosts curricular integration and innovative teaching methods and also enriches evaluation procedures. A negative aspect to arise deals with L1 teachers' views, as they seem to feel threatened by the whole plan and appeals are made for progress on the resources front.

Parallel opinions are encountered amongst students, who reflect on CLIL as a strategy to develop competence and acquisition of grammar and vocabulary, with the added advantage of enthusiastic attitudes perceived to be an inbuilt perk of CLIL

methodology. Students do reiterate that the stepping up of exchange trips and use of ICT in the classroom would be welcomed.

The families of CLIL students also point out lack of trips as a downfall, corroborating information disclosed in Gálvez Gómez (2013), alongside a need for oral practice with native speakers. On the other hand, they ratify the increased language knowledge of the students and teachers as a real asset.

The coordinators of the plan, existing as the kingpin of the operation, document lack of information and insufficient reduction time as weaknesses of the plan, and excessive workload and need for training as the threats. A myriad of strengths are mentioned to back up the already highly acclaimed venture which included positive developments of, once again, student performance and motivation, teamwork and in-service training, leading to opportunities in the way of cultural openness and professional opportunities.

Lorenzo et al. (2009) project their study to coincide with the other research carried out and, although they embrace an overly positive attitude, to some extent, they do admit to the fact that CLIL is still unknown terrain and it is too early in the CLIL agenda to be in a position to generalise outcomes.

Pérez Cañado (2011) considers that “the reader is left with the impression that there is little room for improvement” (p.395), while Bruton (2011) states “the research project was very ambitious in overall scope and extension and the global scores seemingly impressive” (p.1). Both authors imply the investigation is not as clear-cut as it seems to be and proceed to highlight serious limitations in the research design. The cross-sectional study did not regulate homogeneity between the control and experimental group. Bruton (2011) makes it clear that “when conducting research

into any form of development, it is necessary to establish a benchmark. Without any pretest scores, it is impossible to assess any form of change since there is no point of departure” (p.2). This CLIL opponent makes the further observation that the CLIL streams, although entry is optional, are not likely to be equal due to the fact it is parents who elect their children to enter CLIL education, resulting in these students receiving extra-curricular English classes outside school. To rub salt in the wound regarding deficits, no methodological triangulation was applied in the qualitative sense and no conclusions were presented on the effects of CLIL on L1 and subject content knowledge development.

It is necessary to recognise that Madrid and Hughes (2011) supersede the research shortcomings evident in the recently discussed study to a certain degree. On the other hand, on inspection, homogeneity is not established on the grounds that the groups were not matched at the onset of this experience of cross-sectional description and Bruton (2015) points out that “+/- CLIL was not the only differentiating variable” (p. 124), as extra-curricular activities and TAs were affiliated to the CLIL classes. It can be said, after taking the previous issues into account, that no robust longitudinal studies to assess the effects of CLIL on students L2 learning have been conducted to date. This is exactly what this present research proposal strives to achieve.

### **3.4. Oral skills in CLIL**

CLIL provision entails a plethora of objectives to fulfil in terms of student development. Amongst these goals, the Eurydice study (2006) pinpoints oral skills and states CLIL should “enable pupils to develop language skills which emphasise effective communication [...]” (p. 22).

CLIL is thought to promote interaction as it “gives occasion and communicative need to students [...]” (Hüttner & Smit, 2014, p. 166). Lasagabaster (2010) highlights “CLIL seems to bear rich fruits in both oral and written skills” (p. 14), while Heras and Lasagabaster (2015) recount “triggering high levels of communication between teachers and learners, and among learners themselves as well as improving overall language competence in the target language, particularly oral skills, are some of the commonly mentioned benefits of CLIL” (p. 72).

To lay emphasis on the discrepancies between CLIL and traditional EFL teaching, Pérez Cañado (2013), with reference to CLIL, elucidates that “language is seen as a tool for communication from the outset of instruction and is used in uncontrived real-life situations. Learners are pushed to produce more meaningful and complex language and fluency is fostered” (p. 16). Observing from the EFL teaching perspective, Tobin and Abello-Contesse (2013) propound “[...] the focus in teaching EFL has typically been on gaining knowledge of the L2 and developing receptive skills rather than on successful communication” (p. 205).

It has already been declared that the communicative approach plays an important role in bilingual education; nevertheless, a serious deficit in existing research in this area prevails. We are not a witness to plentiful studies carried out on the effects of CLIL on oral competence development; this scarcity is pointedly assigned to Andalusia and the APPP in particular. Authors have frequently alluded to increased oral ability in conclusions of investigations; however, it is in passing that these assumptions are made within a European context (Ackerl, 2007; Admiraal, Westhoff and de Bot, 2006; Wiesemes, 2009; Zydatið, 2007) and within the autonomous community of Andalusia (Lorenzo et al., 2009; Madrid & Hughes, 2011).

The paramount aim of this specific section of the literature review is to set forth an overview of studies conducted with a prime focus on the repercussions of CLIL on oral skills. Such studies have previously been acknowledged in preceding parts, but we will now put forward a comprehensive picture of the current research to provide a backdrop within which we can frame our present investigation. Results from Europe will be expounded on, followed by a substantial compilation of outcomes presented by the bilingual regions of Spain.

To flesh out what has been mentioned in heading 3.1 (CLIL in Europe) in the matter of oral skills, three studies will be discussed which centre on narrative competence, listening and speaking skills and spoken proficiency. Hüttner and Rieder-Bünemann (2007, 2010), as cited in Pérez Cañado (2012), use a picture story to determine levels of narrative competence within CLIL instruction. 44 secondary school students in Vienna took part, half of which belonged to a partial CLIL group as opposed to the other half, who formed the non-CLIL comparison group. The conclusions reached affirm the CLIL branch performed better on both micro- and macro-level features of the narrative. However, it was brought to light that students could have been more motivated in the CLIL group in comparison to the control group.

Although carried out in a primary context, and therefore at a different educational level to that of the research presented here, Stotz and Meuter (2003) drew significant conclusions after the testing of listening and speaking skills as part of a two-year CLIL project in Zurich involving 178 students distributed into nine classes. Those students subject to immersion techniques exhibited more developed listening skills, with groups conditioned to a mixed implicit and explicit methodology experiencing the best outcomes. The conclusions reached as regards speaking

competence emerged as inconclusive, perhaps owing to the early stages in which the tests were performed. In addition to the precipitated analysis, no control group or pre-/post-tests were incorporated into the research design, thereby calling into question the validity of the results.

The final study to be considered on the European front involves a three-year late immersion programme in Geneva. The principal objectives sought by Gassner and Maillat (2006) were to analyse the spoken production of an EFL control group counter to a CLIL experimental group. Student views evinced their complacency with the skill of speaking and expressed spoken production was the aptitude they thought they had improved most as a result of forming part of the CLIL programme, which was subsequently confirmed. The authors voiced the need for further research to take high-order organisational structures into account comprising turn-taking, argument structures, information flow and repair mechanisms encompassed within problem-solving strategies.

Turning to Spain as an estimable exemplification of research in the scope of oral skills, we discover it is the bilingual regions of the country that have effectuated stalwart contributions to enlighten us on the influence of CLIL on receptive and productive oral competence. It is necessary to bear in mind that the students, as data of the research set forth, have a bilingual status implying English in CLIL to be the L3; therefore, they do not constitute a direct comparison to students involved in CLIL programmes in monolingual regions. Remarkable research in the BAC involves four crucial studies, which focus on receptive skills and also aim at providing an insight into productive attainment. Research by investigators in the Balearic Islands is also summarized and, finally, valuable input from Catalonia is illustrated.

A longitudinal study effectuated by Ruiz de Zarobe (2008), as cited in Ruiz de Zarobe and Lasagabaster (2010), evaluates three groups, non-CLIL, CLIL and CLIL with extra English literature classes, in the third and fourth year of secondary education and again in the second year of post-compulsory education. Speech production was assessed in terms of pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar, fluency and content, for which statistically significant differences were detected between the three groups. It transpired that greater exposure to the FL resulted in a more developed competence in oral skills. In order to determine to what extent the added exposure affects CLIL outcomes, as opposed to the actual CLIL methodology, students in the third year of secondary education (CLIL) were correlated against those in the second year of post-compulsory education (non-CLIL), giving rise to 80 hours of extra FL exposure in the non-CLIL group's favour. The CLIL group came out on top, authenticating the CLIL programme as the credible determinant for the improvement in production.

Taken from the same collection of outcomes with a similar research plan and orientated to the evaluation of a variety of skills of which listening and speaking are pivotal, Lasagabaster (2008) administered tests to another three groups of students in the BAC. The CLIL group outperformed the non CLIL group in both listening and speaking ability in the fourth year of secondary education. Parallel to Ruiz de Zarobe's (2008) contribution, a CLIL group in the third year was compared to a non-CLIL group in the fourth year to account for CLIL receiving more hours of exposure. Coinciding conclusions ensued to ascertain CLIL as the motive for increased oral competence. Limitations of the study were highlighted as the absence of matched groups at the outset, resulting in dubious results.

From a phonological perspective, Gallardo del Puerto, Gómez Lacabex and García Lecumberri (2009) examine 28 Basque students, divided into equal groups of CLIL and non-CLIL learners, drawing upon the degree of foreign accent (FA) encountered in both groups and the communicative effects of FA; intelligibility; and irritation. The authors state that usual circumstances entail a non-native speaker teaching content subject through the FL in the Spanish arena which “can have important consequences for the quality of the input, particularly at a phonological level” (p. 65). The completion of a story-telling activity on behalf of both groups spawned interesting results. There were no statistically significant differences between the content and the non-content learners concerning the degree of FA, possibly a repercussion of the previously mentioned unreliable input of the teachers. Significant differences did arise pertaining to intelligibility and irritation, with the CLIL students perceived as possessing more intelligible accents and causing less irritation while speaking in the FL. It is underscored that pronunciation is paid less attention to, as it is looked upon as being the least useful component of speech.

The evaluation of oral production, from a different outlook, is pursued by Villarreal, Olaizola and García Mayo (2009). These aforementioned researchers matched students from three different high schools in the BAC in their fourth year of secondary education studying English as an L3. The aspects to be examined in this investigation are represented by morpheme omission and error frequency. The CLIL participants surpassed the non-CLIL counterparts from both angles, producing more accurate and target-like language. The study can be criticized for its cross-sectional nature, as these components are not assessed over time, making a strong case for longitudinal research to be put into action.

As part of the COLE project in the Balearic Islands, previously referred to in this review, two sub-projects come to the fore as influential research furnished by Prieto-Arranz, Rallo Fabra, Calafat-Ripolli and Catrain-González (2015) and Rallo Fabra and Jacob (2015) on receptive and production skills, respectively. As regards the former, the following is signposted:

Working on the premise that CLIL does provide that ‘comprehensible input + 1’, it seems to make sense to hypothesize that, among those language benefits to be derived from CLIL, a potential boost to the so-called receptive skills (i.e. listening and reading comprehension) might be found (p. 124).

Meyer et al. (2015) endorse this premise and indicate CLIL’s “[...] reported benefits include improved receptive language skills [...]” (p. 42). However, these claims are accompanied by accusations such as “as opposed to reading, listening comprehension skills in a CLIL context have received less interest” and “studies investigating the development of listening comprehension skills within CLIL provide conflicting results” (Prieto-Arranz, Rallo Fabra, Calafat-Ripolli and Catrain-González, 2015, p. 125).

In a bid to overcome this lacuna, the authors targeted receptive skills by focusing on both reading and listening. CLIL and non-CLIL treatment and comparison groups were formed with a view to monitoring student competence in the mentioned areas over four years. The CLIL students did outshine their mainstream peers in some of the tests, but not all. On the whole, CLIL was perceived to have a positive impact on receptive skills. While there seemed to be an explicit impact on reading ability, student performance in terms of oral reception was less clear-cut. It was evident that in the more complex specific reading test, CLIL students excelled after highly significant differences materialised; this could be explained by a higher

exposure of a wider range of lexical items assisting them in their reading capacity. Overall, no significant differences were detected between the CLIL and non-CLIL groups as regards listening, implying CLIL may not have a positive effect on listening comprehension. Both groups progressed in a similar manner, although the CLIL cohort had significantly higher scores on the more difficult of the listening tests, leading the researcher to conclude that ‘CLIL programmes have a positive impact on cognitively demanding listening activities’ (p. 133). It is important that the outcomes are interpreted with caution, as we are made aware that in two of the tests the groups evince statistically significant differences at the outset.

Rallo Fabra and Jacob (2015) immediately make a pitch for their contribution in the field by articulating that “few studies have investigated L2 pronunciation in immersion settings” (p. 165). For this reason, they commit to research on oral performance by means of pronunciation within the realm of oral skills. A picture story task was employed as the instrument to test fluency and pronunciation of CLIL and non-CLIL learners over two years in Majorca. It was predicted that the CLIL branch would surpass the non-CLIL counterpart relating to fluency, but that there would be no gains in pronunciation. By means of an analysis of temporal aspects of speech and phonological errors, the former hypothesis was not confirmed, as the CLIL group did not do significantly better in terms of fluency. It was underlined that the reason for such an outcome could lie with task effects. It is thought that L2 students’ speech becomes more fluent if they are interacting with a native speaker and are taking part in a monologue or dialogue. The narrative-based test in this study posed a higher level of cognition in comparison. On the contrary, the second hypothesis unfolded as expected, with no statistically significant differences in pronunciation. Neither group

had developed their pronunciation skills after the two-year period, casting doubt upon what can be considered sufficient time to have an impact on investigations.

A final comprehensive evaluation of linguistic progress deserves to be commended: that elaborated by Pérez-Vidal and Roquet (2015) from a Catalanian perspective. Tedick and Wesley (2015) reveal students in immersion programmes are susceptible to developing near-native levels of receptive skills (reading and listening), but those of a productive nature are less advanced, especially when accuracy is concerned. On this basis, a prediction is made in favour of receptive skills progressing decidedly more than productive ones. Mixed results, inconsistent and inconclusive research on productive vocabulary, cohesion and coherence and pronunciation constituted the drive behind the project. Complexity, accuracy and fluency measures comprise the dependant variables in the assessment in which the hypotheses identify CLIL to improve receptive skills. To map out the results, these skills are positively influenced by CLIL to a certain extent, as reading improves significantly, albeit there is no evidence of listening as a success-prone competence within CLIL, in line with what Prieto-Arranz, Rallo Fabra, Calafat-Ripolli and Catrain-González (2015) turned the spotlight on.

In spite of the submission of solid research at the forefront of this section which has, undoubtedly, allowed us to speculate on CLIL when it comes to evaluating its effect on oral skills, such analyses are still faced with a surplus of shortcomings in the form of no control groups, groups not matched at the outset, no pre-/post-, and delayed post-tests and lack of longitudinal focus in some respects, lacunae which this study attempts to overcome.



CHAPTER 4  
RESEARCH DESIGN



#### 4.1. Justification of the investigation

The literature review has provided us with an insight of how CLIL has developed, stemming from the Canadian and North American models and achieving recognition as an established approach throughout Europe. Our overview of research results, in pursuit of resourceful outcomes, has allowed us to appreciate the predominantly positive influence of CLIL on learners on the whole. On the other hand, we have been able to identify deficits in the evaluation of this teaching method and have been witness to its criticism as an educational concept, from which this present study ensues.

Pérez Cañado (2011) underscores that “in order to bolster the process of implementation of CLIL programmes and to guarantee their success, we need to depart from solid evidence in which we are still sorely lacking [...]” (p. 389). A prevailing revelation of the research reviewed on CLIL in the totality of the European countries where it is employed is this urgent need for empirical evidence to assure its effectiveness and make projections regarding the extent of its potential, which endorses the chief justification of this current investigation as to *why* it is being conducted. Lasagabaster (2010) confirms the blatant research lacunae and states that “[...] CLIL programmes are burgeoning all over Europe and this trend demands empirical evidence on which teachers, researchers and educational authorities can rely when decisions about its implementation have to be made” (p. 15).

Paran (2013) mentions that “[...] research has sometimes struggled to show the benefit of CLIL, even for language outcomes” (p. 322-323). With reference to the specific L2 outcomes on which we seek to shed light, Dalton-Puffer (2007), as cited in Bruton (2013), claims that “it is supposed to be oral ability especially that is

enhanced by CLIL [...]” (p. 589). Yet, it would be ambitious to declare this has been formally confirmed due to a scarcity of evidence. Priego-Arranz et al. (2015) outline that “the lack of research is perhaps especially all the more evident in the field of listening comprehension, with no major study truly addressing this issue” (p. 126), which has inspired us to focus on this particular skill in this study. What is more, the few studies which exist have focused almost exclusively on oral skills from a receptive point of view. Reflecting upon the studies, which have been synopsisized in the literature view, this is evident. Rallo Fabra and Jacob (2015) propound “few studies have investigated L2 pronunciation in immersion settings” (p. 165), a component of speaking we set out to evaluate in the present thesis.

In turn, Coyle et al. (2010) call for analyses of a more profound nature for a better understanding of the functionality of CLIL. They attest affective evidence research to be of paramount importance declaring that such factors have an impact on success, specifying that “monitoring participants’ attitudes towards CLIL and their motivational level should be a key element in an evaluation process” (pp. 141 & 142). These preceding paragraphs validate the present research project from the point of view of *what* is required to be evaluated, contemplating the analysis of students’ L2 oral competence and assessment of stakeholder perspectives as its two principal objectives.

The latter of the aforementioned authors delve deeper to map out *who* it is necessary to evaluate and *how*, in propounding that “CLIL teachers should not be forgotten as we seek evidence of the affective dimension” (p. 143), and voice the practicality of the “use of a questionnaire approach to a large number of participants to secure a full overview of the important factors” (p. 143). On the effectiveness of

questionnaires, Heras and Lasagabaster (2015) view them with caution and state “one could wonder the extent to which the administration of a questionnaire at a particular point in time can represent the motivational basis of a prolonged dynamic and complex process such as learning an L2” (p. 85). On the basis of this statement, we have thought it necessary to incorporate interviews into our research design to complement the questionnaires, thereby factoring in methodological triangulation. Alongside it, the study also presents data triangulation, as multiple sources of information will be consulted to mediate biases interjected by people with different roles in the language teaching context: students, teachers, and parents.

The questions of *where* assessment processes need to take place and *when* they should be carried out was addressed by Madrid and Hughes in 2011, referring to Spain and to the Autonomous Community of Andalusia in particular:

With the diverse experiences that have taken place throughout the country and after five years of the introduction of the Plurilingual Plan in Andalusia, we believe that now would be an appropriate time to pause and examine the effectiveness of these programmes (p. 12).

The bilingual plan of Andalusia is now into its tenth year of implementation and it is clear that it is constantly regulating itself to evolve alongside external circumstances and realign objectives to meet current needs. It is clear that now is the “[...] moment to step back and do some much-needed stocktaking into how it has been playing out and whether it has lived up to its initial promise” (Pérez & Ráez Padilla, 2015, p. 1). It has also been brought to attention that “the new *mis-en-scène* of the APPP will yield potentially very different outcomes” (Pérez Cañado, 2011, p. 400), those of which we hope to discover in this thesis.

Another factor which warrants this current endeavour involves the various deficits that can be found in the previously conducted research. Pérez Cañado and Ráez Padilla affirm that “the conceptualization and pedagogical implementation of CLIL have of late started to be questioned” (p. 2) and highlight the existence of “[...] potentially serious methodological flaws which could compromise the validity of the outcomes obtained” (p. 4). In line with the foregoing, our study will attempt to rectify shortcomings in relation to groups not being matched at the outset, to the initial homogeneity of the sample, to the comparability of the instruments or to the longitudinal nature of the studies in our context to date (Bruton, 2011; Pérez Cañado, 2011; Paran, 2013). As Bruton predicates, “unfortunately, there is dearth of research into comparisons between CLIL and comparable non-CLIL groups [...]” (p. 5), a lacuna that this thesis attempts to address and overcome. “Reliable language and content tests should be designed, validated and applied in pre-, post- and delayed post-testing phases to CLIL (experimental) and non-CLIL (control) groups which have been previously matched [...]” (Pérez & Ráez Padilla, 2015, p. 5) is a proposal which we have fully undertaken. Bruton (2011) also pinpoints the lack of knowledge of what goes on inside a CLIL classroom (?) as a drawback of CLIL investigations. By virtue of the investigator also being the teacher of both the control and experimental groups, we have had a first-hand insight into the inner workings of the programme, thereby further substantiating this current project proposal.

A venturesome study to discover L2 outcomes in relation to oral skills and to define the perspectives of the leading stakeholders of CLIL in an Andalusian setting, which uses a mixed quantitative-qualitative methodology from a longitudinal standpoint, takes up-to-date CLIL research into consideration when it comes to

instrument design and validation, and employs a wide range of identification variables to compare two cohorts in a quantitative manner and analyse three cohorts qualitatively is consequently entirely justified.

The fundamental objective of the research project is to paint a comprehensive picture of the inner workings of the APPP, analysing test scores of receptive and productive oral skills and comparing perceptions between stakeholders in order to determine positive and negative aspects, so as to capitalize on the former and to amend the latter via the proposal and application of suggested solutions to accomplish smoother CLIL implementation.

#### **4.2. Objectives**

The principal aim of this study is to determine whether a CLIL programme implemented with fourth grade of Compulsory Secondary Education (CSE) students (experimental group) develops superior English oral comprehension and production skills to those promoted by an English as a Foreign Language (EFL) programme with students from the same level (control group). It also seeks to establish whether the possible differential effects exerted by CLIL programmes on English oral comprehension and production skills pervade in the first grade of Baccalaureate (six months after the CSE CLIL programme is discontinued and replaced with a Baccalaureate CLIL programme with significantly less exposure) or whether they gradually peter out. This quantitative part of the study is then complemented from a qualitative point of view via a SWOT (Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities, Threats) analysis carried out with all the chief stakeholders (teachers, students, and parents) on the satisfaction generated by the APPP.

Three key metaconcerns drive the investigation and serve as cornerstones for this investigation. They are presented and broken down into their component corollaries below:

**Metaconcern 1 (instrument design and validation)**

1. To design, validate and administer a pre-, post- and delayed-post test to measure fourth grade of CSE students' English language competence regarding oral comprehension.
2. To design, validate and administer a pre-, post- and delayed-post test to measure fourth grade of CSE students' English language competence relating to oral production.
3. To design, validate and administer parallel questionnaires (students' use, competence and development of English in class; methodology; materials, resources and ICT; evaluation; teachers' use, competence and development of English in class; teacher training; mobility; improvement and motivation towards learning English and coordination and organisation) in order to identify student, teacher and parent perspectives of the APPP.

**Metaconcern 2 (quantitative investigation)**

4. Across-cohort comparison
  - a) To determine if the experimental and control groups are homogeneous at the outset of the intervention programme by ascertaining the

existence of statistically significant differences in their oral comprehension and production skills at the pre-test stage.

- b) To determine if there is a linguistic competence differential between the experimental and control groups at the end of the one-year (academic) intervention programme by ascertaining the existence of statistically significant differences in their oral comprehension and production skills at the post-test stage.
- c) To determine if the possible linguistic competence differential between the experimental and control groups pervades in the first grade of Baccalaureate (six months after the CSE CLIL programme is discontinued and replaced with a Baccalaureate CLIL programme with significantly less exposure) or whether it gradually peters out by ascertaining the existence of statistically significant differences in their oral comprehension and production skills at the delayed post-test stage.
- d) To determine the modulating (differential) effect exerted on the fourth grade of CLIL CSE students' oral comprehension and production by the intervening variable of gender.

##### 5. Within-cohort comparison

- a) To trace the evolution of the CLIL (experimental) group's oral comprehension and production skills by determining if there are any statistically significant differences from the pre- to the post- to the delayed post-test phases.

- b) To trace the evolution of the EFL (control) group's oral comprehension and production skills by determining if there are any statistically significant differences from the pre- to the post- to the delayed post-test phases.

### **Metaconcern 3 (qualitative study)**

#### 6. Identification of student, teacher and parent perspectives

- a) To identify student, teacher and parent perspectives regarding students' use, competence and development of English in class.
- b) To identify student, teacher and parent perspectives relating to methodology.
- c) To identify student, teacher and parent perspectives concerning materials, resources and ICT.
- d) To identify student, teacher and parent perspectives pertaining to evaluation.
- e) To identify student, teacher and parent perspectives vis-à-vis teachers' use, competence and development of English in class and teacher training (teacher questionnaire only).
- f) To identify student, teacher and parent perspectives as regards mobility.
- g) To identify student, teacher and parent perspectives in relation to improvement and motivation towards learning English (student and

parent questionnaire) and coordination and motivation (teacher questionnaire only).

#### 7. Cohort comparison

- a) To determine if there are any statistically significant differences between the perspectives of the three cohorts: students, teachers and parents.
- b) To determine if there are any statistically significant differences apropos perspectives within the cohort of students in terms of age, gender, nationality, grade, parents' level of studies, foreign language level, number of years they have studied in a bilingual programme, subjects they study in English, exposure to English within school and exposure to English outside of school.
- c) To determine if there are any statistically significant differences apropos perspectives within the cohort of teachers in terms of age, gender, nationality, type of teacher, administrative situation, foreign language level, subjects they teach in English, students' exposure to English within school, overall teaching experience and bilingual teaching experience.
- d) To determine if there are any statistically significant differences apropos perspectives within the cohort of parents in terms of age, gender, nationality, level of studies, foreign language level and children's exposure to English outside of school.

### 4.3. Methodology

#### 4.3.1. Research design

We can characterize the current study, first and foremost, as primary research with a mixed quantitative-qualitative research design. It has been based and conducted in the language classroom, the adequate place, according to Nunan (1991b: 265) to carry out research: “As the language classroom is specifically constituted to facilitate language development, this should constitute sufficient justification for studying what goes on there”. Such classroom-oriented research is defined by Seliger and Long (1983: v) as “research that has attempted to answer relevant and important questions concerned with language acquisition in the classroom environment”, while Wallace (1998: 1) views it as “the systematic collection and analysis of data relating to the improvement of some aspect of professional practice”. And, indeed, numerous authors coincide in stressing the relevance of this type of research, particularly for the teacher. Thus, Wallace (1998: 1) claims that “there is ample evidence that this approach can provide all sorts of interesting and helpful professional insights”, while Madrid Fernández (1998: 9) maintains that “*la investigación en el aula es fundamental para mejorar tanto la formación personal del profesorado que la aplica como sus prácticas curriculares en el aula*”. Nunan (1991b: 266) is equally emphatic in this sense: “it 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”.

The *quantitative* part of the study is an example of applied quasi-experimental research incorporating a pre-, post- and delayed post-test as instruments. The four

necessary conditions of research outlined to assess the linguistic competence of content/immersion learners are fulfilled establishing methodologically sound research (Rossell & Baker, 1996; Cummins, 1999a, p. 27):

1. Studies must compare students in bilingual programmes to a control group of similar students.
2. The research design must ensure that initial differences between treatment and control groups are controlled statistically.
3. Results must be based on standardized test scores.
4. Differences between the scores of treatment and control groups must be determined by means of appropriate statistical tests.

The *qualitative* side of the investigation is an instance of survey research contingent on the use of questionnaires and interviews, instigating both qualitative and statistical research (Brown, 2001). Triangulation is employed in the study and is represented by the following two types:

- *Data triangulation*, as multiple sources of information will be drawn upon to gather viewpoints set forth by direct and indirect participants of language teaching: students, teachers (English language teachers, non-linguistic area teachers and language assistants) and parents of the students taking part in the study.
- *Methodological triangulation*, given that multiple data-gathering procedures will be employed in the form of language tests, questionnaires and interviews.

This mixed research design also follows four of the parameters which Hellekjaer & Wilkinson (2001: 405) establish for measuring the quality of CLIL programmes:

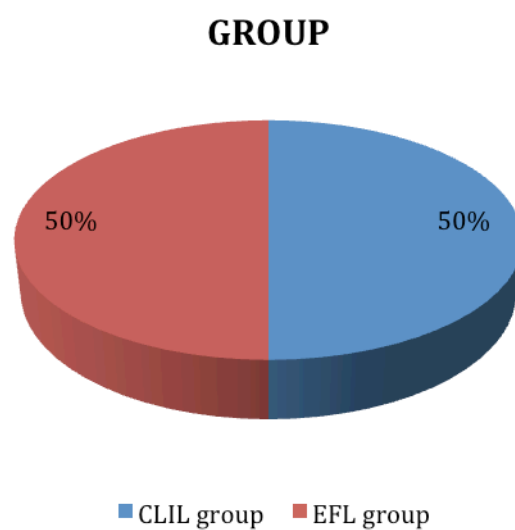
- 1. Achievement is compared in the CLIL branch and the mainstream class of the same institution.
- 2. The quality of CLIL initiatives is assessed via student and teacher perceptions.
- 3. Language development is measured.
- 4. Staff development options are gauged.

#### **4.3.2. Sample**

This investigation deals with three different cohorts: students, teachers and parents, within the context of a public bilingual secondary school in the province of Jaén. From a quantitative perspective, students will play the leading role, whereas students, teachers and parents will constitute the predominant respondents as regards the qualitative study. A breakdown of both overall samples will be presented below, firstly from a quantitative perspective, followed by the qualitative equivalent, accompanied by an analysis of all three cohorts who take part in this section of the project in relation to the identification variables involved.

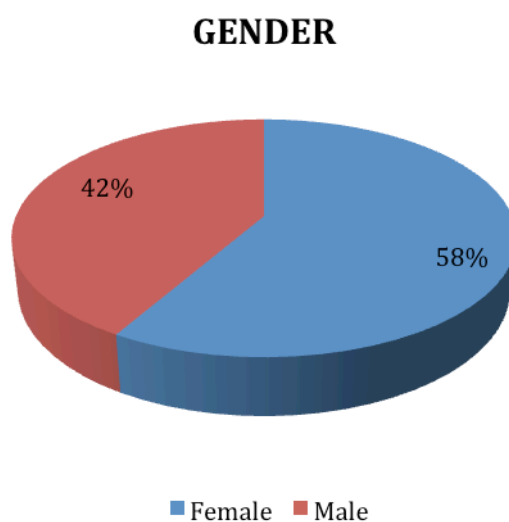
##### **4.3.2.1. Quantitative sample**

The longitudinal quantitative study involves 24 students from the public secondary school, 12 of which belong to a CLIL group and the remaining 12 of which form part of a mainstream EFL group (50% and 50% respectively) (cf. Graph 1).



**Graph 1. Breakdown of the quantitative sample in relation to group**

Taking into consideration the gender of the students, a slightly higher percentage of females can be observed (58%) as compared to males (42%) (cf. Graph 2).

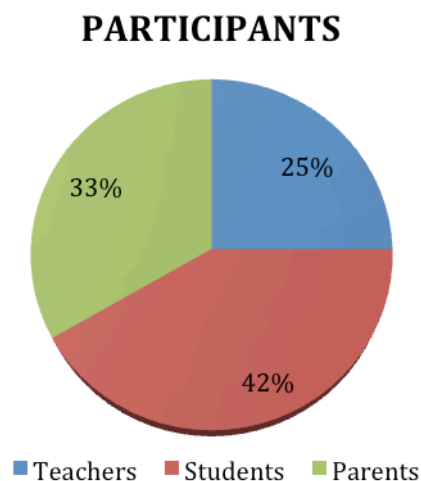


**Graph 2. Breakdown of the quantitative sample in relation to gender**

#### 4.3.2.2. Qualitative sample

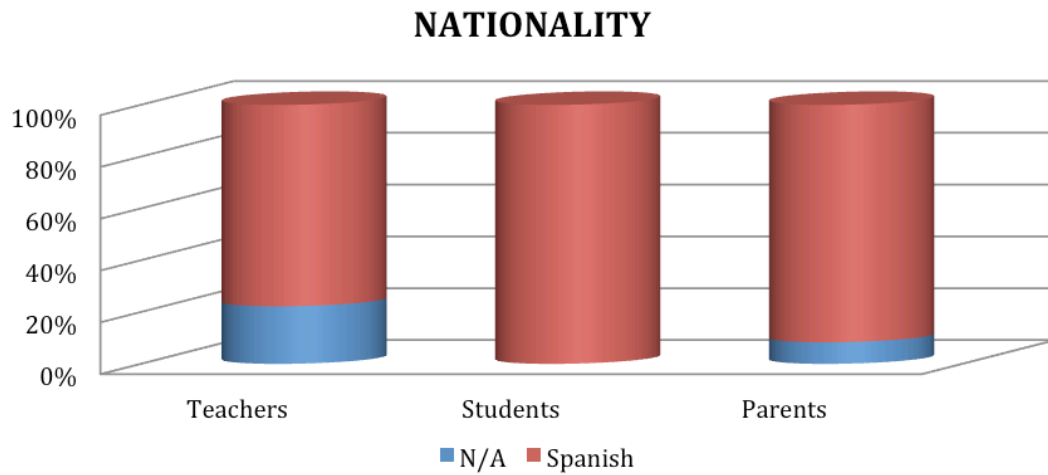
In the qualitative part of the investigation, the sole focus is on the stakeholders directly involved in the APPP (students, non-linguistic area teachers, English language teachers, teaching assistants and parents) with the aim of collating participant opinions to reveal the extent to which they are satisfied with the bilingual programme of the region. This will allow us to reach conclusions in terms of the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, and threats that the CLIL programme evinces.

In contemplating the number of respondents who have completed the questionnaires, students represent almost half of the sample (42%), parents make up a third (33%) and teachers only a quarter (25%) due to the latter always being the minority within one school when all those involved are considered (cf. Graph 3).



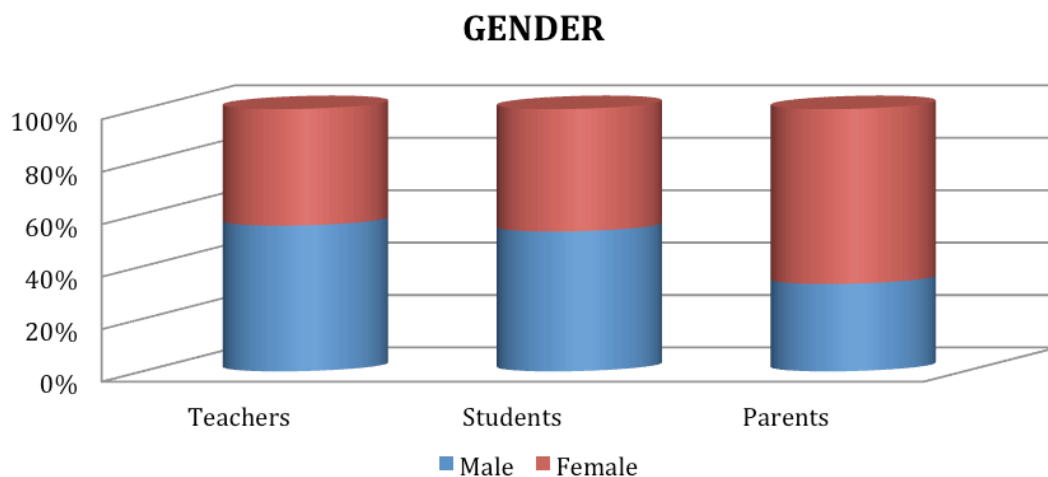
**Graph 3. Breakdown of the qualitative sample in relation to cohort**

Both teachers and parents are principally of Spanish nationality (77.8% for teachers and 91.7% for parents). However, we are presented with a student cohort of only Spanish origin (100%) (cf. Graph 4).



**Graph 4. Breakdown of the qualitative sample in relation to nationality**

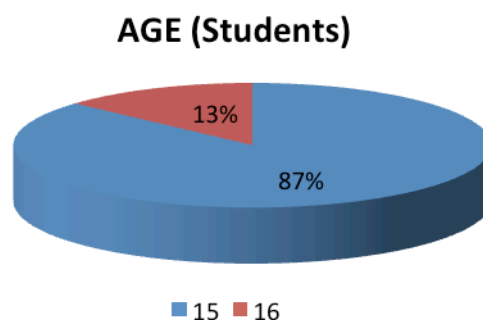
To conclude this preliminary section, taking into consideration the gender of the participants, virtually equal percentages can be witnessed concerning the teachers (55.6% male and 44.4% female) and the students (53.3% male and 46.7% female), whereas the parent cohort presents a higher amount of females than males (66.7% female and 33.3% male) (cf. Graph 5).



**Graph 5. Breakdown of the qualitative sample in relation to gender**

**4.3.2.2.1. Students**

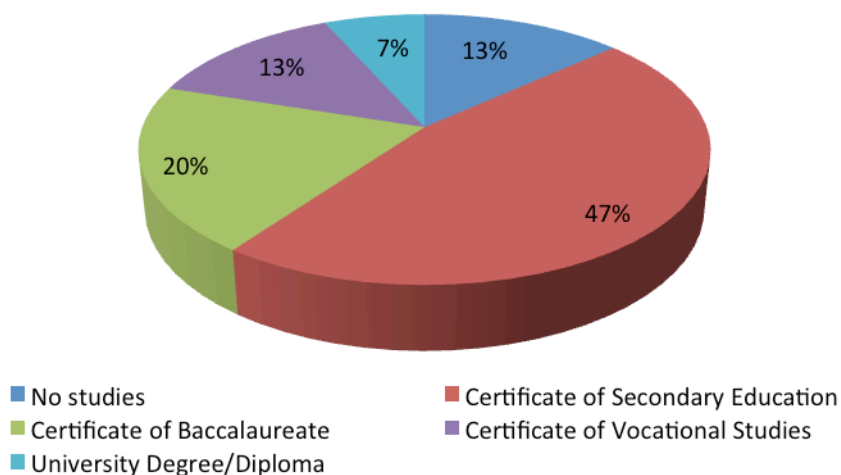
Examining each cohort separately, beginning with the student cohort, we find that the majority of the students are 15 years old, which is the average age of a fourth-grade student (87%). A small percentage of the students who have birthdays earlier in the year have already turned 16 (13%) (cf. Graph 6).



**Graph 6. Age of students**

Not many of the students' parents have either no studies at all or a certificate of vocational studies (both 13%). Even fewer have a university degree/diploma (only 7%). Almost half are in possession of a certificate of secondary education (47%) and a fifth have a Baccalaureate certificate (20%) (cf. Graph 7).

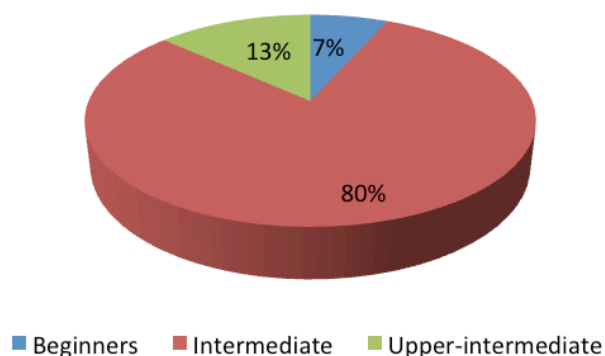
### LEVEL OF STUDIES OF PARENTS (Students)



**Graph 7. Level of studies of students' parents**

On the whole, the students consider themselves to have an intermediate level of English (80%). On the contrary, a small number of students judge themselves to be upper-intermediate (13%), while barely any students are of a beginners level (7%) (cf. Graph 8).

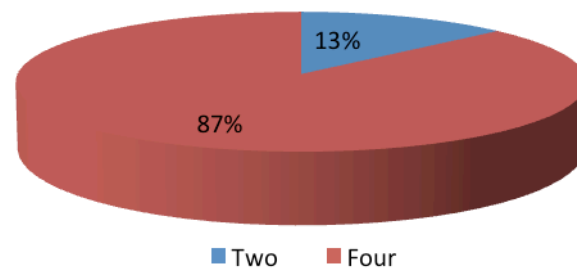
### ENGLISH LEVEL (Students)



**Graph 8. English level of students**

It emerges that most students have studied in a bilingual programme for four years (87%). A much lower number have been enrolled in such a programme for only two years (13%) (cf. Graph 9).

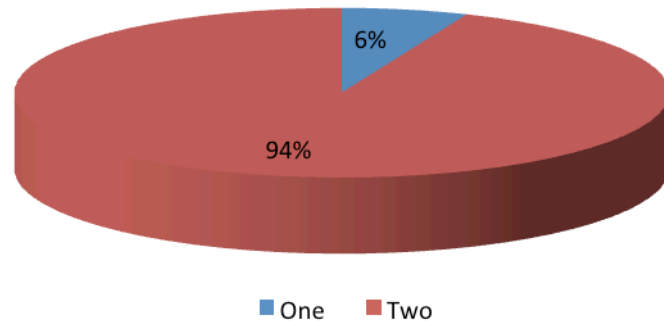
**NUMBER OF YEARS IN A BILINGUAL PROGRAM  
(Students)**



**Graph 9. Students' number of years in a bilingual programme**

The graph shows that the majority of the students study two subjects in English (94%), which is the number of bilingual subjects that correlates to this particular investigation. It can be observed that one subject studied in English counts for a small proportion (6%); however, this could be explained by the fact that some students do not consider some subjects to be bilingual such as those which do not assume the role of core subjects (cf. Graph 10).

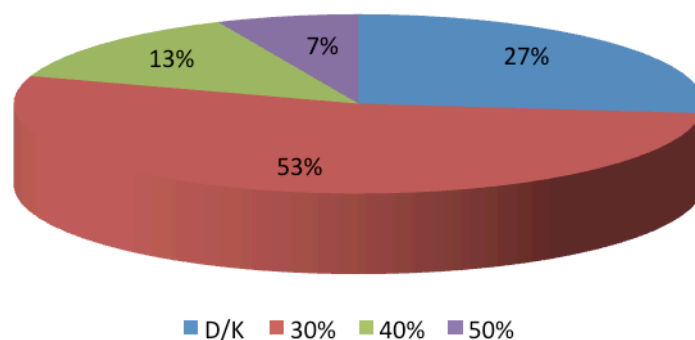
### NUMBER OF SUBJECTS STUDIED IN ENGLISH (Students)



**Graph 10. Number of subjects students study in English**

A variety of percentages are presented concerning the students' exposure to English within school. Most declare that 30% of their learning is taught in English (53%), a small percentage state that it is 40% (13%) and a surprisingly smaller representation of students indicate that they learn half of all curricular content in English (7%), despite government requirements stating 50% as a minimum from 2011. Interestingly, an appreciable number of students are not aware of what percentage of their lessons is taught in English (27%) (cf. Graph 11).

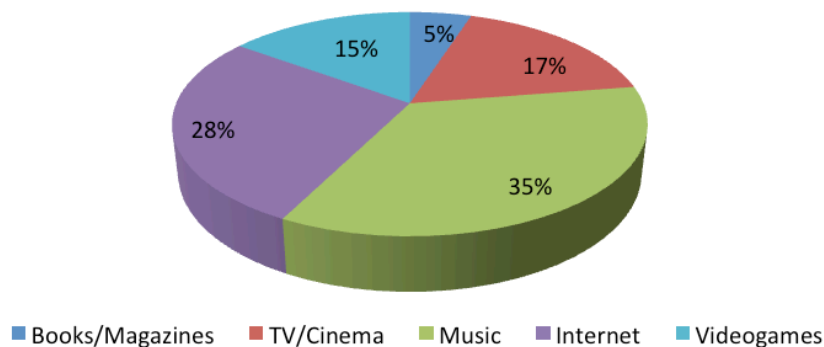
### EXPOSURE TO ENGLISH WITHIN SCHOOL (Students)



**Graph 11. Students' exposure to English within school**

Finally, in connection to exposure to English outside school, the largest category is music (35%), followed by the Internet (28%). Virtually equal percentages of just under one fifth are exposed to English while playing videogames and watching TV/cinema (15% and 17%, respectively), while only small percentages take advantage of books/magazines (5%) to increase their English exposure (cf. Graph 12). These statistics confirm that no supplementary exposure is provided by extra English classes outside of the school environment.

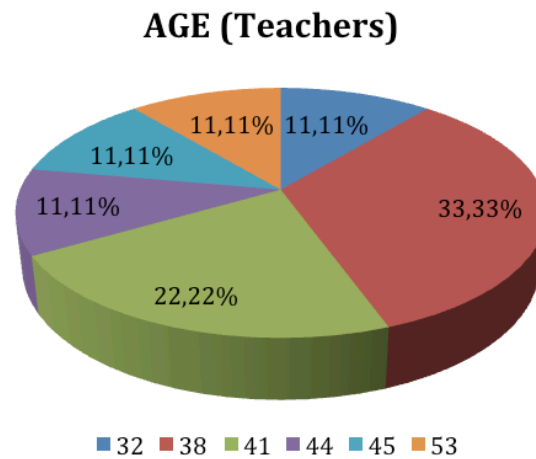
**EXPOSURE TO ENGLISH OUTSIDE SCHOOL (Students)**



**Graph 12 Students' exposure to English outside school**

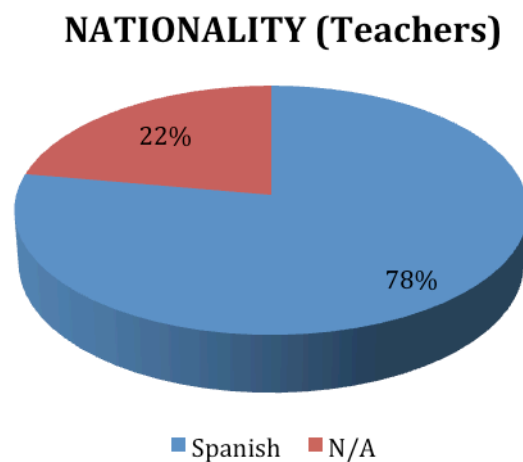
**4.3.2.2.2. Teachers**

The wider range of 11 identification variables for teachers caters for a more precise depiction of the cohort. There is a predominance of teachers with the age of 38 (33.3%) and 41 (22.2%). Equal percentages are obtained for the remaining ages: 32 (11.1%), 44 (11.1%), 45 (11.1%), and 53 (11.1%) (cf. Graph 13).



**Graph 13. Age of teachers**

A wide variation of nationalities cannot be witnessed within the sample. Teachers are primarily Spanish (78%). Other nationalities, if any, are unknown due to respondent's reluctance to specify (cf. Graph 14).

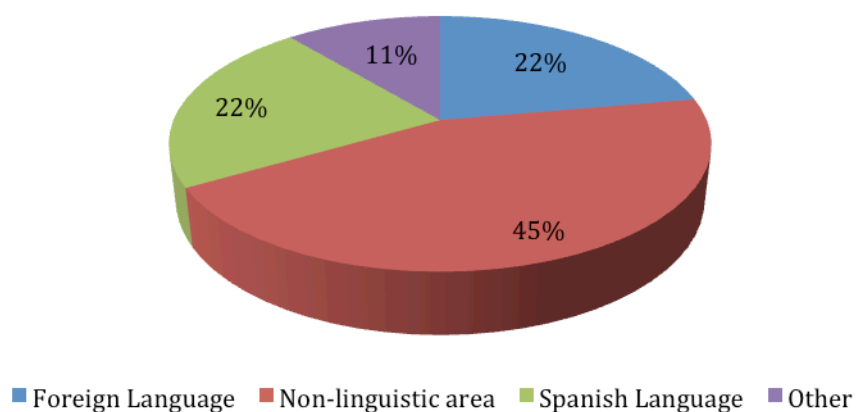


**Graph 14. Nationality of teachers**

Teachers are mainly non-linguistic area teachers (45%) and just under a quarter of all teacher participants are foreign language teachers and those who teach Spanish language to students of the bilingual programme (both 22%). The remaining

group is formed by those who have not provided explicit details regarding this variable (11%) (cf. Graph 15).

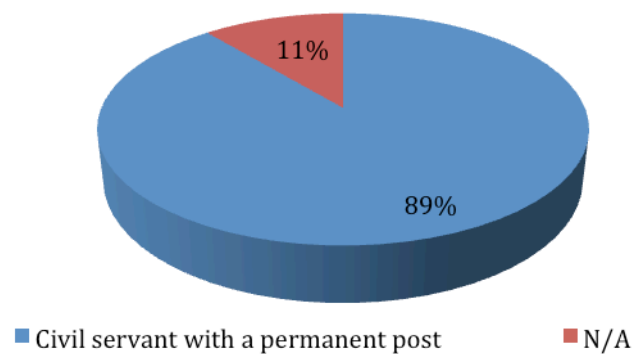
### TYPE OF TEACHER (Teachers)



Graph 15. Type of teachers

Teachers are predominantly civil servants with permanent posts (89%), with a small proportion not stating their position (11%) (cf. Graph 16).

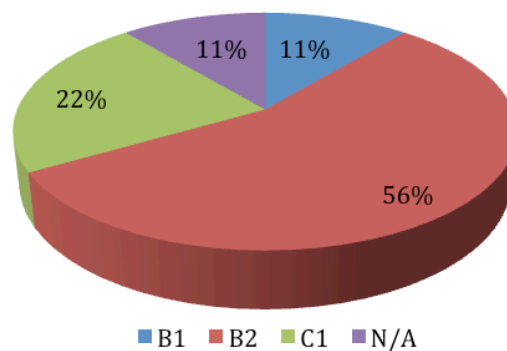
### ADMINISTRATIVE SITUATION (Teachers)



Graph 16. Administrative situation of teachers

The majority of teachers have an adequate level of English (56% have a B2), almost a quarter has an advanced level (22% have a C1) and the lowest amount of teachers have an intermediate level (11% have a B1). The educators claiming to have a B1 will, most likely, fall into the Spanish language teacher category as non-linguistic area teachers must be in possession of a B2 certificate and it is generally assumed that English language teachers are proficient in the FL (cf. Graph 17).

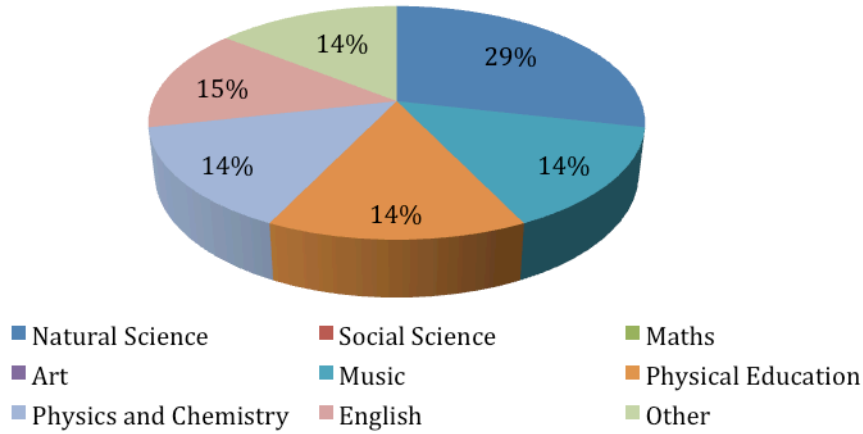
### ENGLISH LEVEL (Teachers)



**Graph 17. English level of teachers**

The main subject taught in English is Natural Science (29%). On the other hand, the subjects taught to a lesser but equal extent in English encompass Physical Education, Music and Physics and Chemistry (all 14%). Other content is also mentioned (also 14%) which does not fall into the options given in the questionnaire: typical subjects in this regard will depend on the particular context of the school and could exist in the form of Ethics or integrated projects developed specifically as part of the bilingual programme (cf. Graph 18).

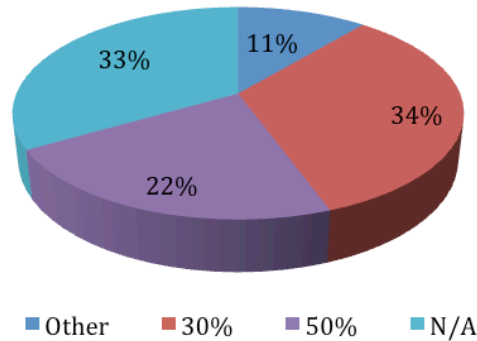
### SUBJECTS TAUGHT IN ENGLISH (Teachers)



**Graph 18. Subjects taught in English by teachers**

Approximately a third of the instructors teach 30% of their subject in English (34%), which, again, constitutes a low percentage given the government specifications, stipulating that 50% of the curriculum must be taught in the FL, coming into effect two years prior to when the questionnaires were administered. Other teachers supersede this percentage, and do comply with the guidelines, in teaching 50% of their subject in English (22%) The remaining teachers either do not allot their teaching time in English to any of these percentages (11%) or do not wish to reveal exactly how much of the content lesson is dedicated to being taught in English (33%) (cf. Graph 19).

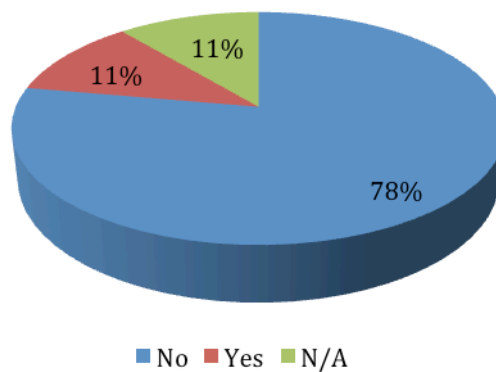
### PERCENTAGE OF SUBJECT TAUGHT IN ENGLISH (Teachers)



**Graph 19. Percentage of the subject taught in English by teachers**

The minority of teachers are bilingual coordinators within the bilingual section (11%); the rest form part of the normal bilingual staff (78%) (cf. Graph 20).

### COORDINATOR OF A BILINGUAL SECTION (Teachers)

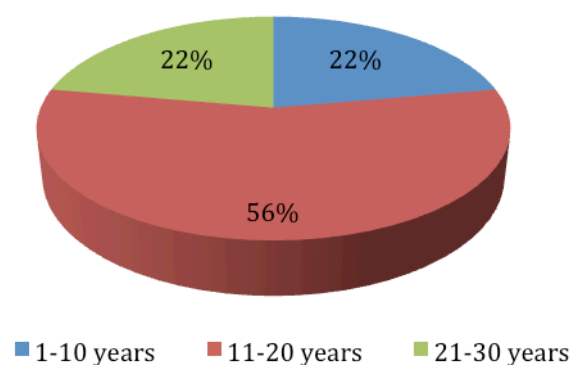


**Graph 20. Coordinator of a bilingual section**

Regarding overall teaching experience, the largest percentage of teachers have been teaching between 11 and 20 years (56%) and an identical number of teachers

have been teaching between 1 and 10 years and 21 and 30 years (both 22%) (cf. Graph 21).

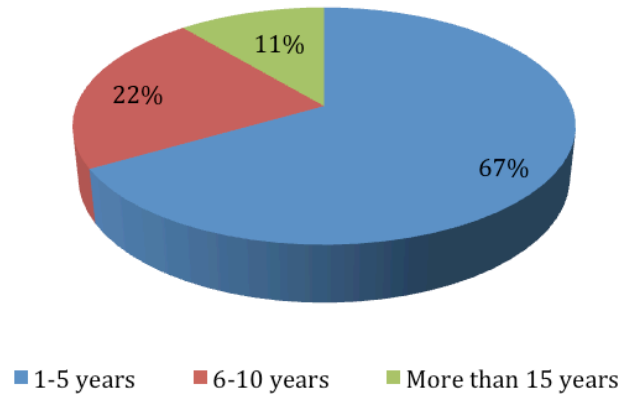
### OVERALL TEACHING EXPERIENCE (Teachers)



**Graph 21. Overall teaching experience of teachers**

To conclude the teacher sample, when exploring bilingual teaching experience, within overall teaching experience, it must be highlighted that the former is significantly more limited. The majority of teachers have between one and five years of bilingual teaching experience (67%), whereas slightly under a quarter have six to ten years (22%) and an even smaller percentage have more than 15 years (11%) (cf. Graph 22). As the APPP has only been implemented in Andalusian schools for ten years, we can assume that some teachers have gained bilingual experience elsewhere.

### BILINGUAL TEACHING EXPERIENCE (Teachers)

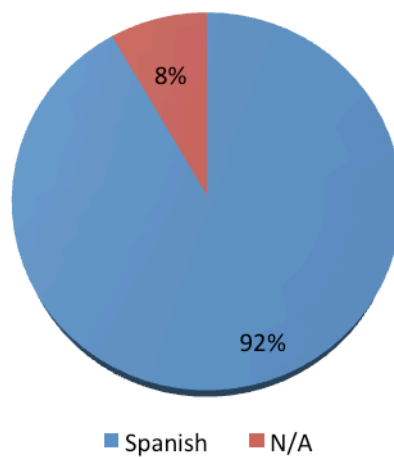


Graph 22. Bilingual teaching experience of teachers

#### 4.3.2.2.3. Parents

Congruent with the teacher sample, no diversity in nationality can be detected for parents. They are principally Spanish (92%), with the remaining percentage (8%) illustrated as unidentified (cf. Graph 23).

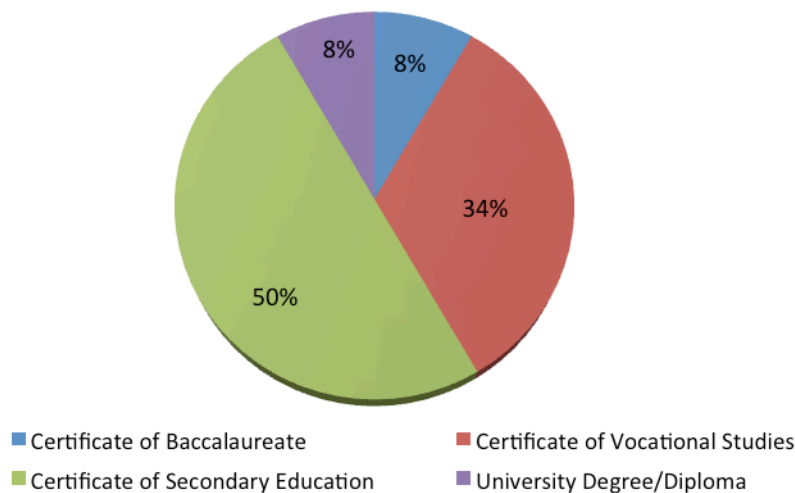
### NATIONALITY (Parents)



**Graph 23. Nationality of parents**

Tallying with the student questionnaires, exactly half of the parents have completed secondary education (50%). However, from the parent perspective, just over a third have a certificate of vocational studies (34%) and proportionate amounts have either a certificate of Baccalaureate or a university degree/diploma (both 8%) (cf. Graph 24). It must be remembered that the student and parent questionnaires may not be congruent as a result of some students being absent on the administration day and not all parents returning the questionnaires to the school for analysis.

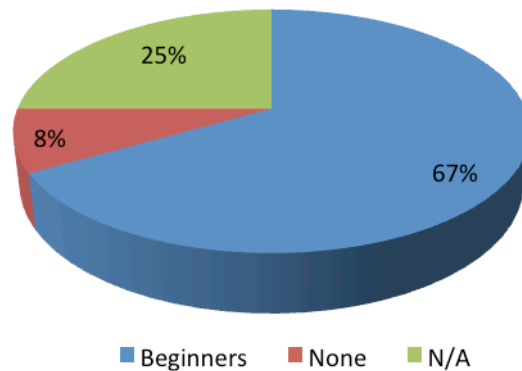
**LEVEL OF STUDIES OF PARENTS (Parents)**



**Graph 24. Level of studies of Parents**

It transpires that most parents view their English as beginners level (67%), a quarter have chosen not to disclose such information (25%) and a small percentage admit to not having any knowledge of English (8%) (cf. Graph 25).

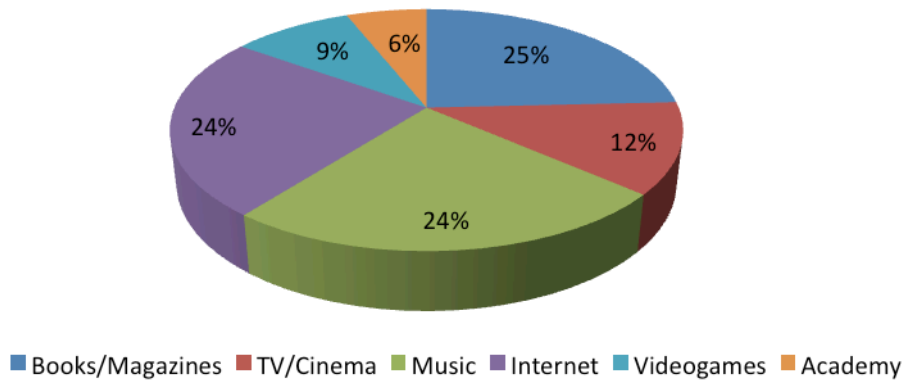
### ENGLISH LEVEL (Parents)



**Graph 25. English level of Parents**

Turning to exposure to English outside school, parents are in agreement with students that the biggest influences come in the form of music and the Internet (both 24%), but they believe books and magazines are consulted to a greater extent (25%), compared to the opinions of students. The use of videogames and TV/cinema exhibit lower percentages (9% and 6%, respectively), in line with student estimations. The fact that academies are mentioned is unforeseen, as this means to gaining more English exposure did not materialize amongst those in the student sample. This gives us reason to believe that parents are merely stating which methods exist to gain exposure to English, as opposed to the ones that apply to their children (cf. Graph 26).

### EXPOSURE TO ENGLISH OUTSIDE SCHOOL (Parents)



Graph 26. Students' exposure to English outside school according to parents

#### 4.3.3. Variables

The *quantitative* part of the study incorporates three types of variables: *dependent*, *independent* and *moderating*. The *dependent* variables encompass the students' English language competence (FL) in terms of oral comprehension and production. The CLIL programme implemented through the APPP, the bilingual plan specific to Andalusian schools, constitutes the *independent* variable. With regard to the *moderating* variable, gender will be considered.

In turn, the *qualitative* investigation integrates parallel sets of *identification (subject) variables*, albeit with minor adaptations to adhere to the specific requirements of the three distinct participants collaborating in the questionnaire. The influence of these variables on the various elements contemplated within the seven blocks incorporated into all cohort questionnaires are directly related to sub-objectives 7 b), c) and d). The variables for each collective –students, teachers and parents- are enumerated below:

**Students:**

- Age
- Gender
- Nationality
- Level of studies of parents
- English level
- Years studied in a bilingual programme
- Subjects studied in English
- Exposure to English within school
- Exposure to English outside of school

**Teachers:**

- Age
- Gender
- Nationality
- Type of teacher (FL, NLA, L1)
- Administrative situation (civil servant with a permanent post, civil servant with a temporary post, supply teacher)
- English level

- Subjects taught in English
- Percentage of subject taught in English
- Bilingual coordinator
- Overall teaching experience
- Bilingual teaching experience
- **Parents:**
- Age
- Gender
- Nationality
- Level of studies
- English level
- Children's exposure to English outside of school

#### **4.3.4. Instruments**

Within the thesis, in order to gather the necessary information, three principal types of instruments have been employed: English language competence tests (to measure students' ability in oral comprehension and production), semi-structured interviews and questionnaires (to gauge participant satisfaction with the bilingual programme in question). According to Brown (2001), tests are classified within *non-survey tools*, whereas the latter two instruments employed are examples of *survey tools*.

To elaborate on the *non-survey tool* involved, we can confirm that two different English language competence tests have been originally designed and validated. Both tests assess the linguistic competence of the quantitative sample of students; while one focuses on evaluating the students' oral comprehension skills, the other determines proficiency in terms of oral production. Recognition or production, or a combination of both, is considered a good test (Heaton, 1975). Following this author's guidelines as a basis to constructing valid and reliable instruments, a listening and a speaking test were created based on the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR), the national Decrees, and the regional Orders, which establish the official curriculum for fourth grade of Compulsory Secondary Education.

Heaton (1975) identifies two basic components of listening activities: phoneme distinction and auditory comprehension. The devised oral comprehension test encompasses both elements and has a preliminary section to evaluate phoneme, stress and intonation (including word stress and syllables, sentence stress and intonation, and contracted forms) and a main part to assess general comprehension (involving true/false, multiple choice and matching questions).

As regards oral comprehension, the most common tasks involve a progression from an interview, to a description exercise, to a topic discussion entailing interaction. In the first phase, students are assessed on providing information on familiar topics and personal experiences. The second stage requires a response to visual stimuli eliciting specific vocabulary in the form of feelings and opinions on the picture provided; this is regarded as more complex, as more sophisticated structures are demanded to fulfil the task successfully, such as analysing, comparing and contrasting. The third and final activity concerns the ability to speak fluently and at

length on given topics and a two-way discussion of agreement and disagreement is necessary (Roca Várela & Palacios Martínez, 2013). It is this particular synthesis upon which our speaking test has been devised, comprising informational and interactional skills (Bygate 1987, as cited in Hughes, 1989).

Test contents are, first and foremost, based on curricular content and specifications of the second cycle of Compulsory Secondary Education (fourth grade in particular). CEFR and APPP objectives are also taken into consideration, albeit to a lesser extent.

Group-administered questionnaires constitute one of the *survey tools* (Brown, 2001) used in this study to gather stakeholder opinions. Three distinct questionnaires, one corresponding to each cohort, have undergone a rigorous design and validation process and have been elaborated in Spanish and English.

With reference to Patton's (1987), as cited in Brown (2001), question types, we have considered it essential to include *demographic* or *background questions* in the first section of the questionnaires in order to obtain a general synopsis of the participants' relevant biographical situation. These aforementioned questions are represented by the identification variables of the study, which are, in turn, regulated to each cohort (cf. section 4.3.3.). *Opinion* or *value questions* (otherwise referred to as attitude questions, according to Rossett, 1982 as cited in Brown, 2001) substantiate the research project's second part, geared at bringing to light student and teacher perceptions regarding various aspects of the APPP. The latter questions are exemplified in the form of 61 items within the student questionnaire, and 70 and 41 items encased in that of the teachers and parents, correspondingly.

According to Brown's typology (2001), the type of questions that the questionnaires employ are *fill-in* and *short-answer* in the first questionnaire component and *alternative answer* and *Likert-scale* (in a bid to counteract the central tendency error, a scale of 1-4 has been devised) in the larger segment. In the posterior part, there is a preference for *closed-response* questions derivable from their practicality, interspersed with a minimum number of *open-response* questions, deemed necessary to be included as an extra option to provide any crucial additional information.

The three different questionnaires deal with practically the same information; however, a differentiation was fundamental in consideration of the defining characteristics of all participant categories. In spite of a slight diversity, most of the items have been matched to allow for a comprehensive comparison of the cohorts.

Questionnaire contents are, in chief, contingent on the underlying principles of the APPE (Junta de Andalucía, 2005), defined by the following seven blocks: *students' use, competence and development of English in class* (15 items for both student and teacher cohorts and 8 for parents); *methodology* (7 items for the student questionnaire, 9 for the teachers and 5 for the parents); *materials and resources and ICT* (11 items for both student and teacher cohorts and 5 for parents); *evaluation* (4 items for both student and teacher cohorts and 2 for parents); *teachers' use, competence and development of English in class (students and parents) / teacher training (teachers)* (15 items for student questionnaires, 19 for teachers and 12 for parents); *mobility* (4 items for students and parents and 5 for teachers); and, finally, *improvement and motivation towards English (students and parents) / coordination and organisation (teachers)* (5 items for the student questionnaire, 7 for the teachers

and 6 for the parents). In conjunction with these APPP principles, research conclusions have also been drawn upon to derive detail, primarily those concerned with the Andalusian bilingual programmes (Lorenzo et al., 2009; Lorenzo, Casal, Moore & Alonso, 2009; Rubio Mostacero, 2009; Cabezas Cabello, 2010; Madrid & Hughes, 2011).

To guarantee methodological triangulation and to act as a supplementary *survey tool*, interviews have also been carried out within the qualitative information-gathering process. Semi-structured interviews with previously prepared clear-cut questions were used, although further elaboration was encouraged to stimulate a detailed insight into stakeholders' views. The questions in the interviews existed as reformulations of the questionnaire content in order to seek opinions corresponding to possible strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats of the CLIL programme.

The ensuing paragraphs map out the three successive stages implicated in the data collection process. We will firstly allude to the design, validation and administration of the test (*quantitative* study) and subsequently describe the design of the questionnaires (complementary *qualitative* investigation), followed by their consequent validation before being administered to the previously cited sample. Information on the interviews will then be adhered to in a separate section.

#### **4.3.5. Quantitative data collection process**

##### **4.3.5.1. Test design**

In order to devise both the oral comprehension and production tests, it was necessary to draw up a summary of the contents based on aspects of skills relevant to the fourth grade of Compulsory Secondary Education. In this way, it was evident

which grammatical structures, lexical items and communicative language functions should be subsumed within the instruments. This was carried out through extensive examination of the national Decrees and the regional Orders pertinent to this distinct grade. A selection of textbooks designed for this particular level of education was explored to ensure the appropriate election of specific language elements and comprehensive coverage of suitable material. The three principal textbooks consulted were *Passport* by Burlington; *Voices* published by Macmillan; and *Spotlight*, a contribution from Oxford publishing house.

Appertaining to the aforementioned content as a basis, the listening test was designed with a two-part structure in mind to, firstly, test the ability of the student to distinguish phonemes when listening to a recording of single utterances in the target language and to, secondly, assess straightforward comprehension in which the students must deduce meanings and draw inferences from brief dialogues (Heaton, 1975).

The part concentrating on phoneme, stress and intonation is divided into three parts: word stress and syllables, and sentence stress and intonation, in which the listener must circle the most stressed syllable in the word or sentence, and contracted forms, involving the circling of the correct form that is heard from a choice of two. The following section consists of three different dialogues containing true/false, multiple choice and matching questions. Such constructs were selected given the students' familiarity with these types of activities.

Turning now to the speaking test, based on Heaton's (1975) recommendations, we have taken into consideration that the best combination for an oral test is the presence of an oral interview complemented by one or two subtests. The two subtests

to accompany the first oral interview task come in the form of an individual speaking exercise (picture description) and a spoken interaction activity (topic discussion).

To expound further on the formation of the comprehensive and well-balanced exam of oral production we have designed, we will now allude to each specific section. The oral interview is worth 40% of the final mark (the most heavily weighted part), as it assesses the performance of students' language ability to perform in an authentic context. As Heaton (1975) claims, "successful communication situations which simulate real-life is the best test of mastery of a language" (p. 6).

The second part (representing 30% of the total mark) entails a careful selection of pictures with a direct bearing on fourth-grade content to instigate the application of the communicative functions of describing, making comparisons, expressing and justifying opinions and expressing preferences. Such exercises, with the added visual aids, help the student to locate the necessary vocabulary and determine the sentence structures they are required to employ.

Finally, the students must engage in a discussion in which two topics are chosen to debate from a selection of six. This last component of the speaking test is entitled 'spoken interaction' due to the involvement of subjects which encourage functions such as giving opinions, agreeing and disagreeing, leading to the interaction of testees. Students were asked to interact with each other and not the assessor, as it has been suggested that, in this way, students show more confidence and perform more effectively because it demands an exchange between equals (Hughes, 2003). Interaction, a main feature in the CEFR, can be characterized by "[...] the ability to initiate discourse, take turns where appropriate, keep the conversation going, invite others in and connect one's own contributions naturally to the discourse" (Roca

Várela & Palacios Martínez, 2013, p. 11). These authors acknowledge that interaction is a skill, which is often ignored in the composition and assessment of oral tests, but deserves full attention due to its ever-increasing importance in European specifications for oral testing.

#### **4.3.5.2. Test validation**

Subsequent to the design of the tests, the first versions were scrutinized by a team of five external experts who assisted in critically assessing their length, difficulty, variety of testing facets, types of inputs, clarity of rubrics and layout. The five specialists possessed proficient knowledge in the field of EFL, CLIL and language testing at this particular level and their titles can be defined as bilingual researchers, university professors experienced in language testing and bilingual coordinators of secondary schools where the APPP is implemented. Feedback was given touching on content, length of tasks, instructions and administration. We will now provide a full report of the suggestions, which have been taken into consideration:

Recommendations in terms of content:

- Inclusion of identification variables in both tests;
- Wider variation of topic choice for the spoken interaction task.

Recommendations as regards length:

- Checking of the recordings to make sure the activities in the listening test are no longer than three minutes.

Recommendations in relation to instructions:

- Rewording of rubrics in the listening comprehension test (e.g. *choose to circle* in the instructions of both the phoneme distinction and auditory comprehension parts).

Recommendations pertaining to administration:

- State orally to the students how the tests will be carried out (e.g. *you will listen to all tasks once and then they will all be repeated a second time. You may write while you are listening and there will be a pause at the end of each activity to give you time to finish writing your answers*).

The significant areas for improvement in this expert ratings approach were amended, producing a second and final version of the tests to be administered. To determine the internal consistency and reliability of the oral instruments, both the Cronbach alpha and the Kuder-Richarson reliability coefficient have been calculated. The former coefficient was estimated at 0.716 and the latter measured 0.822, thereby testifying to the internal validity and reliability of the instruments designed.

The tests are also deemed reliable in line with certain conditions put forward by Heaton (1975) and Hughes (1989). In calibrating the content to guarantee successful student performance, we have assured that a substantial number of tasks have been incorporated and well-organised, and that clear and concise instructions exist explicitly on paper and are read out to students to avoid any confusion. It can be confirmed that all students were familiar with the format and testing techniques implicated and a high degree of standardisation could be witnessed in the administration of the instruments.

The external experts granted their seal of approval justifying content validity due to the fact that the a careful analysis of the language being tested was undertaken at an early stage to generate a representative sample of language skills in accordance with course content and specialized literature. Both tests are available for consultation in appendices I (oral comprehension test) and II (oral production test).

#### **4.3.5.3. Test administration**

The sequential phase following the design and validation of the tests was one in which the administration was executed. Over the period of one academic year and six months following the conclusion of an intervention programme, the tests were applied: the pre-tests took place in September 2012, the post-tests were carried out in June 2013 and, to conclude the application, the delayed post-tests were completed in January 2014.

The process of administering the oral comprehension and production tests took place over the course of a few days at each stage. The delayed post-test required a longer time span given that the students had progressed to studying Baccalaureate in a different educational centre and the logistics proved more difficult to control.

The listening tests were group-administered in one sitting under the same conditions each time. Only one testing room was used to warrant an identical acoustic environment without distractions with parallel timings throughout. Students were continually put at ease and reminded that the outcome had no direct effect on their end of year grade.

Effectuating the oral production tests involved a more lengthy process. The students were examined in pairs, with individual subtasks lasting up to five minutes,

implying a total time of between ten to fifteen minutes. Recordings of the assessments were made for subsequent consultation to facilitate scoring. It was regarded optimum for the class teacher to act as the examiner, as she was seen as a trustworthy, familiar figure and a realistic part of the students' life, which aids in keeping the students calm and focused. External examiners tend to provoke tension and the set-up can be considered artificial (Heaton, 1975). It is upon this pretence that the researcher of the study, also the class teacher of the students, played the role of the interviewer.

#### **4.3.5.4. Test assessment**

As a result of oral production stealing the spotlight as the most complex skill to assess (Roca Várela & Palacio Martínez, 2013) and, in addition, having a tendency to be highly subjective (Heaton, 1975), it was essential that the specific criteria to be considered when it came to scoring were established alongside the actual oral test and were formulated in harmony with its content. North (1996), as cited in Luoma (2004), refers to the construction of oral rating systems as “[...] trying to describe complex phenomena in a small number of words on the basis of incomplete theory” (Chapter four).

In this respect, a detailed marking scheme was fabricated taking into account a variety of factors. An analytical scale was opted for to elicit a valid sample of oral abilities and provide a range of scores for each. This type of scoring system allows the assessor to identify an even development and wider coverage of sub-skills, assimilating a higher number of scores to increase reliability (Hughes, 2003). Luoma (2004) adds that analytical scales paint a clearer picture of the strengths and weaknesses of each individual testee, providing further validation.

This author also accommodates the test assembler with advice on which steps to take when creating test-specific criteria. Firstly, the purpose for testing must be identified; a preference must be chosen as regards whether to use a holistic or analytical scale; any existing scales should be considered as a reference; modifications and amalgamations of these aforesaid scales should be produced; and, to complete the process, trials must be run. In the assembling of the assessment criteria, this explicit procedure has been followed to compose five distinct criteria orientated to the skills we wish to examine (grammatical range and accuracy, lexical range and accuracy, fluency and interaction, pronunciation, stress and intonation and task fulfilment/appropriacy of response/communicative effectiveness), each comprising five level descriptors.

The level descriptors integrate five statements for each criterion, which are closely linked to the tasks of the test. Each descriptor has a score of 0.5 points with a maximum of two points corresponding to each individual skill. They have been devised applying brief and concrete descriptions of the level. We can also state that they are comprehensible independently and aim to promote positive language to explain what the student can do as opposed to what they cannot (Luoma, 2004).

The end product can be described as an original scoring tool to appropriately assess the students' L2 competence in oral comprehension and production skills. The existing scales used as the foundations to assist in customising a novel scale were extracted from the CEFR (various scales at A1/A2 level), Cambridge English Language Assessment (Key English Test level - A2) and Trinity College London examinations (Integrated Skills in English/Foundation level - A2). Appendix III presents the assessment criteria score sheet.

#### **4.3.6. Qualitative data collection process**

The questionnaires used in this study are those which were designed, validated and administered in an investigation on stakeholder perspectives conducted by Lancaster (2012). Exactly how these survey tools were formulated and given validation is fleshed out below. In the interest of the current research, it was fundamental to insert additional items into the student and teacher questionnaires subject to the precise objectives in question, impinging on oral comprehension and production skills. Furthermore, a parent version was generated to capture a third stakeholder's outlook on the horizon; this was purely based on the revised student variant with minor adaptations.

##### **4.3.6.1. Questionnaire design**

Many aspects were considered in relation to the design of the items in the survey questionnaire in order to aid the posterior analysis of the data. Brown's (2001) guidelines were taken into consideration to guarantee a sound end product, requiring special attention to issues such as form, meaning and the respondents in question.

Concerning form, we ensured that questions were not too wordy, always checking that there was no ambiguity present. Nor were items formulated in an unclear or incomplete manner. In line with meaning, no double-barrelled, loaded or biased questions were included and, with regard to respondents, special care was taken to elaborate specific, answerable and relevant items. Moreover, questions were grouped into thematic blocks and presented adequately accompanied by any instructions which were necessary. Finally, the items underwent an editing process, which will be explained at a subsequent stage (cf. heading 4.3.6.2.).

On account of our survey's chief objective to evaluate student, teacher and parent perceptions of the APPP, the content questions in the seven blocks of each questionnaire were primarily based on the Plan's existing principles and the multiple actions put forward (cf. heading 3.3.2.) to establish an effective bilingual programme. Up-to-date research on bilingual education, CLIL and the APPP itself also influenced the formulation of the items.

*Students' use, competence and development of English in class* is of prime importance due the prevailing objective of improving the L2, L1, L3, content subject matter and cultural competence, as stated in the *bilingual schools programme* (cf. heading 3.3.2.). Even though positive outcomes have been documented in this respect (Lorenzo et al., 2009; Cabezas Cabello, 2010; Madrid & Hughes, 2011), since the aforementioned aspects constitute the ultimate aim of a bilingual programme, further research is certainly called for. APPP methodology explicitly states the promotion of the mother tongue and reflection upon the connection of all languages by students as one of the actions to be fulfilled; therefore, items were included to this effect. Affective attitudes are also revealed to be positively influenced by CLIL, explored by Coyle (2006) in a European context; Grisaleña (2009) and Lasagabaster (2009), as cited in Lasagabaster and Ruiz de Zarobe (2010), from a Spanish perspective; and Rubio Mostacero (2009) and Cabezas Cabello (2010) dealing directly with the APPP. Once again, this is in need of further investigation. Lastly, items referring to the four blocks of contents for the Compulsory Secondary Education stage regarding foreign languages (Royal decree 1631/06) are present in order to assure they are being complied with and have not been set aside in any way.

Dueñas (2004) enthuses about the numerous advantages of cooperative learning, a methodological approach taken on board by the APPP in the form of tasks and projects. However, information is needed to exhibit to what extent these types of techniques are being put into practice; hence the items belonging to the *methodology* block. Adapting to the CEFR and student use of the ELP are also pivotal methodological requirements of the APPP (cf. heading 3.3.4.), which demand close control as to whether they are being implemented to their full potential, or even adopted at all.

To obtain a clearer idea as to which materials are employed in the classroom, what they consist of and how they are rated by students, the block entitled *materials, resources and ICT* was included. It is essential to find out if the guidelines with regard to methodology proposed in the APPP are being reached (cf. heading 3.3.4.). Cabezas Cabello (2010) pinpoints materials amongst the weaknesses in his SWOT analysis, testifying to their scarcity.

*Evaluation* is vital in all respects, especially within a novel programme, to provide an insight into how students are reacting to new and unfamiliar circumstances. It is essential, first of all, to determine if evaluation in the foreign language is carried out. Only then can we delve deeper to examine if APPP recommendations such as communicative competences and content are being given priority and diversified evaluation models are adhered to.

In order to elicit opinions on the *teachers' use, competence and development in class* (student and parent questionnaire) and on *teacher training* (teacher questionnaire), the fifth block was incorporated. With reference to the former aspect, we aim at provoking an overall rating of all existing bilingual teacher roles by the

students and parents, attributable to APPP principles, and also of teachers' linguistic proficiency. Lorenzo et al. (2009) reported on teachers' low linguistic level, highlighting that the majority possess a B2 level or below according to CEFR levels. As regards the latter teacher-oriented block, our mission is for the bilingual teachers to self-assess themselves and their colleagues especially in terms of training needs in light of numerous authors underscoring notable lacunae in teacher training (Victorí & Vallbono, 2008 as cited in Ruiz de Zarobe & Lasagabaster, 2010; Rubio Mostacero, 2009; Cabezas Cabello, 2010; Pérez Cañado, 2014). This last author points to shortcomings in training concerning CLIL theoretical underpinnings, a second dimension that was included in the questionnaire to further probe training requirements. Vazquez (2007) voices the need for these obstacles to be overcome and claims that "it is indispensable that the current generation receive CLIL training" (p. 102).

Student and teacher mobility constitute fundamental goals within the general objectives of the APPP, to which the government dedicates substantial amounts of funding in the provision of grants. We need enlightenment as to whether these initiatives are being fully taken advantage of. Opinions and attitudes towards these topics were drawn forth in the block pertaining to *mobility*.

There have been concerns about the responsibility, workload and effort not being compensated by the beneficial outcomes implied (Rubio Mostacero, 2009; Cabezas Cabello, 2010). On these grounds, a final block directed to gathering opinions on this and other general matters connected to the bilingual programme was included: *improvement and motivation towards learning English* (student and parent questionnaire) and *coordination and organisation* (teacher questionnaire).

#### 4.3.6.2. Questionnaire validation

A double pilot procedure was adopted in the editing and validation of the questionnaires which entailed, firstly, the collaboration of a team of experts and, secondly, a representative sample group of respondents. Regarding phase one, the initial draft of the survey in both English and Spanish was subject to the expert ratings approach, in which five external experts provided their invaluable opinions on the survey tool designed by the researcher. Such experts, whose principal duty was to detect possible anomalies within the questionnaire, comprised professional figures related to the topic under investigation: a bilingual researcher, bilingual teachers and coordinators and one survey expert. They were all in uniform agreement about the clarity of the instructions and the actual length of the survey; however, they did suggest numerous ways by which to improve content. An outline containing all of the propositions, which were assumed, is set out below:

General comments:

- Elimination of an identification variable (e.g. type of school in the student questionnaire);
- Elimination of certain items due to overlapping of questions (e.g. an item in the *evaluation* block concerning CEFR and ELP already mentioned in block II, and an item in the *coordination and organisation* block on collaboration already mentioned in block III, both in the teacher questionnaire);
- Reorganisation of certain items to achieve consistency between the two cohort questionnaires (e.g. the first three items in the *materials, resources and ICT* thematic block of both questionnaires);

- Spelling out of certain acronyms (e.g. CEFR or ELP in items 22 and 23 of the teacher questionnaire);
- Modification of the age ranges devised to avoid overlap (e.g. items 12 and 13 in the teacher questionnaire);

Comments for the English version of the questionnaire:

- Correction of typological errors;
- Rewording of certain items (e.g. *destination* to *post* and *intern* to *supply teacher* in identification variable five of the teacher questionnaire; *necessary* to *used* in item 19 of both questionnaires; *linguistic* to *language* in items 37 and 40 of the student questionnaire and 39 and 42 of the teacher one)

Comments for the Spanish version of the questionnaire:

- Addition of certain definite articles in both questionnaires;
- Alteration of some prepositions in both questionnaires;
- Correction of agreements in both questionnaires;
- Rewording of numerous items (e.g. *cuánto* to *qué porcentaje* in identification variable 9 of the student questionnaire and 10 of the teacher one; *educación bilingüe* to *programa bilingüe* throughout both questionnaires; *tener entusiasmo* to *interesarse* in item 10 of both questionnaires; *tomar en cuenta* to *tener en cuenta* in item 29 of the teacher questionnaire; *conocimiento* to *dominio* in item 36 of the teacher questionnaire; *enseñar* to *impartir* in items 37, 38 and 39 of the student questionnaire; *diversa* to *diversificada* in item 38)

of the teacher questionnaire; *recompensar* to *compensar* in item 52 of the student questionnaire and 59 of the teacher one; *comunicar* to *comunicarse* in item 62 of the teacher questionnaire).

The alteration of the questionnaires predicated on the advice of the referees brought about a second version of the surveys, which were then administered to a representative sample, constituting the second part of the piloting. The mentioned sample was formed by 22 students, one FL teacher, three NLA teachers, one TA and one bilingual coordinator, all of which embraced the same characteristics as the target participants of the whole study. The opportunity to observe this procedure in person allowed confusions to surface, to be solved in the moment and noted down as a reference to further edit the questionnaires for a final time. It was then possible to deduce a calculation of Cronbach alpha for each individual questionnaire to reveal an estimable degree of reliability or internal consistency in the form of the high coefficients of 0.9283 for the student questionnaire and 0.8988 for the teacher equivalent. The corresponding parent questionnaire also presents an equally estimable coefficient of 0.9753.

Content validity can also be accounted for due to the fact that the questionnaires are based entirely on the specifications of the APPP, along with input from relevant research outcomes from studies of a similar nature. The final versions of the questionnaires can be consulted in appendices IV (student questionnaire), V (teacher questionnaire) and VI (parent questionnaire). The English versions have been omitted from the appendices, as they have not been a requisite of this study.

#### **4.3.6.3. Questionnaire administration**

In the present investigation, the post-test stage (June 2013) coincided with the administration of the student, teacher and parent questionnaires. Nearing the end of the intervention programme was a crucial point in time to detect the stakeholder perspectives. It was possible to group-administer the questionnaire to determine student opinions. However, the teacher and parent counterparts had to be distributed individually, which implicated a longer time period of retrieval. Numerous follow-up emails and phone calls were necessary to improve the rate of return, which proved to be adequate given the limited sample with which we were working.

#### **4.3.6.4. Interviews**

To accompany the previously mentioned questionnaires, semi-structured interviews were used as a second qualitative tool. Their design and validation was completed on behalf of researchers working on the following studies:

1. *Los Efectos del Aprendizaje Integrado de Contenidos y Lenguas Extranjeras en Comunidades Monolingües: Un Estudio Longitudinal* (FFI2012-32221), financed by the *Ministerio de Economía y Competitividad* within its Subprograma de Proyectos de Investigación Fundamental, VI Plan Nacional de Investigación Científica, Desarrollo e Innovación Tecnológica 2008-2011.
2. *The effects of Content and Language Integrated Learning in monolingual communities: A large-scale evaluation* (P12-HUM-2348), financed by the *Junta de Andalucía* within its Programa de Proyectos de Investigación de Excelencia en Equipos de Investigación (Orden de 11 de diciembre de 2007. Convocatoria 2012).

In order to gauge participants' perceptions, questions corresponding to the APPP's positive and negative aspects were included. Embodying original instruments, the interviews are based on specialized literature on the topic to guarantee their validity of content. The different sections are parallel to those of the questionnaires in order to assure comparability. They have, subsequently, been subject to the rigorous expert ratings approach (system of judges), through which nine experts in the field (three belonging to each educational level: primary, secondary and tertiary education) have revised the original versions and responded with what should be improved upon. All the suggestions (which have included the adding, dividing, clarifying, or substituting of certain items) have been incorporated into the final versions.

The interviews were carried out following on from the collection of the questionnaires. They were all face-to-face and in focus groups. Two subgroups of students were allocated approximately 30 minutes for the researcher to record the main ideas which emerged in the protocol. Only one group of teachers and parents were necessary due to a small number of participants. Each group was presented with clear instructions and the objectives of the project as an introduction and then the researcher proceeded to ask the questions section by section.

For the qualitative analysis of the interviews, grounded theory (Glaser & Strauss 1967) has been employed to code the data and draw meaning from it. Grounded theory is an inductive form of qualitative research which allows core theoretical concept(s) to be identified and tentative linkages to be developed between the theoretical core concepts and the data. In order to categorize, synthesize, and identify emerging patterns in the open-response data, three analytic strategies have been employed within it:

1. Once transcribed, the data emerging from the interviews was initially coded in order to categorize, systematize, and reduce it to manageable dimensions. This was done through three types of coding, following Strauss & Corbin (1990). Open coding was the preliminary process of “breaking down, examining, comparing, conceptualizing and categorizing data” (1990, p. 61). Thus, this initial type of coding enabled a systematic procedure of “generating ideas” by closely inspecting and examining data. The next phase, axial coding, refers to “a set of procedures whereby data are put back together in new ways after open coding, by making connections between categories” (1990, p. 96). Finally, selective coding involved “selecting the core category, systematically relating it to other categories, and filling in categories that need further refinement and development” (1990, p. 116). The process of coding refers to labelling a sentence, paragraph or chunk of text with a code in order to make it manageable. The data was coded and re-coded after reading through it numerous times until a final ‘pattern code’ is developed. As Dörnyei explains, “as a result of revisiting the data a number of times, some salient content categories emerge, linked to various data segments” (2007, p. 251).
2. During this process of re-coding and revisiting data, memoing occurred, as thoughts and ideas which evolved throughout the study were recorded (via, for instance, extensive marginal notes and comments). At the outset of the process, these memos tended to be very open, but then increasingly focused on the core concept. What

Brown (2001) terms data display through, e.g., matrices, also came into play in this second stage.

3. Finally, conclusions were drawn and verified, to help make sense of the data with respect to the emerging theory.

#### **4.3.6.5. Conclusion**

To conclude this section outlining the qualitative data collection process, we are able to document that three necessary conditions pertinent to the practice of qualitative research (Denzin, 1994 as cited in Brown, 2001) have been conformed to. *Credibility* has been assured by means of prolonged engagement and persistent observation of the informants to establish a professional rapport and engender trust in the researcher, and time has also been invested in becoming familiarized with the cultural context in which the survey tool has been administered. An in-depth, detailed account of the research in question has guaranteed *transferability* to allow the readers to verify for themselves the extent to which transferability is justified. Finally, *confirmability* has been endorsed with record-keeping in the form of personal notes and retention and storage of the data collected. Essentially, the design, validation and administration of the qualitative instruments have yielded the attainment of objective

3.

#### **4.3.7. Intervention programme**

The successive phase to the administration of the pre-tests, which led to the establishment of homogeneity of the experimental (CLIL) and control (EFL) groups, can be identified as the intervention programme. This can also be referred to as the *independent* variable, earlier described as the CLIL programme within the bilingual

plan of Andalusia, which was implemented in the secondary school where the investigation has taken place. Perfect conditions for comparability are substantiated on the basis of the two groups being subject to congruous contexts with the same EFL teacher, subject only to a divergent methodology. The experimental group formed part of the APPP initiative, receiving fourth grade subject content lessons through the medium of English, in addition to traditional EFL lessons, as opposed to just the latter, which constituted the only FL input received by the control group.

The two subjects in which the CLIL students received a percentage of the content in English were Physical Education and Ethics. Two hours were dedicated to each of these disciplines per week in the school timetable and one hour of these was devoted to teaching the subject in English. Methodology traits in this bilingual stream transpired as essentially communicative. In both subjects, the focus of the lessons was to research into a given field and, then, to discuss findings and prepare oral presentations which would later be delivered to the rest of the class. The materials exploited in Physical Education were extracted from previously designed didactic units available for purchase from publishing houses or downloaded from CLIL support websites. On the other hand, the teacher of Ethics originally designed her own materials to correspond to the course objectives. While the L1 took predominance from an evaluation point of view in Physical Education, the L2 was considered when assessing students in Ethics; however, this was based upon daily classwork and the presentations they had prepared and presented during each term.

It is necessary to point out that in the interval between the administration of the post-tests and the delayed post-tests, the students which formed the sample of the investigation progressed to their first year of a Baccalaureate course in a higher

education college. In contrast to the medium-sized, rural centre in which they had completed their Compulsory Secondary Education, the posterior educational context is urban and encompasses two educational levels (Compulsory Secondary Education and Baccalaureate) rather than just one (Compulsory Secondary Education). Within the syllabus for curricular content at this level, Philosophy and Contemporary World Science comprised the subjects taught in English. In harmony with the CSE system, exactly half of the total time allotted is expected to be taught through the vehicular language of English.

With reference to the EFL classes, in which English is the sole focus and no integrated methodology of content and language is present, nuances in approach ensued between the two groups. The first principal difference, which had a knock-on effect on other factors, was that the CLIL group's lessons were directed to the language laboratory in which an interactive whiteboard with speakers, a desktop computer and bilingual library were accessible, whereas the EFL group's English classes took place in a traditional classroom with just a blackboard and chalk.

The aforementioned situation obviously affected the way in which lessons could be conducted, providing significant advantages on the part of the CLIL branch. Methodology in the experimental group could be illustrated as, primarily, communicative. The target language was used roughly 80% of the time, with the remaining 20% applied to behaviour management, exam specifications and important notices in Spanish. Student-centred and independent learning conventions were fostered with a focus on task-based learning to encourage collaborative work and an active environment. Due to the fact that the EFL teacher was a native speaker of English, there was a strong presence of the socio-cultural and cultural awareness

components. ‘Real English’ was also fostered in the form of authentic materials to enhance meaningful learning. An overview of a typical CLIL week of EFL classes is delineated below:

- *Monday* – grammar focus in context.
- *Tuesday* – consolidation of topic vocabulary (curriculum content) through traditional exercises and accommodated by means of realia.
- *Wednesday* – literature day facilitated by bilingual graded readers purchased with funding specifically designated to bilingual sections.
- *Thursday* – Trinity College London Integrated Skills in English preparation to guide students in their development of oral and written production competence with a view to registering to sit the official examination to achieve an A2 level of English certificate based in the CEFR (TA support in class).
- *Friday* – ‘Real English’ day to promote the use of authentic and attractive materials to motivate students in their learning of the foreign language. The activities involved exploiting original TV series, films, songs and occasionally magazines, books and games, albeit to a lesser extent. *Edmodo* was appointed the social network tool to be able to complete activities based on the real English input for homework. It was also possible to communicate with each other and the teacher in the FL whenever the need arose.

As previously mentioned, culture was intertwined into the majority of the activities and sometimes involved the deliverance of a project or presentation in front of the rest

of the class. Examples that can be cited are a PowerPoint on the contrasting cultures of English-speaking countries or a British baking competition.

The non-CLIL group did take part in these cultural tasks if it was logistically possible (through the booking of ICT rooms) and were regularly involved in the ‘real English’ day; however, no literature books were available for these students, and they could not take advantage of the Trinity exam practice, as the hour dedicated to this was founded as part of the bilingual programme and was denominated ‘*integrated project*’, which resulted in the EFL students never coming into contact with the TA (who was only timetabled for CLIL classes and on some occasions EFL lessons of the CLIL groups). The EFL group’s lessons, functioning with limited resources, centred on text book activities involving the four skills: reading, writing, listening and speaking, with incorporated grammar and vocabulary activities. The target language use for the latter group was reduced to around 50%.

#### **4.3.8. Data analysis: statistical methodology**

A statistical analysis of the data has been performed with the aid of the SPSS programme in its 21.0 version. The data derived from the qualitative part of the study will be analysed statistically (in the case of the closed-response items in the questionnaires) and through grounded theory analysis via data coding, memoing, and conclusion drawing (for the responses of the semi-structured interviews). An account of the specific operations used in the analysis, in relation to both the qualitative and quantitative research objectives of the study will now be indicated.

- Objectives 1 and 2: The internal consistency and reliability of the oral comprehension and production tests has been ascertained through the calculation of the Cronbach alpha and Kuder-Richardson coefficients.
- Objective 3: To determine the reliability or internal consistency of the questionnaires, Cronbach alpha has also been calculated for all versions of the questionnaire, which is considered as an effective instrument when dealing with Likert-scale answers analogous to the responses contained in the questionnaires of this investigation.
- Objectives 4 and 5: To detect the existence of statistically significant differences between and within the experimental (CLIL) and control (mainstream EFL) groups (thereby guaranteeing homogeneity) and in terms of the moderating variable considered, the generalized linear model (GLM), the Bonferroni correction and the t test have been employed.
- Objective 6 a) to g): The interpretation of the results entails the use of raw data, percentages and graphs. The descriptive statistics which can be observed in the analysis are as follows:
  - Central tendency measures:
    - Mean
    - Median
    - Mode
  - Dispersion measures:

- Range
  - Low-high
  - Standard deviation
- Objective 7 (a-d): In order to detect the existence of statistically significant differences between and within the three cohorts in terms of the identification variables the Mann-Whitney U test and the Kruskal-Wallis test have been employed.

CHAPTER 5  
RESULTS AND DISCUSSION



### 5.1. Introduction

In this section, the results will be decoded and discussed resorting to the analyses mentioned above and reference will also be made to the specialised literature review (cf. chapter 3). To begin with, we will present the outcomes of the *quantitative* side of the study, inclusive of an across- and a within-cohort comparison.

The across-cohort comparison reveals if there is a linguistic competence differential between the experimental (CLIL) group and the control (EFL) group at all three stages of the research (pre-, post- and delayed post-tests) and also determines the modulating effect exerted on the students' oral comprehension and production by the intervening variable of gender.

Contrastively, the within-cohort comparison allows us to visualise each group individually in order to trace the evolution of their oral comprehension and production skills by determining if there are any statistically significant differences from the pre- to the post- to the delayed post-test phases.

The conclusions stemming from the *qualitative* part of the investigation will set forth the student, teacher and parent perceptions, first of all from a global point of view (by inspection of the items within each thematic block). This will be complemented by a specific analysis taking into account the various identification variables aligned to each stakeholder. To identify any significantly statistical differences among the three cohorts, a comparison will be made on all of the common questionnaire items.

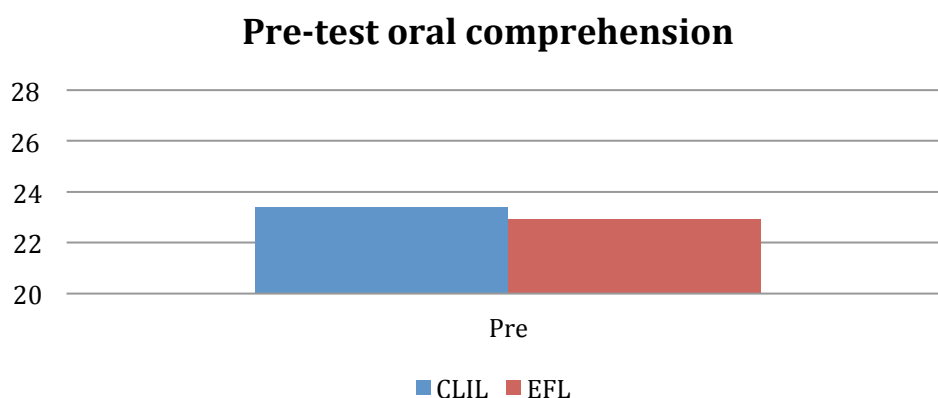
## 5.2. Across-cohort comparison

### 5.2.1. Pre-test

To set the analysis in motion, we turn to an examination of listening skills at the pre-test stage. It is clear on inspection of the data that no statistically significant differences can be located between the experimental and the control groups, as regards the global mark and specific to each individual task, allowing us to ascertain that the both the CLIL and the EFL groups are perfectly matched and, therefore, constitute fully homogenous samples. Practically identical means can be distinguished (23.417 for the CLIL group and 22.917 for the EFL one), and the fact that this homogeneity has been statistically corroborated is crucial for the validity of the study, superseding all other studies hitherto in which groups have not been matched at the outset (cf. Tables 1 and 2 and Graph 27).

<b>ORAL COMPREHENSION OVERALL MARK</b>	Group	Mean	Standard deviation	N	<i>p value</i>
<b>Pre-test</b>	CLIL	23.417	3.0289	12	0.637
	EFL	22.917	1.9752	12	
	Total	23.167	2.5137	24	

Table 1. Statistically significant differences across cohorts for oral comprehension at the pre-test phase



Graph 27. Overall means of the CLIL and EFL groups for oral comprehension at the pre-test phase

TASK	Group	Mean	Standard deviation	N	<i>p value</i>
<b>Word stress and syllables</b>	CLIL	5.250	1.2881	12	0.328
	EFL	5.667	.6513	12	
	Total	5.458	1.0206	24	
<b>Sentence stress and syllables</b>	CLIL	3.000	.6030	12	0.328
	EFL	3.250	.6216	12	
	Total	3.125	.6124	24	
<b>Contracted forms</b>	CLIL	4.083	.6686	12	0.081
	EFL	4.583	.6686	12	
	Total	4.333	.7020	24	
<b>True/false</b>	CLIL	4.583	.5149	12	0.096
	EFL	3.250	1.5448	12	
	Total	3.917	1.3160	24	
<b>Multiple choice</b>	CLIL	3.583	1.0836	12	0.880
	EFL	3.667	1.5570	12	
	Total	3.625	1.3126	24	
<b>Matching</b>	CLIL	2.917	1.2401	12	0.375
	EFL	2.500	1.0000	12	
	Total	2.708	1.1221	24	

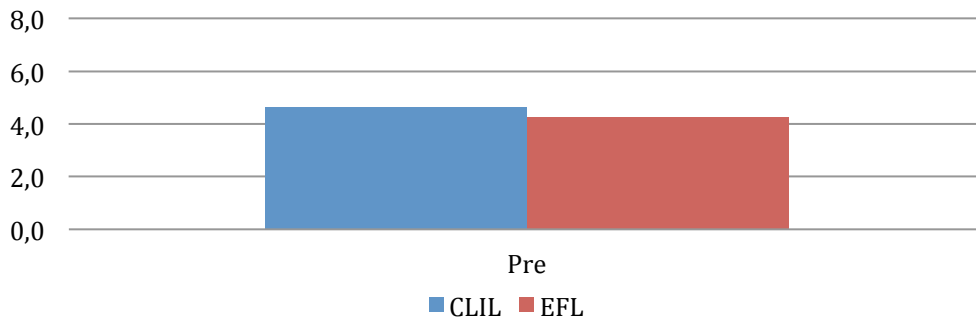
**Table 2. Statistically significant differences across cohorts on oral comprehension tasks at the pre-test phase**

In line with the results in relation to oral comprehension, in the first phase of the investigation we can confirm that the same pattern has emerged for oral production. Very close means can be identified (4.642 for the CLIL group, as compared to 4.275 on behalf of its EFL counterpart), resulting in no detection of statistically significant differences, in either the overall mark or the separate activities or skills, conveying once again consummately comparable experimental and control groups (cf. Tables 3, 4 and 5 and Graph 28).

<b>ORAL PRODUCTION OVERALL MARK</b>	Group	Mean	Standard deviation	N	<i>p value</i>
<b>Pre-test</b>	CLIL	4.642	1.0602	12	0.352
	EFL	4.275	.8125	12	
	Total	4.458	.9426	24	

**Table 3. Statistically significant differences across cohorts for oral production at the pre-test phase**

### Pre-test oral production



Graph 28. Overall means of the CLIL and EFL groups for oral production at the pre-test phase

TASK	Group	Mean	Standard deviation	N	<i>p value</i>
Interview	CLIL	5.167	1.6002	12	0,75
	EFL	5.000	0.7977	12	
	Total	5.083	1.2394	24	
Individual speaking	CLIL	4.375	0.9077	12	0,338
	EFL	4.042	.7525	12	
	Total	4.208	0.8330	24	
Spoken interaction	CLIL	4.208	1.1172	12	0,193
	EFL	3.542	1.3049	12	
	Total	3.875	1.2358	24	

Table 4. Statistically significant differences across cohorts on oral production tasks at the pre-test phase

SKILL	Group	Mean	Standard deviation	N	<i>p value</i>
Grammatical	CLIL	0.889	0.2171	12	0.195
	EFL	0.764	0.2406	12	
	Total	0.826	0.2330	24	
Lexical	CLIL	0.944	0.2171	12	0.614
	EFL	0.903	.1806	12	
	Total	0.924	0.1965	24	
Fluency	CLIL	0.903	.2794	12	0.187
	EFL	0.750	.2706	12	
	Total	0.826	.2801	24	
Pronunciation	CLIL	0.903	.2969	12	0.889
	EFL	0.917	.1667	12	
	Total	0.910	.2356	24	
Task fulfilment	CLIL	0.944	.1925	12	0.308
	EFL	0.861	.1989	12	
	Total	0.903	.1961	24	

Table 5. Statistically significant differences across cohorts on oral production skills at the pre-test phase

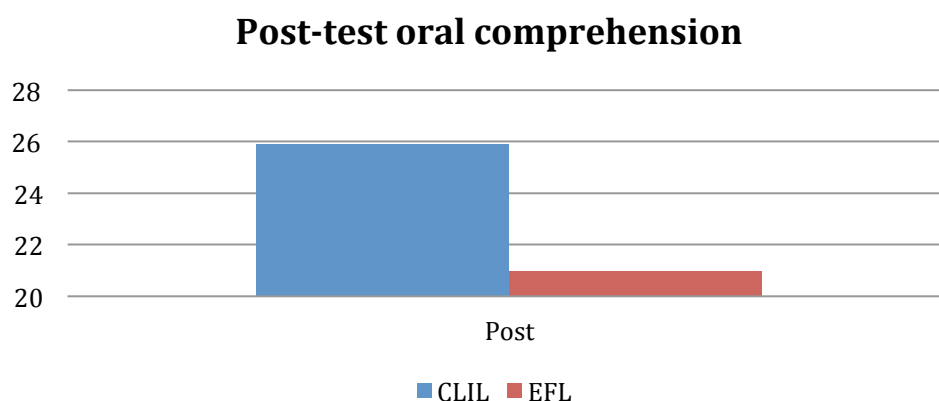
### 5.2.2. Post-test

The situation changes drastically on the post-test. In this subsequent phase, after the one-year intervention programme, we are able to detect statistically significant differences when comparing the CLIL branch to its EFL comparison group in favour of the former group. A significant difference in the means can be witnessed (25.917 vs. 21, respectively), which seems to point to the fact that our CLIL programme has had a positive effect on the oral receptive skills of students in comparison to those learners who have studied in an EFL environment (cf. Table 6 and Graph 29). This outcome tallies with previous studies summarized in the literature review, endorsing their findings (Lasagabaster, 2008, as cited in Ruiz de Zarobe & Lasagabaster, 2010; Stotz and Meuter, 2003). As a result of acting as the teacher of both groups<sup>1</sup>, the possible reasons for this outcome could be attributed to the fact that the CLIL students were subject to more exposure, not only through the content subjects, but also within the foreign language class. Considerable input was provided through the real English days in the timetable specific to the bilingual students, with access to the language laboratory, a feature that was rarely attainable for the EFL students.

<b>ORAL COMPREHENSION OVERALL MARK</b>	Group	Mean	Standard deviation	N	<i>p value</i>
<b>Post-test</b>	CLIL	25.917	1.2401	12	<b>0.005</b>
	EFL	21.000	5.3258	12	
	Total	23.458	4.5395	24	

**Table 6. Statistically significant differences across cohorts for oral comprehension at the post-test phase**

<sup>1</sup> These possible causes and those mentioned in other headings are merely ventured on the basis of our close work with and observation of both the experimental and control groups involved in the study. However, without empirical substantiation, it cannot be claimed that they are the ones to which the linguistic competence differential can be ascribed. Further multivariate analyses (e.g., factor or discriminant analyses) would be necessary to make these claims, which we propose within the lines for future research section (cf. heading 6.2).



**Graph 29. Overall means of the CLIL and EFL groups for oral comprehension at the post-test phase**

When we delve deeper into the specific tasks comprised in the listening comprehension tests, it transpires that there are statistically significant differences between the groups, and again, in favour of the experimental CLIL cohort, on just one task (cf. Table 7). This specific task for which the statistically significant differences have been found is the last one, which involves matching statements to their corresponding dates. Here, the mean score obtained by the CLIL students has significantly outstripped that of the non-CLIL group (5 for the former and 2 for the latter). The students were faced with a lengthy monologue with no pauses, and the number of dates which were available for selection exceeded the number of statements, implying some options were incorporated as distractors. The test was designed in order of ascending difficulty and this exercise was strategically inserted at the end due to its cognitively complex nature. The result that has transpired here is fully congruent with the study conducted by Prieto-Arranz, Rallo Fabra, Calafet-Ripolli and Catrain-González (2015), in which CLIL students achieved significantly higher scores on complex listening tests.

TASK	Group	Mean	Standard deviation	N	<i>P value</i>
<b>Word stress and syllables</b>	CLIL	5.583	.6686	12	0.764
	EFL	5.500	.6742	12	
	Total	5.542	.6580	24	
<b>Sentence stress and intonation</b>	CLIL	3.250	.6216	12	0.807
	EFL	3.333	.9847	12	
	Total	3.292	.8065	24	
<b>Contracted forms</b>	CLIL	4.500	.5222	12	0.100
	EFL	3.750	1.4222	12	
	Total	4.125	1.1156	24	
<b>True/false</b>	CLIL	3.750	.8660	12	0.328
	EFL	3.333	1.1547	12	
	Total	3.542	1.0206	24	
<b>Multiple choice</b>	CLIL	3.833	.7177	12	0.145
	EFL	3.083	1.5643	12	
	Total	3.458	1.2504	24	
<b>Matching</b>	CLIL	5.000	0.0000	12	<b>0.000</b>
	EFL	2.000	1.9069	12	
	Total	3.500	2.0216	24	

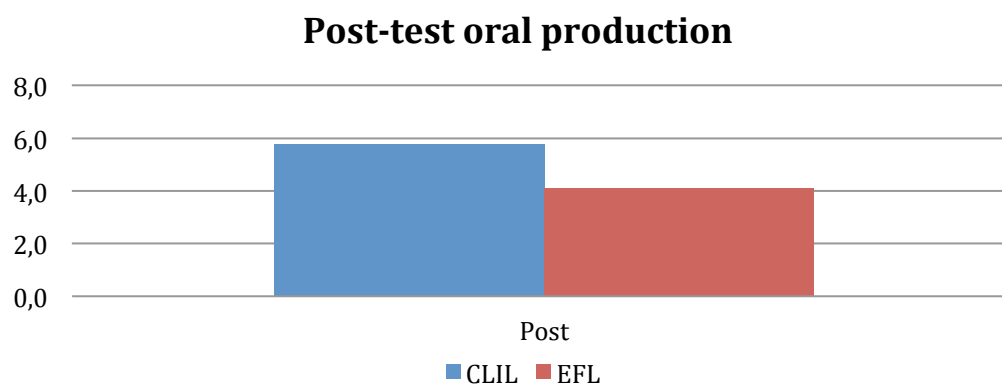
**Table 7. Statistically significant differences across cohorts on oral comprehension tasks at the post-test phase**

On examining the effects of the CLIL intervention programme on oral production skills, we are presented with undeniably different circumstances at this post-testing stage when the two competences are set side by side. At first glance, we can acknowledge immediately that the experimental group has performed considerably better than the control group, not only taking the overall mark into consideration (cf. Table 8 and Graph 30), but also across the board, factoring in the variety of tasks incorporated into the test (cf. Table 9). The findings deviate from the conclusions of pivotal prior research carried out by Rallo Fabra and Jacob (2015) and Stotz and Meuter (2003), as in the former no statistically significant differences were foregrounded pertaining to oral production aspects and the latter yielded inconclusive results. On the contrary, our outcomes endorse the findings of another cluster of authors (Gassner and Maillat, 2006; Lasagabaster, 2008 as cited in Ruiz de Zarobe and Lasagabaster, 2010; Ruiz de Zarobe, 2008, as cited in Ruiz de Zarobe and

Lasagabaster, 2010; Villareal, Ozaizola and García Mayo, 2009). Nevertheless, it is imperative to underscore that these studies did not match the experimental and control groups, thereby not guaranteeing their homogeneity at the outset of the experiences, bringing the reliability of the data into dispute.

ORAL PRODUCTION OVERALL MARK	Group	Mean	Standard deviation	N	<i>p value</i>
Post-test	CLIL	5.763	1.5281	12	0.003
	EFL	4.100	0.7983	12	
	Total	4.931	1.4638	24	

Table 8. Statistically significant differences across cohorts for oral production at the post-test phase



Graph 30. Overall means of the CLIL and EFL groups for oral production at the post-test phase

If we undertake a fine-grained analysis of the specific tasks included within the oral production test, we find that mean scores are specifically divergent to the advantage of the CLIL students on the spoken interaction task (5.667 for the CLIL cohort and 3.125 for EFL comparison group), highlighting the more advanced ability of the treatment group concerning the control of more sophisticated functions in the realm of giving opinions, expressing preferences, agreeing and disagreeing. As can be visually observed, all of the tasks in the oral production test (spoken interaction in addition to the interview and the individual speaking) evince statistically significant

differences in favour of the CLIL group, demonstrating that these students are able to communicate more effectively overall (cf. Table 9). A distinct pattern emerges which suggests CLIL programmes enhance cognitive aptitudes of learners with respect to listening and speaking competence in the L2. Speculating on possible reasons as to why the CLIL students have demonstrated superior speaking skills, we could propose it might be attributed to the communicative methodology employed in class and as a positive backwash effect of the Trinity College London preparation classes which formed part of the ‘integrated project’ content subject.

To delve deeper into which specific aspects of oral production the CLIL students have outstripped their mainstream peers in, we have performed a detailed analysis placing precise skills in the spotlight. Out of the five features we set out to analyse (grammatical, lexical, fluency, pronunciation and task fulfilment), the EFL participants have lagged behind in four: all but pronunciation (cf. Table 10). This sole facet did not generate any statistically significant differences, unlike the remaining components of the test, which evidently did. In accordance with a trend manifested in relevant research conducted by Gallardo, Lacabex and Lecumberri (2009) and Rallo Fabra and Jacob (2015), CLIL students do not demonstrate they can speak with more accurate pronunciation compared to those of a traditional EFL class after an intervention programme of one year. Gallardo, Lacabex and Lecumberri assigned the lack of progress in this area as a direct effect of unreliable input from the non-native EFL or content subject teacher. Given the teacher of the groups in our study was native provides food for thought; we may have to acknowledge there may be another underlying motive for this outcome.

We can notably observe a marked difference between mean scores of the groups for the sub-skill of fluency, with the CLIL group coming out on top (1.194 as

opposed to 0.681). To some extent, linked to the development of other capabilities already mentioned, this could be associated with the communicative approach implemented in the everyday CLIL class and the working towards the goal of attaining an A2 (CEFR level) certificate on behalf of Trinity College London. The aptitude of fluency is well-renowned for presenting the most difficulties with regard to improvement if sufficient practice is not accomplished. It is, perhaps, an exemplification of a skill which requires the most training. As can be visually observed in the data, the CLIL group have clearly had more opportunities to perfect the art of speaking with increased ease. With CLIL claiming superiority in this domain, differences in means for grammatical, lexical and task fulfilment were also present, albeit to a lesser extent. (cf. Table 10 for an overview of the data for the mentioned skills).

TASK	Group	Mean	Standard deviation	N	<i>p value</i>
<b>Interview</b>	CLIL	6.125	1.7468	12	<b>0.035</b>
	EFL	4.875	0.8013	12	
	Total	5.500	1.4744	24	
<b>Individual speaking</b>	CLIL	5.375	1.4322	12	<b>0.010</b>
	EFL	4.042	.8107	12	
	Total	4.708	1.3263	24	
<b>Spoken interaction</b>	CLIL	5.667	1.6560	12	<b>0.001</b>
	EFL	3.125	1.5829	12	
	Total	4.396	2.0482	24	

Table 9. Statistically significant differences across cohorts on oral production tasks at the post-test phase

SKILL	Group	Mean	Standard deviation	N	<i>p value</i>
<b>Grammatical</b>	CLIL	1.042	0.3835	12	<b>0.029</b>
	EFL	0.736	0.2406	12	
	Total	0.889	0.3498	24	
<b>Lexical</b>	CLIL	1.264	.3135	12	<b>0.005</b>
	EFL	0.931	.1941	12	
	Total	1.097	.3066	24	
<b>Fluency</b>	CLIL	1.194	.3244	12	<b>0.000</b>
	EFL	0.681	.1941	12	
	Total	0.938	.3704	24	
<b>Pronunciation</b>	CLIL	1.083	.3445	12	0.066
	EFL	0.875	0.1443	12	
	Total	0.979	0.2794	24	
<b>Task fulfilment</b>	CLIL	1.139	.2916	12	<b>0.004</b>
	EFL	0.792	0.2370	12	
	Total	0,965	0,3146	24	

**Table 10. Statistically significant differences across cohorts on oral production skills at the post-test phase**

### 5.2.3. Delayed post-test

Turning to the final stage of the investigation, the situation once more conspicuously changes. At this end point, it is interesting to ascertain that both groups level out on oral comprehension competence. No statistically significant differences have been detected for any part of the test or for the test as a whole, presenting an interesting outcome given immersion settings are acclaimed for producing positive effects on oral receptive skills. Higher means can be identified (28.167, as opposed to 26.083) on behalf of the CLIL students, confirming that, although there is a deficit of statistically significant differences, performance in listening skills is of a higher quality (cf. Tables 11 and 12 and Graph 31).

However, this unexpected result does, in fact, fully concur with two up-to-date accounts that prove listening proficiency is not always affected by examples of all bilingual education. Although Prieto-Arranz, Rallo Fabra, Calafet-Ripolli and Catrain-González (2015) did claim scores were higher amongst CLIL pupils in terms

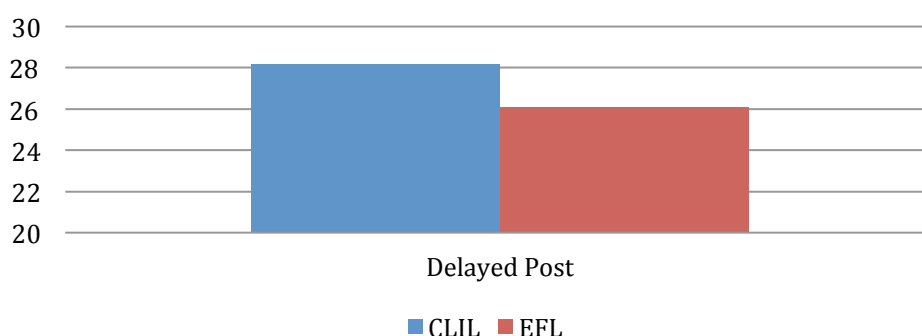
of more complex listening activities, no statistically significant differences could be detected between the CLIL and non-CLIL cohorts.

Findings deriving from two authors in Catalonia fall in line with the aforementioned context. Pérez-Vidal and Roquet (2015) corroborate that, despite the fact CLIL programmes enhance receptive competence on the whole, the oral component is not affected at all, proclaiming no such evidence exists. What may be contemplated is that a transition from Compulsory Secondary Education to Baccalaureate could involve a more grammar-heavy workload in preparation for university entrance exams. There is a propensity for this to happen due to the design of this particular assessment, giving rise to predominantly written content.

<b>ORAL COMPREHENSION OVERALL MARK</b>	Group	Mean	Standard deviation	N	<i>p value</i>
<b>Delayed Post</b>	CLIL	28.167	1.6967	12	0.069
	EFL	26.083	3.3699	12	
	Total	27.125	2.8178	24	

**Table 11. Statistically significant differences across cohorts for oral comprehension at the delayed post-test phase**

### Delayed post-test oral comprehension



**Graph 31. Overall means of the CLIL and EFL groups for oral comprehension at the delayed post-test phase**

TASK	Group	Mean	Standard deviation	N	<i>p value</i>
<b>Word stress and syllables</b>	CLIL	5.750	.6216	12	0.355
	EFL	5.500	.6742	12	
	Total	5.625	.6469	24	
<b>Sentence stress and intonation</b>	CLIL	3.417	.6686	12	0.760
	EFL	3.333	.6513	12	
	Total	3.375	.6469	24	
<b>Contracted forms</b>	CLIL	4.917	.2887	12	0.294
	EFL	4.750	.4523	12	
	Total	4.833	.3807	24	
<b>Trus/false</b>	CLIL	4.500	1.1677	12	0.202
	EFL	3.917	.9962	12	
	Total	4.208	1.1025	24	
<b>Multiple choice</b>	CLIL	4.583	.5149	12	0.548
	EFL	4.417	.7930	12	
	Total	4.500	.6594	24	
<b>Matching</b>	CLIL	5.000	0.0000	12	0.093
	EFL	4.167	1.6422	12	
	Total	4.583	1.2129	24	

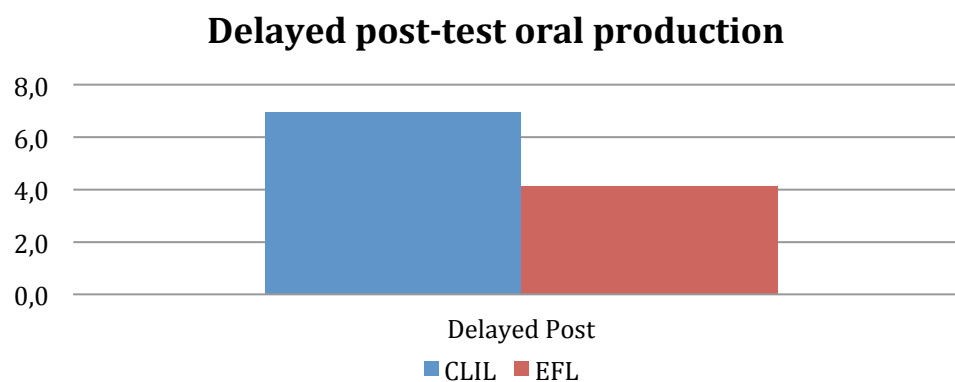
**Table 12. Statistically significant differences across cohorts on oral comprehension tasks at the delayed post-test phase**

The situation is different, however, for the oral production skill. On this second oral skill, the delayed post-tests reveal a repeat performance of the previous post-test phase. The scores of the students subject to the CLIL intervention programme have significantly surpassed their EFL peers. We are able to appreciate an evident pre-eminence of the CLIL students due to statistically significant differences throughout (on the overall test and on each of its tasks and skills) (cf. Tables 13, 14 and 15 and Graph 32). Much the same occurs as with the post-test outcomes, as we are witness to the greatest divergence of means on the more complicated task (6.792 for CLIL vs. 3.417 for non-CLIL). Although not as pronounced, the interview and individual speaking tasks also reveal a variation of means in which the non-CLIL students are trailing behind (7.167 in contrast to 4.875 for the former, and 6.875 as opposed to 3.917 for the latter). The closest scores can be found for the interview task, which is, unquestionably, the least demanding in terms of linguistically complex

language and functions, due to the question and answer format on topics of a more general nature. We are able to conclude that speaking within the CLIL class seems to represent the competence most affected by the implementation of a CLIL-based methodology.

<b>ORAL PRODUCTION OVERALL MARK</b>	Group	Mean	Standard deviation	N	<i>P value</i>
<b>Delayed Post</b>	CLIL	6.967	1.6501	12	<b>0.000</b>
	EFL	4.150	1.3571	12	
	Total	5.558	2.0622	24	

**Table 13. Statistically significant differences across cohorts for oral production at the delayed post-test phase**



**Graph 32. Overall means of the CLIL and EFL groups for oral production at the delayed post-test phase**

Let us now comment on the individual elements of speaking. Statistically significant differences are present on absolutely all the ones considered in this study: grammatical, lexical, fluency, task fulfilment and, at this phase, also pronunciation, painting an even more positive picture with respect to the post-test. We find that the means between both groups are in contrast to an even greater extent at the end of the investigation. It is clear that the CLIL group have progressed exceptionally well on an oral productive front. This will, again, be statistically confirmed when we scrutinize the evolution of each cohort (cf. heading 5.3).

The delayed post-test results reveal that the CLIL group outperforms its EFL equivalent, including, at this stage, pronunciation. Since this was not the case in the post-test findings, it appears that more prolonged exposure to CLIL programmes is positive for and conducive to improved standards of pronunciation. The fact that the CLIL students were enrolled in Baccalaureate with a CLIL approach seems to have aided the process.

Once again, the difference in means for fluency is substantial (the CLIL score is 1.292, whereas the EFL one is only 0.597). However, what particularly stands out at this point is the heterogeneous outcome of grammar. The means obtained for this item are conspicuously higher for the CLIL group (and statistically significantly so). The experimental group also performs significantly better on lexical aspects. Perhaps the heightened attention devoted to these two linguistic components (grammar and vocabulary) due to the washback effect of the university entrance exam is accountable for these statistically significant differences, thereby exerting, in this case, a positive effect on oral production outcomes. The final contribution to complete the statistically confirmed data to place the CLIL students at the head of the game is task fulfilment. We are here given the impression that the EFL students have not responded as appropriately or engaged in effective communication as well as those belonging to the experimental group (cf. Table 15 for detailed data of these skills).

TASK	Group	Mean	Standard deviation	N	<i>p value</i>
Interview	CLIL	7.167	1.7100	12	0.001
	EFL	4.875	1.2271	12	
	Total	6.021	1.8678	24	
Individual speaking	CLIL	6.875	1.5685	12	0.000
	EFL	3.917	1.7944	12	
	Total	5.396	2.2360	24	
Spoken interaction	CLIL	6.792	1.8273	12	0.000
	EFL	3.417	1.6073	12	
	Total	5.104	2.4091	24	

Table 14. Statistically significant differences across cohorts on oral comprehension tasks at the delayed post-test phase

SKILL	Group	Mean	Standard deviation	N	<i>p value</i>
Grammatical	CLIL	1.292	0.3701	12	0.000
	EFL	0.597	0.2702	12	
	Total	0.944	0.4757	24	
Lexical	CLIL	1.403	.3053	12	0.002
	EFL	0.958	.3026	12	
	Total	1.181	.3740	24	
Fluency	CLIL	1.458	.3491	12	0.000
	EFL	0.792	.2854	12	
	Total	1.125	.4617	24	
Pronunciation	CLIL	1.306	.3882	12	0.003
	EFL	0.861	.2643	12	
	Total	1.083	.3962	24	
Task fulfilment	CLIL	1.486	.3724	12	0.000
	EFL	0.861	.3749	12	
	Total	1.174	.4852	24	

Table 15. Statistically significant differences across cohorts on oral comprehension skills at the delayed post-test phase

#### 5.2.4. Gender

On analysing the CLIL cohort to determine the possible modulating effect exerted by the intervening variable of gender, we have found no statistically significant differences for either oral comprehension or oral production. Although males appear to perform better on listening skills and females have scored higher on the speaking tests, no statistical confirmation can be reported, leading us to believe that CLIL exerts equally positive repercussions on both males and females (cf. Tables

16 and 17). The reduced size of our cohort might also have impinged on these findings, which makes replications of this study with more numerically representative cohorts highly desirable (cf. lines for future research in section 6.2).

MARK	Group	Gender	Mean	Standard deviation	N	<i>p value</i>
Pre	CLIL	Female	23,375	3,4615	8	0,950
		Male	23,500	2,3805	4	
		Total	23,417	3,0289	12	
Post	CLIL	Female	26,125	1,2464	8	0,437
		Male	25,500	1,2910	4	
		Total	25,917	1,2401	12	
Delayed post	CLIL	Female	27,750	1,9086	8	0,247
		Male	29,000	,8165	4	
		Total	28,167	1,6967	12	

**Table 16. Statistically significant differences between gender on oral comprehension skills at the pre-, post- and delayed –post test phases**

TOTAL SCORE	Group	Gender	Mean	Standard deviation	N	<i>p value</i>
Pre	CLIL	Female	4,975	1,0593	8	0,128
		Male	3,975	,7837	4	
		Total	4,642	1,0602	12	
Post	CLIL	Female	6,156	1,5567	8	0,222
		Male	4,975	1,2913	4	
		Total	5,763	1,5281	12	
Delayed post	CLIL	Female	7,138	1,8126	8	0,635
		Male	6,625	1,4437	4	
		Total	6,967	1,6501	12	

**Table 17. Statistically significant differences between gender on oral production skills at the pre-, post- and delayed –post test phases**

### 5.3 Within-cohort comparison

We will now commence the within-cohort comparison in which we will be inspecting each cohort (CLIL and EFL) separately in order to elaborate on the development of each individual group bearing upon receptive and productive oral competence from the pre- to the post- to the delayed post-test phases.

### **5.3.1. CLIL (experimental) group**

An analysis of the CLIL group will be the first to be dealt with adhering to oral comprehension skills from the pre- to post- test, from post- to delayed post-test and, finally, from pre- to delayed post-test. The same structure will then be followed to map out the evolution of this first cohort regarding proficiency in oral production over the course of a year and a half (one academic year constituting the intervention programme and the six months following its completion).

#### **5.3.1.1. Pre- to post-test oral comprehension skills**

As regards the overall mark of the oral comprehension test, no statistically significant differences have been detected for the CLIL cohort from the pre- to the post-test, although means for the post-test are higher than for the pre-test on (25.917 vs. 23.417). However, on closer inspection, we can discover that students have progressed positively on the matching task. In line with this result, it has been previously mentioned that students enrolled in CLIL programmes have a tendency to benefit from a more developed cognitive ability in receptive skills. Prieto-Arranz, Rallo Fabra, Calafet-Ripolli and Catrain-González (2015) have underpinned CLIL to have an impact in this respect impinging on listening activities. The results which have surfaced from the pre- to the post-test seem to have corroborated this finding, as the matching activity constitutes the test which is most cognitively demanding (cf. Tables 16 and 17). The previously mentioned authors, together with a study conducted in Catalonia, which tested receptive skills of secondary school students (Pérez Vidal and Roquet, 2015), are both fully congruent with this thesis in terms of listening skills yielding few statistically significant differences within a CLIL group over a period of time. The former investigation can be described as producing

essentially identical results given that higher means were also found amongst the CLIL group (cf. Tables 18 and 19).

#### **5.3.1.2. Post- to delayed post-test oral comprehension skills**

This phase delivers an unexpected outcome, as there are no statistically significant differences for either overall mark or that corresponding to any specific task. If we examine the mean scores, we find that they are, in fact, slightly higher for the post-test on all occasions except for the true/false activity (4.583 for the pre-test and 3.750 for the post-test), conveying that the experimental group did improve this skill of listening on the whole, albeit from a non-significant perspective. We could possibly ascribe this result to a lack of focus on oral comprehension from the post- to the delayed post-test. The students were enrolled in a Baccalaureate programme with inferior exposure to the L2 and methodology was more grammar- orientated. In this way, the students experienced a significant reduction of input to that which they had received during the intervention programme (cf. Graphs 18 and 18).

#### **5.3.1.3. Pre- to delayed post-test oral comprehension skill**

In contrast to the previous phase, when taking into account the full year and a half period, the overall mark of the oral comprehension test does produce statistically significant differences. To be able to draw more exact conclusions, it is necessary to investigate each task individually. For this stage, two tasks can be pinpointed pertaining to a considerable improvement. The matching task, again, is established as the task they completed to a higher standard (with mean scores of 5 at both the post- and the delayed post-test phases). It transpires that the CLIL students had already achieved full marks in the test at the post-testing phase, resulting in an impossible improvement. It is the contracted forms task, in addition to the matching activity, that

instigates the overall positive development from the pre- to delayed post-test, demonstrating throughout the duration of the intervention programme that the CLIL students perfected their ability to recognize contracted forms (cf. Tables 18 and 19 and Graph 33).

CLIL					<i>p value</i>		
OVERALL MARK	Test	Mean	Standard deviation	N	Pre-Post	Post-Delayed Post	Pre-Delayed Post
	Pre	23.417	3.0289	12	0.128	0.148	0.000
	Post	25.917	1.2401	12			
	Delayed Post	28.167	1.6967	12			

Table 18. Evolution of oral comprehension in terms of overall mark for the CLIL group

CLIL					<i>p value</i>		
TASK	Test	Mean	Standard deviation	N	Pre-Post	Post-Delayed Post	Pre-Delayed Post
Word stress and syllables	Pre	5.250	1.2881	12	0.318	1.000	0.136
	Post	5.583	.6686	12			
	Delayed Post	5.750	.6216	12			
Sentence stress and intonation	Pre	3.000	.6030	12	0.925	1.000	0.369
	Post	3.250	.6216	12			
	Delayed Post	3.417	.6686	12			
Contracted forms	Pre	4.083	.6686	12	0.505	0.709	0.002
	Post	4.500	.5222	12			
	Delayed Post	4.917	.2887	12			
True/false	Pre	4.583	.5149	12	0.318	0.156	1.000
	Post	3.750	.8660	12			
	Delayed Post	4.500	1.1677	12			
Multiple choice	Pre	3,583	1,0836	12	1,000	0,069	0,096
	Post	3,833	,7177	12			
	Delayed Post	4,583	,5149	12			
Matching	Pre	2,917	1,2401	12	0,000	1,000	0,000
	Post	5,000	,0000	12			
	Delayed Post	5,000	,0000	12			

Table 19. Evolution of oral comprehension in terms of task for the CLIL group

#### **5.3.1.4. Pre- to post-test oral production skills**

The results stemming from the examination of oral production have been extremely interesting. A remarkable contrast in the evolution of oral production skills, when compared to their comprehension counterpart, has been identified. Although we can confirm statistically significant differences have been observed at all stages throughout the evolution of the CLIL group, we will, first of all allude to the pre- to post-test phases. All the different tasks belonging to the test were improved (the interview, the individual speaking and spoken interaction), with the spoken interaction task displaying the greatest difference in means (4.208 in the pre-test as opposed to 5.667 in the post test). Contemplating the findings in terms of specific skill, we find that only grammar stands alone in yielding no statistically significant result (0.889 increased to 1.042). The remaining skills of lexis, fluency, pronunciation and task fulfillment demonstrate an extremely encouraging outlook, as students have developed considerably in all of these areas (cf. Tables 18, 19 and 20). This improvement could possibly be assigned to the communicative objectives at the forefront of the CLIL classroom and the procedures which were employed to achieve this goal. The reason why grammar may have lagged behind could be due to the inferior weighting of this specific skill in a CLIL context. Grammar was continually reflected upon throughout the intervention programme and never neglected under any circumstances; however, due to the fact that communication is inherent to the nature of CLIL, oral production proficiency is effortlessly improved (cf. Tables 20, 21 and 22).

#### **5.3.1.5. Post- to delayed post-test oral production skills**

From the post- to the delayed post-tests, we are presented with equally fruitful repercussions. Once again, students have surpassed their previous scores on all tasks of the oral production test. Deviating from the previous phase, it is in the individual speaking task where a noteworthy difference can be identified (5.375 for the post-test vs. 6.875 in the delayed post-test). Owing to the functions required to succeed in this particular task, we can diagnose an improvement in the capacity to compare and contrast. It is possible that these language components have received more attention and been mastered by the students in the Baccalaureate programme. To expound upon the specific skills, very much the same has occurred as within the pre- to post-test period, with grammar being accounted for in addition to fluency, pronunciation and task fulfillment of those areas, which have produced statistically significant differences. The isolated skill, on this occasion, not to develop as well as expected is represented by lexical competence. It is supposed that CLIL helps to develop lexical competence in terms of the input received. If the students have been preoccupied with grammar in the Baccalaureate class in preparation for the university entrance exam, the decrease in meaningful input may have negatively affected their lexical development by bringing it to a standstill. We are able to affirm that the mean scores, in this respect, did, however, progress positively (1.264 to 1.403) (cf. Tables 20, 21 and 22).

#### **5.3.1.6. Pre- to delayed post-test oral production skills**

Taking into consideration the complete time period of one and a half years, no doubts as to whether oral production competence has improved are cast. Statistically significant differences transpire across the board for overall mark, the three tasks

(interview, individual speaking and spoken interaction) and the five specific skills (grammatical, lexical, fluency, pronunciation and task fulfillment), signifying extensive development of oral production skills over the course of the study. The fact that pronunciation has improved deviates from previous research, as this constitutes a skill that is extremely difficult to perfect in monolingual contexts over a limited period of time (Gallardo, Lacabex & Lecumberri, 2009; Rallo Fabra and Jacob, 2015), insinuating CLIL may assist in this process. The latter authors also claim that students do tend to be more fluent when interacting with native speakers in a test, as was the case. On the other hand, it is necessary to point out that this same condition applied to the testing of the EFL students, in which very different outcomes were derived (cf. heading 5.3.2). The mean scores also expose differences corresponding to the individual components of the task, illustrating a comprehensive evolution (cf. Tables 20, 21 and 22 and Graph 34).

<b>CLIL</b>					<i>p value</i>		
	Test	Mean	Standard deviation	N	Pre-Post	Post-Delayed Post	Pre-Delayed Post
<b>OVERALL MARK</b>	Pre	4.642	1.0602	12	<b>0.000</b>	<b>0.000</b>	<b>0.000</b>
	Post	5.763	1.5281	12			
	Delayed Post	6.967	1.6501	12			

**Table 20. Evolution of oral production in terms of overall mark for the CLIL group**

CLIL					<i>p value</i>		
TASK	Test	Mean	Standard deviation	N	Pre-Post	Post-Delayed Post	Pre-Delayed Post
Interview	Pre	5.167	1.6002	12	<b>0.001</b>	<b>0.000</b>	<b>0.000</b>
	Post	6.125	1.7468	12			
	Delayed Post	7.167	1.7100	12			
Individual speaking	Pre	4.375	0.9077	12	<b>0.004</b>	<b>0.000</b>	<b>0.000</b>
	Post	5.375	1.4322	12			
	Delayed Post	6.875	1.5685	12			
Spoken interaction	Pre	4.208	1.1172	12	<b>0.001</b>	<b>0.011</b>	<b>0.000</b>
	Post	5.667	1.6560	12			
	Delayed Post	6.792	1.8273	12			

Table 21. Evolution of oral production in terms of task for the CLIL group

CLIL					<i>p value</i>		
SKILL	Test	Mean	Standard deviation	N	Pre-Post	Post-Delayed Post	Pre-Delayed Post
Grammatical	Pre	0.889	0.2171	12	0.066	<b>0.003</b>	<b>0.000</b>
	Post	1.042	0.3835	12			
	Delayed Post	1.292	0.3701	12			
Lexical	Pre	0.944	0.2171	12	<b>0.000</b>	0.061	<b>0.000</b>
	Post	1.264	.3135	12			
	Delayed Post	1.403	.3053	12			
Fluency	Pre	0.903	.2794	12	<b>0.000</b>	<b>0.001</b>	<b>0.000</b>
	Post	1.194	.3244	12			
	Delayed Post	1.458	.3491	12			
Pronunciation	Pre	0.903	.2969	12	<b>0.011</b>	<b>0.019</b>	<b>0.001</b>
	Post	1.083	.3445	12			
	Delayed Post	1.306	.3882	12			
Task fulfilment	Pre	0.944	.1925	12	<b>0.033</b>	<b>0.000</b>	<b>0.000</b>
	Post	1.139	.2916	12			
	Delayed Post	1.486	.3724	12			

Table 22. Evolution of oral production in terms of specific skill for the CLIL group

### 5.3.2. EFL (control) group

To coincide with the section scrutinizing the CLIL group, we will now examine oral comprehension first of all, from the pre- to post-test, from post- to delayed post-test and, lastly, from pre- to delayed post-test before paying subsequent

attention to oral production in an identical manner to report on how the EFL group developed in both competences under scrutiny, over the same course of time, albeit with no intervention implemented.

#### **5.3.2.1. Pre- to post-test oral comprehension skills**

To initiate the discussion of the results for the EFL group, we can confirm conflicting patterns emerge as to what we have witnessed within the CLIL cohort. Paying attention to this particular group of students and their progress in oral comprehension skills from the pre- to post-test phases, we are able to confirm that there are no statistically significant differences with reference to the overall mark of the test. As can be visually observed, we were able to detect such differences for the contracted forms task exclusively. The statistically significant means detected during this phase indicated that the oral comprehension skills of the students, in relation to contracted forms, had deteriorated. The mean scores demonstrate an appreciable difference between the pre- and post-test in this task (4.583 vs. 3.750), on which the students have worsened rather than improved (cf. Tables 23 and 24).

#### **5.3.2.2. Post- to delayed post-test oral comprehension skills**

Turning to the post-to delayed post-phase statistically, significant differences ensue for the overall mark of the test and in terms of the three separate tasks: contracted forms, multiple choice and matching. We can speculate, in this situation, that given that test scores were particularly negative in the post-test, the improvement implicated from post- to delayed post-test is more conspicuous. Regardless, we must admit that there has been a positive development, especially for the multiple choice and matching activities. Pertaining to the former, the mean score is considerably higher (3.083 in the post-test, as opposed to 4.417 in the delayed post-test), but this is

outstripped by the difference in means located in the final task of the test (2 for the post-test and 4.167 for the delayed post-test). The rationale behind the circumstances which have materialized for the EFL group in this phase may be attributed to starting to study the Baccalaureate certificate. Students may have started to take their English learning more seriously, making a more conscious effort in class. The intense grammar classes with the target of increasing written competence may have aided in the understanding of more complex structures found in these last two tasks of the listening test (cf. Tables 23 and 24).

### 5.3.2.3. Pre- to delayed post-test oral comprehension skills

Due to the fact that the pre- to delayed post-test encompasses the first two stages, and in light of the results for the previous phase, it is not surprising that statistically significant differences have transpired for the overall mark in the listening comprehension task during this period. The one task generating the greatest difference in means was, once again, the matching activity (2.5 vs. 4.167) (cf. Tables 23 and 24 and Graph 33).

EFL					<i>p value</i>		
OVERALL MARK	Test	Mean	Standard deviation	N	Pre-Post	Post-Delayed Post	Pre-Delayed Post
	Pre	22.917	1.9752	12	0.339	0.000	0.010
	Post	21.000	5.3258	12			
	Delayed Post	26.083	3.3699	12			

Table 23. Evolution of oral comprehension in terms of overall mark for the EFL group

EFL					<i>p value</i>		
TASK	Test	Mean	Standard deviation	N	Pre-Post	Post-Delayed Post	Pre-Delayed Post
<b>Word stress and syllables</b>	Pre	5.667	.6513	12	1.000	1.000	1.000
	Post	5.500	.6742	12			
	Delayed Post	5.500	.6742	12			
<b>Sentence stress and intonation</b>	Pre	3.250	.6216	12	1.000	1.000	1.000
	Post	3.333	.9847	12			
	Delayed Post	3.333	.6513	12			
<b>Contracted forms</b>	Pre	4.583	.6686	12	<b>0.028</b>	<b>0.024</b>	1.000
	Post	3.750	1.4222	12			
	Delayed Post	4.750	.4523	12			
<b>True/false</b>	Pre	3.250	1.5448	12	1.000	0.373	0.369
	Post	3.333	1.1547	12			
	Delayed Post	3.917	.9962	12			
<b>Multiple choice</b>	Pre	3.667	1.5570	12	0.839	<b>0.001</b>	0.299
	Post	3.083	1.5643	12			
	Delayed Post	4.417	.7930	12			
<b>Matching</b>	Pre	2.500	1.0000	12	0.567	<b>0.000</b>	<b>0.001</b>
	Post	2.000	1.9069	12			
	Delayed Post	4.167	1.6422	12			

Table 24. Evolution of oral comprehension in terms task for the EFL group

#### 5.3.2.4. Pre- to post-test oral production skills

The situation for oral production skills of the EFL students presents a gloomy outlook. No statistically significant differences could be located for any scores between any stages of the investigation. If we trace the evolution of the group throughout the one and a half year time period, on the surface, no development is observed. On closer inspection, the mean post-test scores concerning overall mark are, on the whole, lower than the pre-test scores (4.1 and 4.275, respectively) (cf. Tables 25, 26 and 27).

#### **5.3.2.5. Post- to delayed post-test oral production skills**

An insubstantial improvement can be detected from the post- to the delayed post-test (mean scores demonstrate 4.1 for the former and 4.15 for the latter). Teasing apart the different tasks involved, the only progress found is connected to the spoken interaction task (3.125 vs. 3.417), implying that time spent studying Baccalaureate has had a positive impact on the aptitude of interaction. Alluding to the interview and the individual speaking task, mean scores remain the same or practically equal (4.875 for the post- and delayed post-test in the interview, and 4.042 for the post-test and 3.917 for the delayed post-test in the individual speaking) (cf. Tables 25, 26 and 27).

#### **5.3.2.6. Pre- to delayed post-test oral production skills**

Worryingly, on examining the pre- to the delayed post-test scores, following the completion of a full academic year and six months in a Baccalaureate programme, the overall mean score for oral production competence has decreased for the control group (4.275 vs. 4.150). Although a significant decline is not perceptible, we would not expect any skill to worsen. Another interesting finding to highlight is the unfolding of the grammar scores as a skill of oral production. There has been a steady deterioration in this respect (from 0.764 in the pre-test to 0.736 in the post-test, down to 0.597 in the delayed post-test), which leads us to believe any grammar which has been internalized is not successfully transferred to a communicative context. Taking a step back to reflect on what has been ascertained for the EFL cohort, we are presented with a dire situation in terms of oral production skills, especially when compared to the CLIL group (cf. Tables 25, 26 and 26 and Graph 34).

EFL					<i>p value</i>		
OVERALL MARK	Test	Mean	Standard deviation	N	Pre-Post	Post-Delayed Post	Pre-Delayed Post
	Pre	4.275	0.8125	12	1.000	1.000	1.000
	Post	4.100	0.7983	12			
	Delayed Post	4.150	1.3571	12			

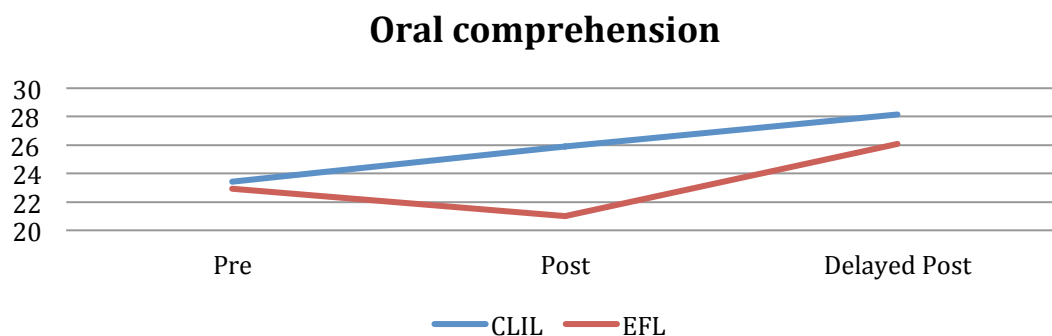
Table 25. Evolution of oral production in terms of overall mark for the EFL group

EFL					<i>p value</i>		
TASK	Test	Mean	Standard deviation	N	Pre-Post	Post-Delayed Post	Pre-Delayed Post
Interview	Pre	5.000	.7977	12	1.000	1.000	1.000
	Post	4.875	.8013	12			
	Delayed Post	4.875	1.2271	12			
Individual speaking	Pre	4.042	.7525	12	1.000	1.000	1.000
	Post	4.042	.8107	12			
	Delayed Post	3.917	1.7944	12			
Spoken interacion	Pre	3.542	1.3049	12	0.746	1.000	1.000
	Post	3.125	1.5829	12			
	Delayed Post	3.417	1.6073	12			

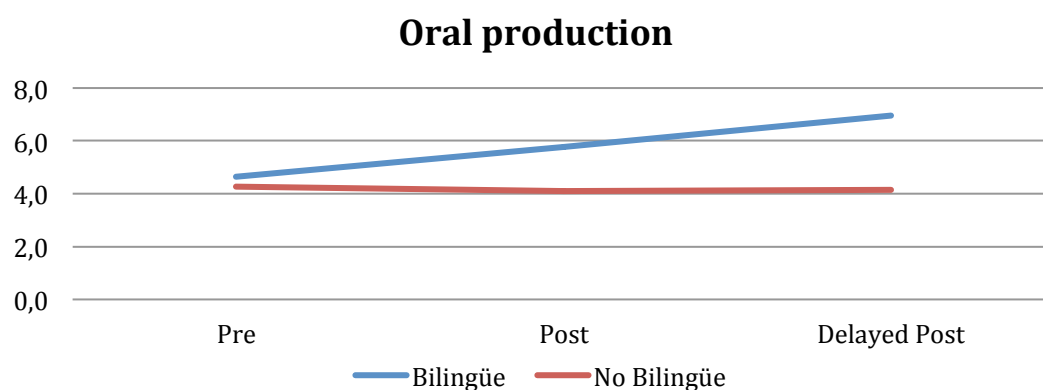
Table 26. Evolution of oral production in terms task for the EFL group

EFL					<i>p value</i>		
SKILL	Test	Mean	Standard deviation	N	Pre-Post	Post-Delayed Post	Pre-Delayed Post
Grammatical	Pre	0.764	0.2406	12	1.000	0.136	0.127
	Post	0.736	0.2406	12			
	Delayed Post	0.597	0.2702	12			
Lexical	Pre	0.903	.1806	12	1.000	1.000	1.000
	Post	0.931	.1941	12			
	Delayed Post	0.958	.3026	12			
Fluency	Pre	0.750	.2706	12	0.798	0.225	1.000
	Post	0.681	.1941	12			
	Delayed Post	0.792	.2854	12			
Pronunciation	Pre	0.917	.1667	12	0.055	0.074	0.089
	Post	0.875	0.1443	12			
	Delayed Post	0.861	.2643	12			
Task fulfilment	Pre	0.861	.1989	12	0.996	1.000	1.000
	Post	0.792	0.2370	12			
	Delayed Post	0.861	.3749	12			

**Table 27. Evolution of oral production in terms of skill for the EFL group**



**Graph 33. Evolution of oral comprehension in terms of overall mark for the CLIL and EFL groups**



**Graph 34. Evolution of oral production in terms of overall mark for the CLIL and EFL groups**

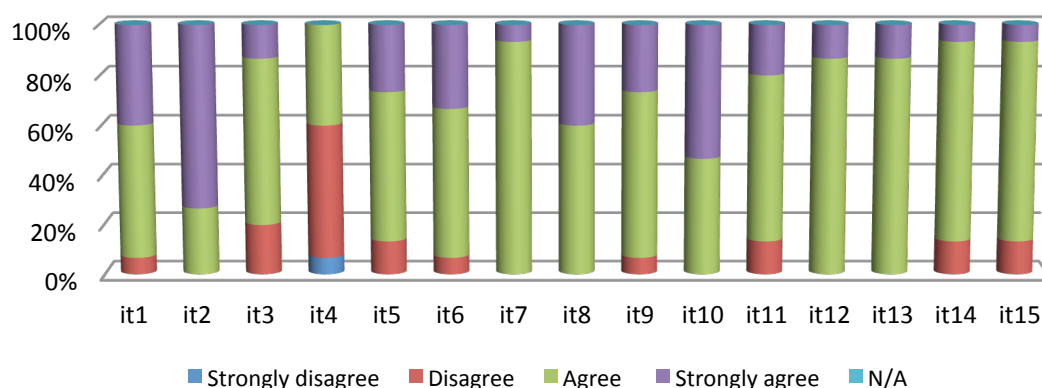
#### 5.4. Student perspectives

Taking into consideration that students are at the forefront of our whole investigation and that they outnumber both teacher and parent participants regarding sample size, our qualitative analysis will, first of all, pay attention to this specific cohort.

#### 5.4.1. Global results

We will begin by embarking on an in-depth analysis of this stakeholder according to the individual thematic blocks of the questionnaire. The initial heading we will be taking a look at is *students' use, competence and development of English in class*. At first glance, the items subsumed within this block are majoritarily perceived as positive, tallying with previous studies carried out to determine the perceptions of those involved in CLIL programmes (Gálvez Gómez, 2013; Lancaster, 2012). Students are in total agreement that their English has improved as a result of participating in such an initiative. They evidently have a self-complacent view of their own language use and development in the bilingual programme in terms of the L2 (item 2); however, slightly contrasting attitudes arise in connection to the improvement of the L3 and, especially, the L1 (items 3 and 4). It can be perceived that students are motivated: within the CLIL class, a substantial amount admit to being very enthusiastic about this methodology and the rest are also eager. However, it is conveyed that they are happy with the amount of English used in the class and most would not welcome an increase in the percentage of the L2 employed (item 11). Other aspects which present a more indifferent outlook relate to linguistic awareness, sociocultural aspects and intercultural awareness. They seem to feel these areas are promoted to a lesser extent (items 14 and 15). Interestingly, an item for which they have expressed highly positive opinions, in line with their English level in general, corresponds to their oral and written abilities (items 12 and 13). They believe they have the same competence level in both skills, implying that oral skills are promoted equally in the bilingual class (cf. Graph 35).

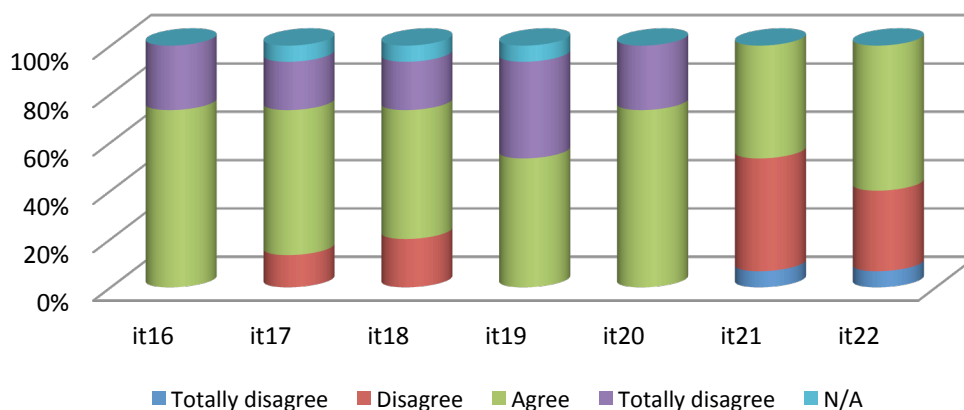
### STUDENTS' USE, COMPETENCE AND DEVELOPMENT OF ENGLISH IN CLASS (Students)



**Graph 35. Students' use, competence and development of English in class (students)**

Congruent with the previous block, encouraging patterns are also revealed regarding *methodology*. The last comment to be ascertained in block one is corroborated by the fact that students agree that the CLIL approach promotes oral comprehension and production (item 20), a revelation of great significance for the overall objective of this study. Learner-centred teaching appears to be manifest in class, bearing in mind students agree that tasks are developed (item 16) and group work is standard practice (item 19). However, a more negative outlook is harboured on other aspects: some students are in complete disagreement concerning their reflection on the L1 to aid them in their foreign language learning (item 21) and as regards the connection of languages (item 22). A considerable number of students confess to not giving any thought to these factors (cf. Graph 36).

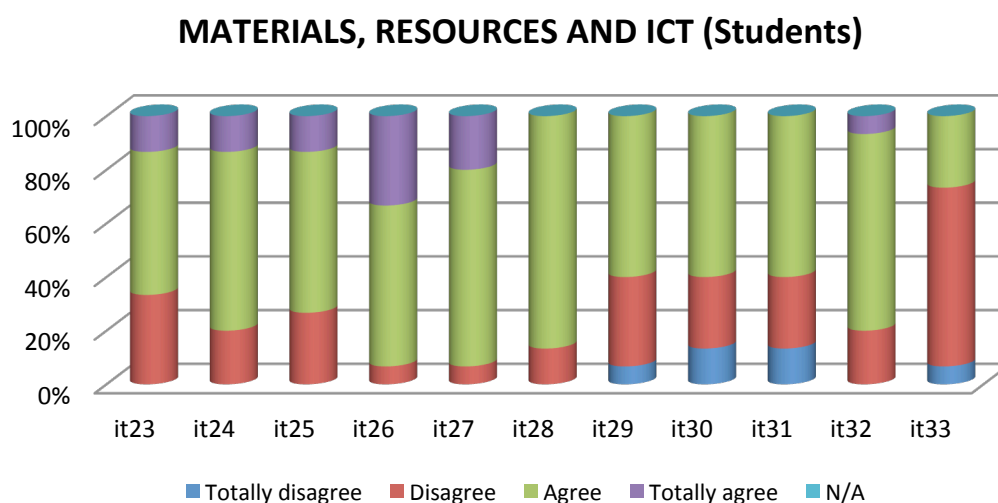
### METHODOLOGY (Students)



Graph 36. Methodology (students)

Although the items subsumed within the *materials, resources and ICT* block present, once again, optimistic outcomes, we can detect marginally more negativity. With reference to the former mood, and supporting previous points of view pertaining to the status of oral skills, the majority of the students acknowledge the materials used in class foster progress in listening and speaking proficiency (item 27) We can also interpret that teacher collaboration in order to prepare adequate materials is satisfactory (item 26), which is fully commensurate with investigations unveiling increased coordination between teacher roles (Cabezas Cabello, 2010; Lorenzo et al., 2009; Sánchez Torres, 2014). To comment on the latter, and less promising results, there is clearly a lack of substantial materials available, which is a deficit which Ruiz Gómez (2015) diagnosed and set out to overcome with the creation of a bank of materials available for use by Andalusian teachers. Amongst features which factored more negatively in the questionnaire, computer-mediated communication came out on top (item 33). It was the only item which more than half the students rated in a negative manner, indicating this type of technology needs to be stepped up. Less optimistic opinions also encompass online reference materials (item 30) and wikis, blogs and webquests (item 31). The trend which is materializing is undeniably linked

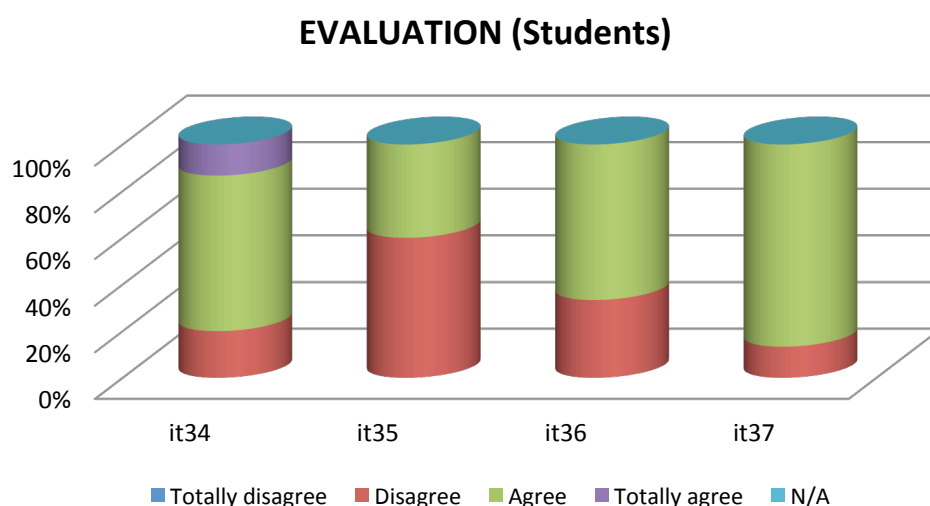
to technology setbacks as opposed to physical materials. In the case of the actual materials themselves, a significant proportion of students do not perceive them as authentic (item 23). We could speculate that the TV series, films and songs that have been incorporated into the intervention programme may not have been considered as authentic materials, as they had a noteworthy presence in class (cf. Graph 37).



**Graph 37. Materials, resources and ICT (students)**

Fully concurring with the previous thematic block, certain unfavourable circumstances can be pinpointed for *evaluation*. As can be visually interpreted, item 35 is the main culprit. On asked if priority is given to subject content over linguistic competence within the evaluation process, we can observe that this is not the case on behalf of a markedly large percentage of students who disagree. Again, we are surprised by this unexpected outcome, as we know at least one of the bilingual subjects studied did not involve assessment in the L2 in any respect. We are led to believe that students may be confused between subject content and the actual foreign language lessons themselves. Although more agree than disagree, listening and speaking skills do not figure as predominant elements of testing in the bilingual subjects (item 36). Hitherto, we have seen a visible presence of oral comprehension

and production in a CLIL context drawing upon language proficiency itself, methodology and materials. This suggests that increased measures need to put in place in relation to oral competence from an evaluation perspective. In contrast, we are able to assign a higher degree of positivity to the remaining items on the topic of evaluating CLIL. It can be confirmed that, overall, the content of the bilingual subjects is effectively evaluated (item 34) and both summative and formative evaluation methods are applied (item 37) (cf. Graph 38).

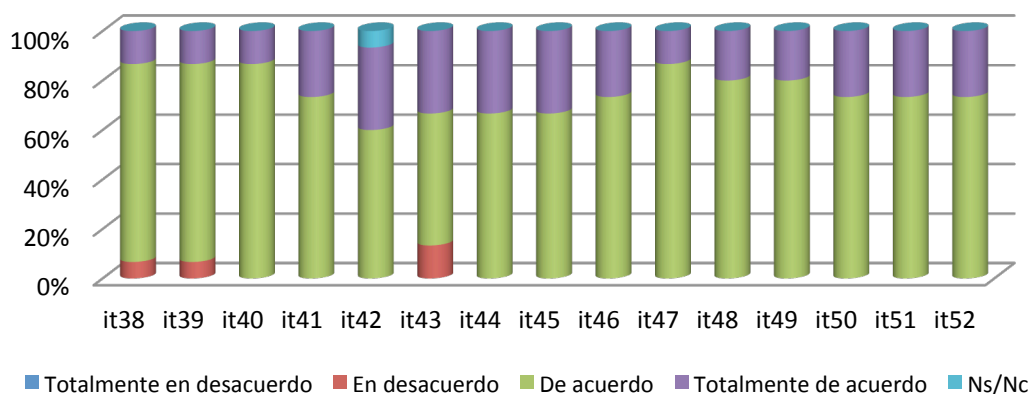


**Graph 38. Evaluation (students)**

Analysing *teachers' use, competence and development of English in class*, we are led back to an optimistic outlook. Only 3 items present any negativity and it is hardly relevant. To disclose information on the most conspicuous issue for which a variegated response can be revealed, it is uncertain as to what extent teaching assistants motivate students in the CLIL classroom (item 43). Foreign language and non-linguistic area teachers are seen in a more positive light as regards inspiring students. We could attribute this to the strong relationships formed between student and teacher over the course of time, a situation proving difficult for the TAs, as their contracts are routinely for one year only. Tobin & Abello-Contesse (2013) and

Sánchez Torres (2014) touch upon this issue in their respective studies to investigate the TA as a teaching figure. What has been revealed by our questionnaire echoes their findings, as they claim TAs are not always triumphantly integrated into CLIL sections. To highlight what is envisaged as most beneficial, we are reminded, once again, how oral skills are dealt with in a CLIL context. Harmony transpires amongst student opinion in that FL and NLA teachers foster the development of oral competence in class (items 44 and 45), providing the underlying justification as to why the quantitative results have yielded such outcomes (cf. heading 5.2 and 5.3). Much the same optimism is diagnosed across the board pertaining to teacher's oral, written, linguistic and sociocultural capability in English (items 49, 50, 51, 52) and collaboration of teachers (items 47 and 48), tallying with what was previously mentioned about educators' collective preparation of materials (cf. Graph 39).

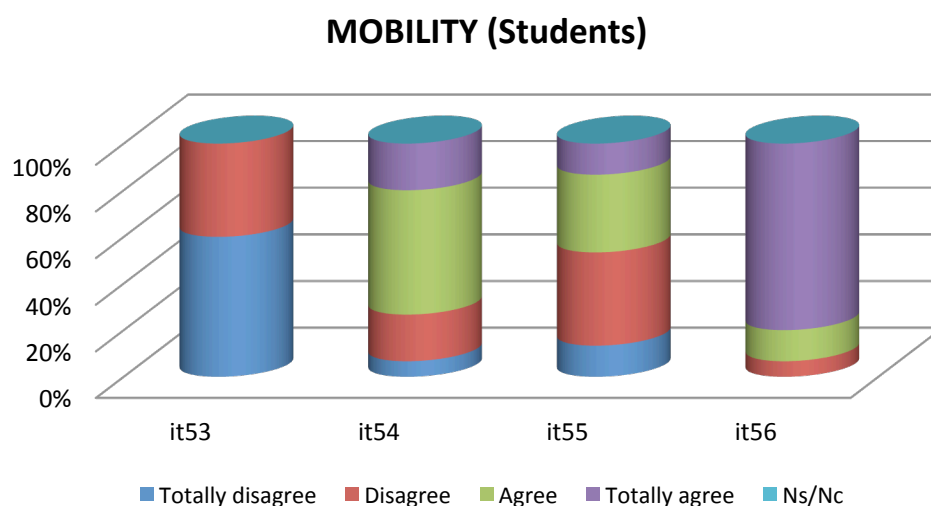
### TEACHERS' USE, COMPETENCE AND DEVELOPMENT OF ENGLISH IN CLASS (Students)



Graph 39. Teachers' use, competence and development of English in class (students)

The results from the block titled *mobility* bring forth more heterogeneous findings. Undeniably ascertained by the higher percentages obtained, we can interpret that students are encouraged by their teachers (item 45) and by their families, albeit to a lesser extent (item 55), in relation to taking part in exchanges. Despite these

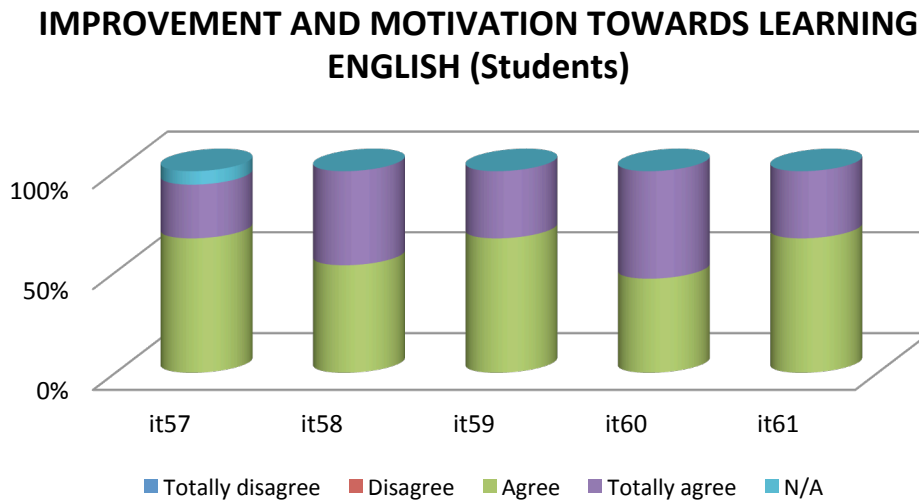
incentives, there are no students that declare they have taken advantage of this incentive for learning languages (item 53). It must be underscored, however, that students are largely in total agreement that participating in interaction with foreign students and having the opportunity to visit a foreign country would improve English oral comprehension and production (item 56) (cf. Graph 40).



**Graph 40. Mobility (students)**

The concluding block for the student cohort, *improvement and motivation towards learning English*, exemplifying an all-inclusive representation of the CLIL programme, serves to endorse its reiterative success from a student mind-set. We are given the impression that, when students are asked to focus on specific aspects of the programme, moderate criticism can ensue in the form of minor issues; however, when it is perceived as a whole, students are exclusively optimistic. The broader take-aways consist of, without a doubt, increased overall English competence (item 58), and with this improvement students believe that CLIL has a positive effect on their listening and speaking skills (item 60), areas of language learning that traditional EFL teaching is renowned to have difficulty developing. Students also agree or totally agree that

forming part of the CLIL programme is worth the extra workload involved (item 57) and their motivation has improved due to the programme (item 59) (cf. Graph 41).



**Graph 41. Improvement and motivation towards learning English (students)**

#### 5.4.2. Specific results

A close inspection of the intervening variables will now allow us to elaborate on the global synopsis of the results. The Mann-Whitney U test and the Kruskal-Wallis test have been employed to compare student perceptions in terms of the identification variables set out in heading 4.3.3. Given the limited sample of the cohort, statistically significant differences have only been detected for three of the variables: *gender*, *English level* and *level of studies of parents*. No significant differences can be found on any of the remaining variables.

Concerning *gender*, although we can only locate statistically significant differences for four items, a clear pattern shines through. On the topic of motivation, we can begin to see the distinct trend that the female participants yield more optimistic responses. More respondents in this category believe that FL teachers and

the TA aid in motivating to a greater extent than their male peers (items 41 and 43). In a similar vein, the TA is thought to collaborate well with the other members of the CLIL team and teachers in general are considered to have adequate oral skills in English according to females, whereas males contemplate these aspects in a more negative manner (items 48 and 49) (cf. Table 28).

GENDER	<i>p value</i>
it41	.016
it43	.047
it48	.046
it49	.046

**Table 28. Statistically significant differences in terms of gender (students)**

Interesting results surface for *English level* due to the fact it is the students who consider themselves to have an upper-intermediate level of English that have differing opinions to the other proficiencies of beginners and intermediate, but in a negative respect. This emerged for three items; two belonging to the materials and resources block, and another related to mobility. The two latter groups document that software multimedia and interactive whiteboards are used in the CLIL class (items 29 and 32); on the other hand, those claiming to have the status of upper-intermediate do not seem to be in agreement. Much the same occurs when referring to whether teachers encourage students to participate in exchange programmes. While the lower two levels recognize this to be true, the students of a more advanced level hold the opposite opinion (item 54) (cf. Table 29).

LEVEL OF ENGLISH	<i>P value</i>
it29	.038
it32	.011
it54	.030

**Table 29. Statistically significant differences in terms of level of English (students)**

If we take the variable *level of studies of parents* into consideration, we find only one item has been affected with regard to statistically significant differences existing between the different entries. Students whose parents have gained a certificate in Secondary Compulsory Education or in vocational studies present contrasting outcomes to those students whose parents have studied Baccalaureate in relation to whether online reference materials are used in the CLIL classroom (item 30). Despite not being of much relevance, we can reveal it is the latter group that accredits the CLIL approach to taking advantage of the aforementioned materials (cf. Table 30).

LEVEL OF STUDIES OF PARENTS	<i>p value</i>
it30	.020

**Table 30. Statistically significant differences in terms of level of studies of parents (students)**

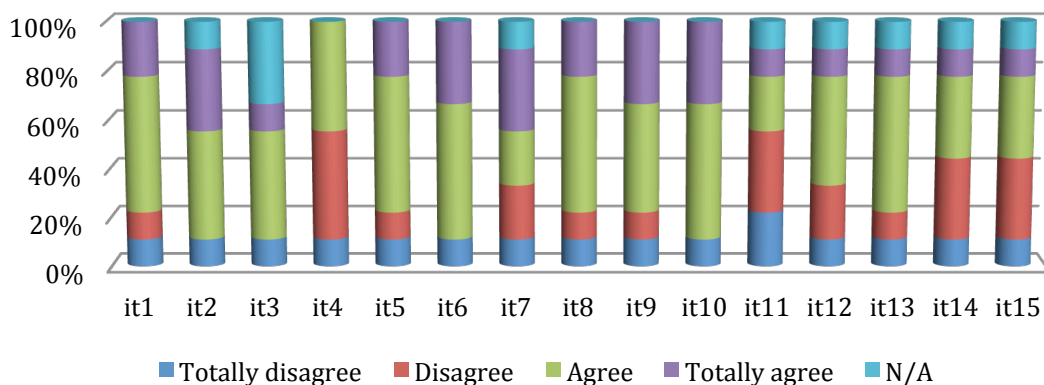
## 5.5. Teacher perspectives

We have provided a comprehensive account of student cohort sentiments apropos the CLIL programme and allowed the reader to deliberate over the global and specific outcomes that have come forth. Our focus will now be drawn to the second stakeholder under examination: that pertaining to teachers. A selection of various teacher types within the same context have been polled to extrapolate valuable conclusions on their behalf. On the surface, we can immediately distinguish less homogeneity when canvassed alongside the student perspectives, sensing a slightly more negative vision, deviating from Lancaster's (2012) former assessment, in which the role of the teacher was identified as the most optimistic cohort. The intricacies of this teacher outlook will now be expounded upon.

### 5.5.1. Global results

The first block for the teacher cohort, parallel to the student questionnaire, gauges the teachers' judgement on *students' use, competence and development of English in class*. We are given the impression that teachers hold an identical opinion to that of the students that vis-à-vis positive learner development in the L2 (item 2). Although a minor proportion disagree, there is a general consensus that students' understanding of how languages work (item 6) has been improved due to their enrolment in the CLIL class and motivation is high (item 10), tallying with previous findings (Lorenzo et al., 2009). Patterns emerge, in line with those of the students, in that the L1 remains unaffected by CLIL methodology (item 4), use of the target language should not be raised (item 11) and students do not demonstrate sufficient linguistic and intercultural awareness (item 14 and 15). We can derive a contrasting outlook in the evaluation of students' oral competence with several teachers dismissing the CLIL programme as a means to master such skills, detecting more positivity as regards written ability (cf. Graph 42).

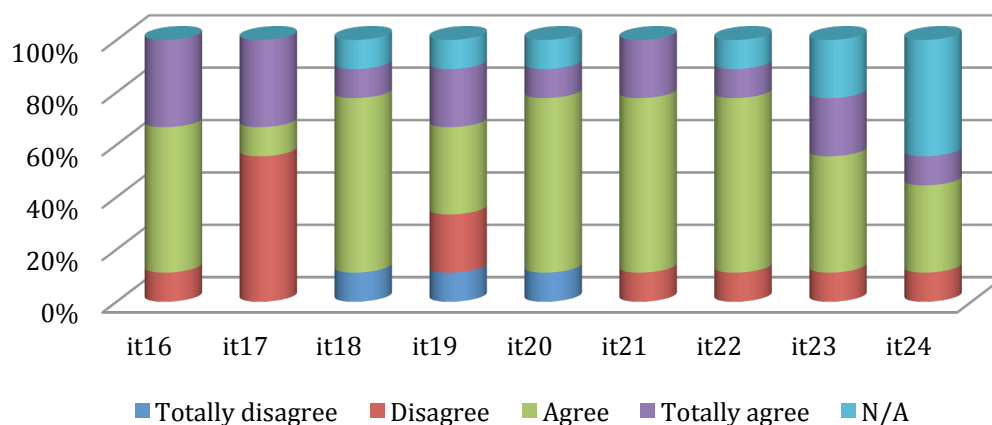
### STUDENTS' USE, COMPETENCE AND DEVELOPMENT OF ENGLISH IN CLASS (Teachers)



Graph 42. Students' use, competence and development of English in class (teachers)

In harmony with the previous block, the views evinced by teachers on *methodology* inform us of contradictory standpoints, especially associated with the project-based work of students (item 17). This could be accounted for due to the diversity of subjects taught, with some having a propensity to incorporate projects into the curriculum, whereas others may be more theory-orientated. Adhering to the more negative aspects identified, there is a considerable disagreement that cooperative learning is employed (item19). Several teachers admit to not prioritizing the lexical dimension, although this view is less pronounced (item 18). To corroborate what has transpired regarding oral skills from a teacher perception, a small percentage totally disagree that the CLIL approach promotes oral skills in class (item 20). Disregarding the items mentioned, we are reminded that a chiefly optimistic outlook does ensue when considering the implementation of task-based learning (item 16). Inconsistent with project-based assignments, teachers seem fond of the former. It is evident teacher and student views do not conform on the topic of languages as a whole, as teachers do believe reflection upon on the L1 and the connection between all languages are contemplated (items 21 and 22) (cf. Graph 43).

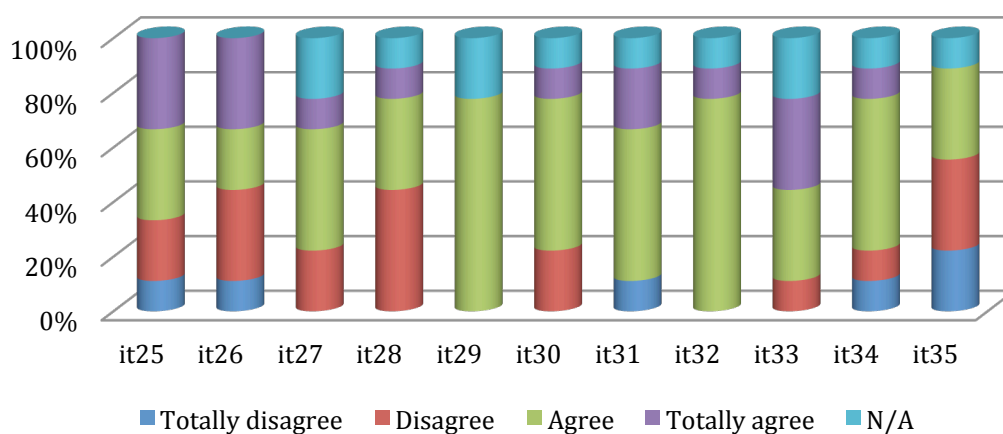
### METHODOLOGY (Teachers)



Graph 43. Methodology (teachers)

Once again, we are faced with an array of mixed responses on *materials, resources and ICT*, which emphasizes the obstacles teachers come up against in this domain. Ruiz Gómez’s (2015) inspection of how teachers are coping with CLIL in general in Andalusia revealed this success vs. struggle conflict pertaining to the resources available. Concurring with students, and reinforcing the potentiality of CLIL to enhance oral proficiency, teachers agree that materials boost these skills (item 29). On the hand, departing from what students have declared, online reference materials are held to be consulted in class (item 32). Standing out as the most negative elements are the lack of computer-mediated communication (item 35), also echoing the students, failure to adapt authentic materials (item 26) and shortcomings in collaborative commitment to prepare materials (item 28), also referred to by Tobin and Abello-Contesse (2013) (cf. Graph 44).

### MATERIALS, RESOURCES AND ICT (Teachers)

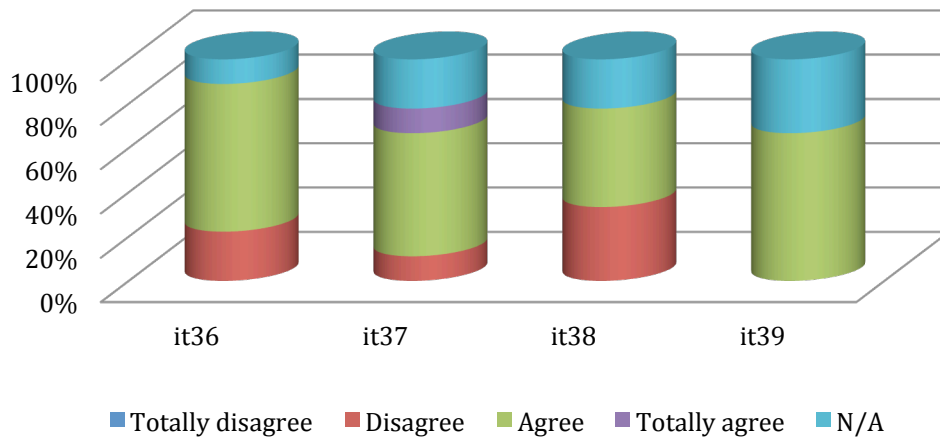


Graph 44. Materials, resources and ICT (teachers)

The block for *evaluation* puts forth a primarily optimistic outlook. Content is considered to be given priority over linguistic competence in the bilingual subjects (item 37), a conclusion that did not come to light in the student evaluation.

Nevertheless, teachers and students presented the same reaction on the topic of CLIL subjects not incorporating oral skill evaluation into their assessment procedures (item 38). Despite the fact that we cannot diagnose pessimism with regard to the use of formative and summative evaluation, outcomes are not so clear due to some teachers' lack of response (item 39). We can witness a trend unfolding on behalf of both of the cohorts discussed that CLIL is favourable to oral comprehension and production; however, issues remain surrounding the actual appraisal of these facets (cf. Graph 45).

### EVALUATION (Teachers)



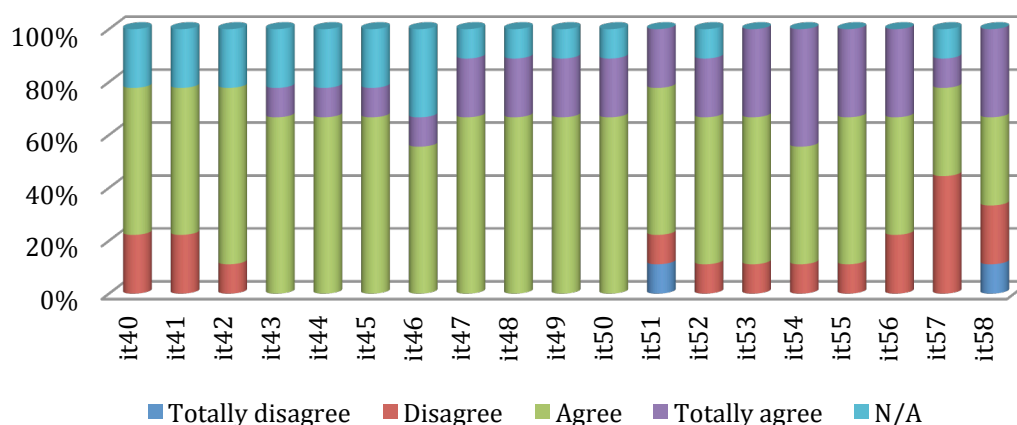
Graph 45. Evaluation (teachers)

Many items subsumed within the *teacher training* block correspond to an equivalent in the *teachers' use, competence and development of English in class* part of the student version of the questionnaire; however, it was deemed necessary to reformulate and integrate several items in order to gain a deeper understanding into the teaching context and to be given an insight into issues and concerns which do not only involve students.

The problem items affect forms of teacher training and the blatant deficit therein. On the whole, it is considered FL and NLA teachers require further

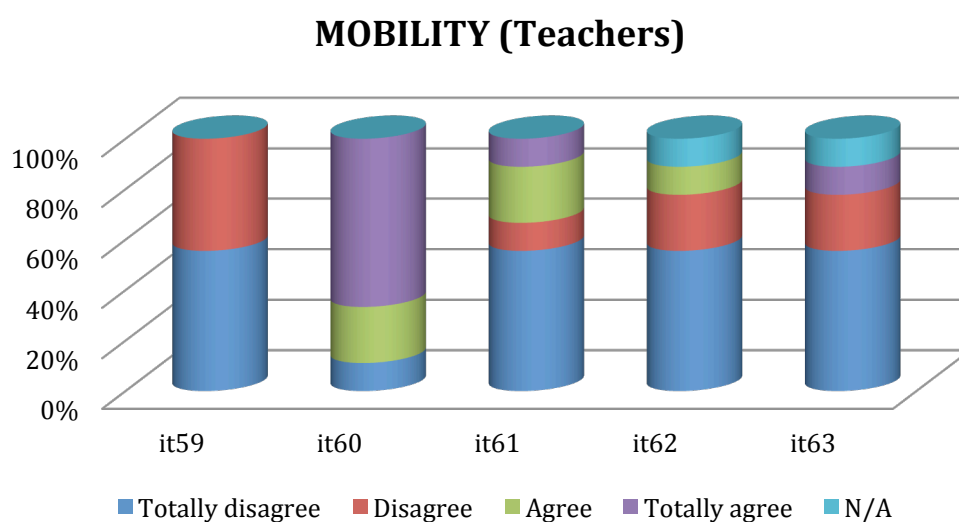
instruction and guidance to teach CLIL (items 40 and 41). The area of training which we have located to be most in demand is linked to methodological aspects (item 57), a need which has been constantly stipulated in research (Pérez Cañado, 2014; Ruiz Gómez, 2015). The call for increased supervision in this domain stems from inadequate knowledge of the term CLIL (item 56) and all its inner workings, which could be estimated as quite disconcerting given the confidence which is placed in teachers to effectuate this approach effectively. Although a substantial number of teachers have taken part in linguistic upgrade courses in the Official Language Schools, many totally disagree or disagree that this is the case (item 58), highlighting paucity in the constant development of the English language. Teacher responses evince teachers are collaborative (items 49 and 50), coinciding with the outcomes of many prior investigations (Cabezas Cabello, 2009; Gálvez Gómez, 2013; Lorenzo et al., 2009; Sánchez Torres, 2014). They all encourage speaking and listening in the CLIL class (items 46, 47 and 48) and motivate students in their bilingual learning (items 43, 44 and 45), in consonance with student opinion (cf. Graph 46).

### TEACHER TRAINING (Teachers)



Graph 46. Teacher training (teachers)

On inspection, the penultimate block in the teacher questionnaire, *mobility*, mirrors the student situation to some extent. Worryingly, no teachers have been involved in any kind of exchange with native speakers (item 59), but the majority are in total agreement with the positive repercussions that exchanges can have on oral skills (item 60). Courses which have, generally, not been carried out are linguistic ones (item 61), and methodological training and study licenses pervade even less (items 62 and 63), something fully congruent with what we found in the preceding block (cf. Graph 47).

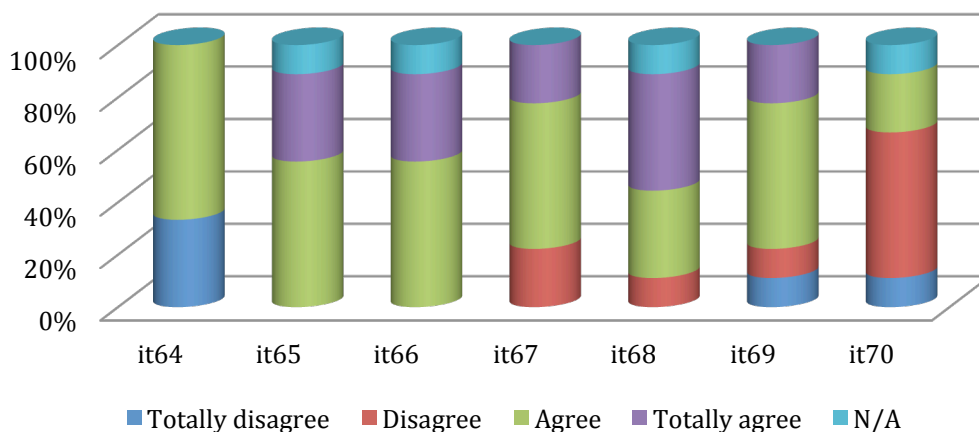


**Graph 47. Mobility (teachers)**

Finally, we are presented with an outline of *coordination and organisation* within the CLIL programme. What we have been witnessing throughout the analysis of this cohort is summed up in this section, as teachers confess they largely agree that extra workload implied by forming part of the programme is worth their while, although a considerable amount of teachers are in complete disagreement with this statement, generating a feeling of negativity which cannot be detected in the student cohort (item 64). We are able to interpret that the extra effort involved sometimes

poses too much of a hurdle for teachers, a finding which has been documented on many occasions (Cabezas Cabello, 2010; Lorenzo et al., 2009; Rubio Mostacero, 2009). On the brighter side, teachers agree or totally agree that students' L2 does improve as a cause of CLIL and oral skills in English are improved (items 65 and 66). Modest negativity reappears on the subject of collaboration (item 67) and this stakeholder do not seem at all content with the support provided by the educational authorities (item 70). Ultimately, we can sense teachers are in favour of the implantation of CLIL in schools, but major areas are pinpointed for improvement, the majority tied to the demand for a clearer picture as to how to successfully execute CLIL, bringing about the urgency of higher quality supervision (cf. Graph 48).

### COORDINATION AND ORGANISATION (Teachers)



Graph 48. Coordination and organisation (teachers)

#### 5.5.2. Specific results

Turning now to the specific results of this second group, we must call attention to the fact that the sample is limited and has, therefore, generated very few statistically significant differences, which can only be located in two of the variables:

*percentage of subject taught in English* and *bilingual teaching experience*. In the remainder of the variables, there are no differences worthy of commentary.

For *percentage of subject taught in English*, teachers using the higher percentage of 50% agree to a greater extent that authentic materials are incorporated into the planning of resources (item 25). This was compared to teachers electing to teach only 30%, who may feel threatened by such authenticity and opt for adapted and abridged versions. Only this item was found to yield statistically significant differences (cf. Table 31).

PERCENTAGE OF SUBJECT TAUGHT IN ENGLISH	<i>p value</i>
it25	.046

**Table 31. Statistically significant differences in terms of percentage of subject taught in English (teachers)**

Regarding *bilingual teaching experience*, an interesting outcome is observed in that those teachers who have had a shorter experience in the CLIL section appear to be more familiar than their longstanding teacher counterparts. The teachers with the bilingual experience range of 5-10 years state a more conspicuous shortage of knowledge that those who have only been involved for 1-5 years (item 56). We can ruminate why this may stand true and presume teachers who began CLIL teaching more than five years ago were likely to have been thrown in at the deep end without sufficient preparation, whereas educators who have jumped on the CLIL bandwagon more recently have entered with a more sound background knowledge, as they have perceived the CLIL effect gaining more momentum and perhaps received more help. The other sole item within this variable to yield statistically significant differences is connected to exchange programmes (item 59). Teachers who have served longer in

the profession as CLIL participants have stated their involvement in foreign excursions, as they have had more time to fulfil this objective (cf. Table 32).

BILINGUAL TEACHING EXPERIENCE	<i>p value</i>
it56	.034
it59	.049

**Table 32. Statistically significant differences in terms of bilingual teaching experience (teachers)**

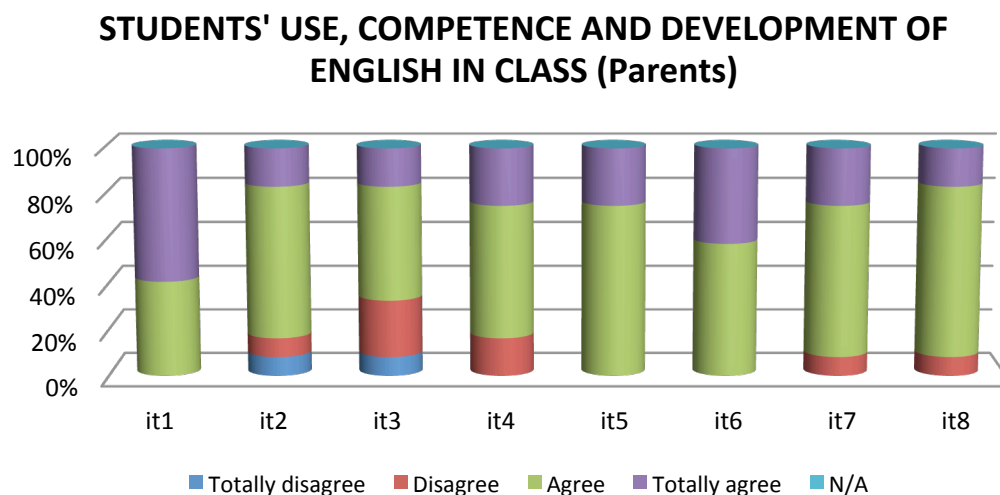
## 5.6. Parent perspectives

### 5.6.1. Global results

We are brought to our final, and equally influential, cohort under scrutiny of parents. Having rendered and reflected on the global and specific results of student and teacher perceptions, we will now embark upon a detailed examination of this third cohort of the study. This group, as the parents of students in the CLIL programme, set forth estimable opinions. We can state that, superficially, much the same seems to be occurring as with students and teachers: an overarching optimistic outlook intertwined with occasional problem areas cropping up. The whole picture will now be fleshed out according to thematic blocks.

With respect to the first block, *students' use, competence and development of English in class*, we immediately detect a parallel situation to that of students and teachers as regards improvement of the L2 as a consequence of the CLIL programme (item 1), which was also mentioned by Lorenzo et al. (2009). These authors confirmed that parents acknowledged a more developed competence of their children in the L2 after receiving CLIL classes. Also in line with the other two cohorts, parents are overly positive concerning the oral and written skills of the students, demonstrating they believe written skills to be slightly better, as do the teachers

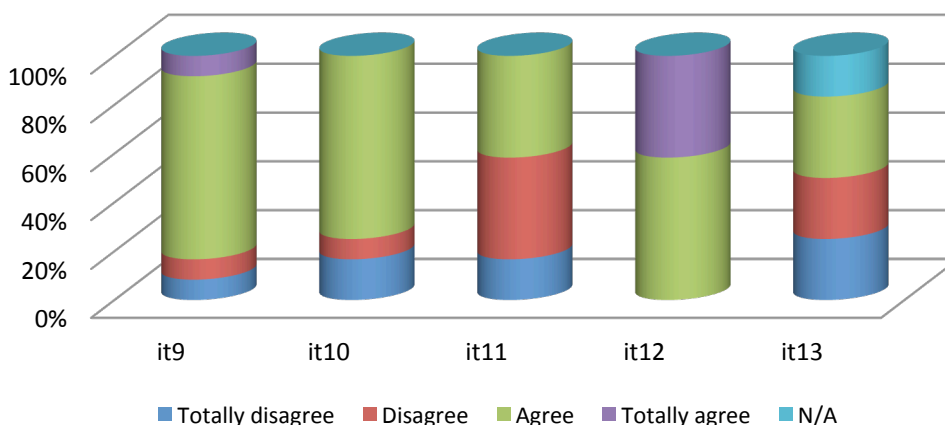
(items 5 and 6). In addition, on the downside and concurrent with both cohorts, once again, the parents do not consider CLIL to have a direct effect on the L1 (item 3) (cf. Graph 49).



**Graph 49. Student' use, competence and development of English in class (parents)**

The results from the block with the heading of *methodology* are not as optimistic. What stands out the most is a serious concern on behalf of the parents as regards the helplessness they feel at not being able to help their children when they have homework, as they are not proficient in the L2 (item 13). We have identified this scenario in alternative findings, as it appears as the overruling stress caused to this cohort (Cabezas Cabello, 2010; Gálvez Gómez, 2013). Parents also comment negatively on the ability of their children to work in groups at home. As CLIL is predominantly task-based, this involves students getting together outside of school on occasions, but parents are not witness to this occurrence (item 11). Mirroring their children's beliefs, parents do agree, or even totally agree, that CLIL boosts their children's oral skills (item 12), whereas we are reminded that although teachers do agree on the whole, they embody more scepticism in this respect (cf. Graph 50).

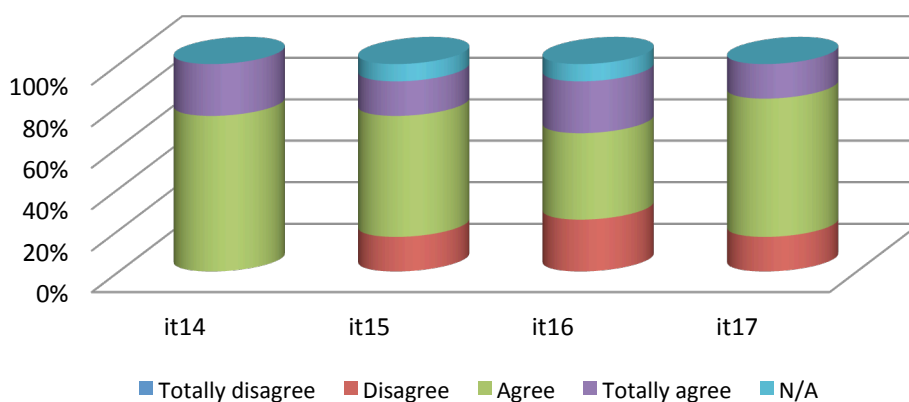
### METHODOLOGY (Parents)



Graph 50. Methodology (parents)

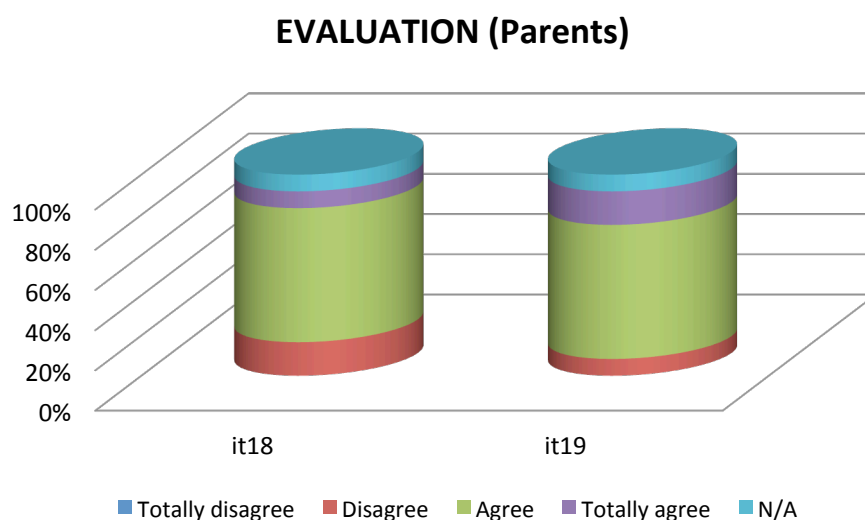
To expand on issues pertinent to *material, resources and ICT*, and in a similar vein as what has just been certified, parents view CLIL materials within the programme as encouraging oral comprehension and production (item 14), consistent with both students and teachers. The most negative item to transpire affects online reference materials (item 16), which is a problem pointed out by students, but not by the teacher cohort (cf. Graph 51).

### MATERIALS, RESOURCES AND ICT (Parents)



Graph 51. Materials, resources and ICT (parents)

Evincing congruence with teachers, but exhibiting a complete contrast to the opinions of students, the information obtained on *evaluation* shows parents are in agreement that priority is given to content of the CLIL subject rather than to linguistic features. On the contrary, parents hold opposing views when interrogated on whether oral skills are evaluated (item 19). Teachers and students do not entirely agree that this is carried out, while parents indicate that this is a process which they think is part of the CLIL concept. With the weighting of two cohorts against one and the former two existing as first-hand participants as opposed to parents, who can be looked upon as being on the sidelines, we could hypothesize that, as parents are aware of oral skills as a preminent ingredient in the CLIL approach, this leads them to conclude that it is obviously integrated into the assessment criteria of the programme (cf. Graph 52).

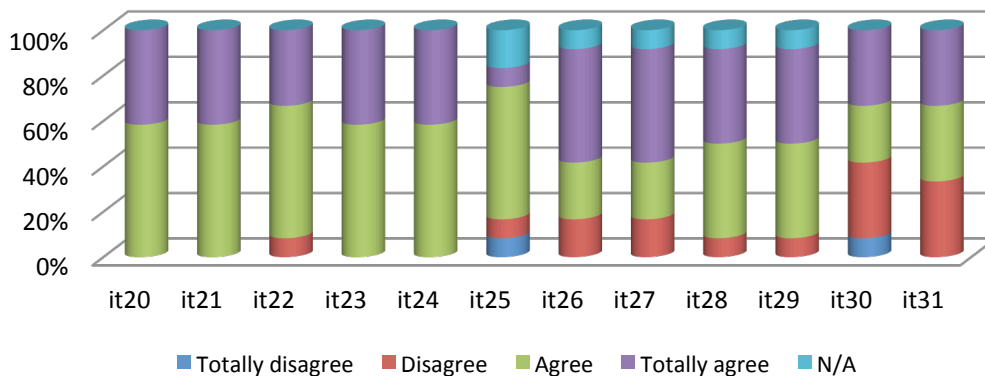


**Graph 52. Evaluation (parents)**

Conforming with the majority of the results in relation to the equivalent block in student and teacher questionnaires, *teachers' use, competence and development of English in class*, parents give the impression that they are satisfied with the teachers

who are in charge of developing their children's language and content knowledge and ability. They recognize teachers as motivating (items 20, 21 and 22) and being able to elicit the oral skills of the students (23, 24 and 25). Interestingly, the TA emerges as the most negative figure on both accounts, spawning the same speculations as the students. It can be imagined that the student informs their parents on how each type of teachers unravels their competences in the classroom, as the parents will have not come into direct contact with the TA; however, they have quite strong reservations about their place within the CLIL programme. On the other hand, parents do consider the teachers overall to possess adequate oral and written proficiency in the L2 (items 26 and 27). Concentrating on the negative aspects put forward, we are not surprised to discover that parents do not feel confident in terms of the APPP and CLIL (items 30 and 31). It is, especially, the actual programme about which they feel most disorientated and expose superior knowledge of CLIL techniques than the implemented plan itself. This just goes to show the extent to which parents have been kept in the dark about the complete initiative and rings alarm bells at this point in the game as to when parents are going to fully understand how their children are being educated (cf. Graph 53).

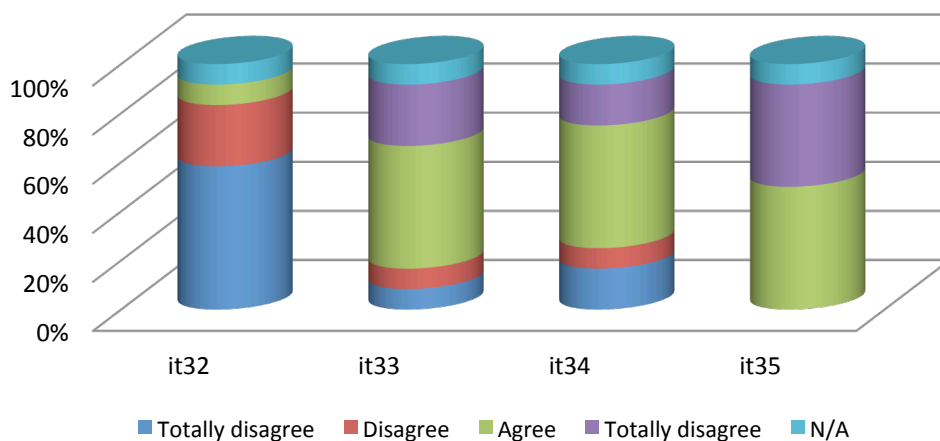
### TEACHERS' USE, COMPETENCE AND DEVELOPMENT IN CLASS



Graph 53. Teachers' use, competence and development of English in class (parents)

To back up what the students have already furnished, the block dealing with *mobility* reveals that a large percentage of their children have not had the opportunity to take part in exchanges (item 32). However, they claim that both they, as parents, and the teachers do encourage this type of activity (items 33 and 34) and strongly agree that participation would foster oral skills (item 35), tallying with the other two cohorts (cf. Graph 54).

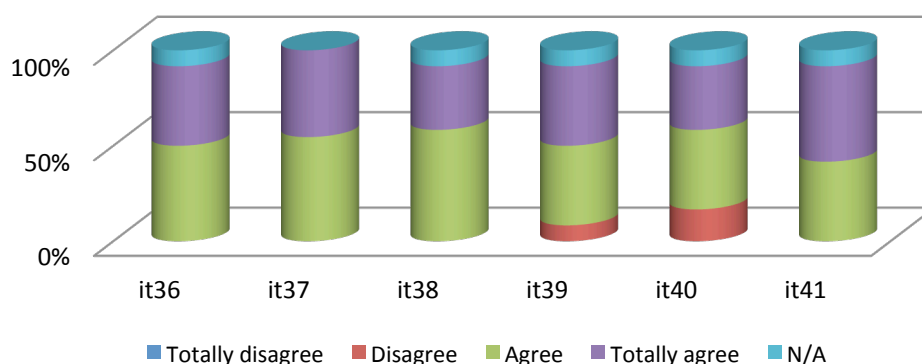
### MOBILITY (Parents)



Graph 54. Mobility (parents)

To complete the evaluation of the parent cohort, items classified in the block *improvement and motivation towards learning English* are now examined. We can commence by saying that this cohort displays an overall outlook which runs parallel to that of the students rather than to that of the teachers in that positivity is detected almost across the board, whereas for teachers more complications arise. What is illustrated is understandable, given the fact that teachers have varying issues to deal with, such as training deficits and increased workload, by which students and parents are not affected. It could be argued that each cohort has its own preoccupations, which can cause burdens; nevertheless, there is a definite message that they are less pronounced for the latter cohorts mentioned above. With reference to the items subsumed here, the only aspect seeming to cause disruption is the access to materials outside school (item 40). Students did not react in such a pessimistic manner to this question, whereas parents call for more readily available resources in the home context. It is clear that parents agree that their children's English level is developed in a successful manner (item 37), motivation has increased to due CLIL (item 38) and the programme increases the opportunity to practise oral skills in class (item 39), bearing a direct relevance to the quantitative part of this study. The item that attracts attention for creating the most positive reactions relates to the future professional life of the students. Parents are in total agreement that CLIL will improve their children's probability of having a successful working career (item 41) (cf. Graph 55).

### IMPROVEMENT AND MOTIVATION TOWARDS LEARNING ENGLISH (Parents)



Graph 55. Improvement and motivation towards learning English (parents)

#### 5.6.2. Specific results

We can confirm for this cohort that no statistically significant differences were uncovered in terms of the intervening variables considered. We can attribute this to the homogeneity of the views presented for this stakeholder, as well as to the more reduced size of this particular sample.

#### 5.7. Cohort comparison

To corroborate the last observation of the preceding heading, we are also able to announce that after an in-depth statistical inquiry, using the Kruskal-Wallis test as a measuring instrument, a very insignificant outcome has come to light regarding the comparison of all three cohorts. The examination of the corresponding items between the student, teacher and parent questionnaires revealed only one item has produced statistically significant differences and it can be found within the evaluation process (item 35 of the student questionnaire and its corresponding items in the teacher and parent surveys). We can perceive that students do not consider that the content in the CLIL subjects is given priority over linguistic competence. As previously mentioned,

this outcome is looked upon as dubious, as we are fully aware that one out of the two bilingual subjects studied by the group does not even take the L2 into consideration when assessing the students. On the other hand, the teachers and parents are in agreement that the opposite scenario is evident and the content of the subject does receive primary attention over any language knowledge. We are more inclined to believe this is the way evaluation is managed, as not only are there two cohorts contending against one, but it is also stated in the APPP specifications that within the content subjects language plays second fiddle to content knowledge in the evaluation process (cf. table 33). It would nonetheless be interesting to delve deeper into the students' perceptions on this front to determine the possible causes of their outlook on this issue.

COHORT COMPARISON	<i>p value</i>
it35	.027

**Table 33. Statistically significant differences in terms of bilingual teaching experience**

## 5.8. Interviews

### 5.8.1. Introduction

We will now proceed to provide an extensive overview of the conclusions drawn from interviews with students, teachers and parents. Our objective is to gain an insight of how CLIL is playing out through the elaborated opinions of these stakeholders. We aim not only to compare and contrast the three cohorts, but also to relate the findings to what has already been ascertained through the examination of the questionnaires. As we have mentioned in heading 4.1, Heras and Lasagabaster (2015) have cast doubt upon the representativeness of questionnaires as a statistical tool. These scholars dispute their validity on the basis of language learning being a prolonged, complex process, and a specific moment to fill in a questionnaire may not reflect stakeholders'

perceptions accurately. For this very reason, we have decided to incorporate interviews into our study to factor in methodological triangulation and to serve as support in order to substantiate the results already commented on. The interviews comprise ten different blocks, which will be examined separately with reference to all three cohorts, encapsulating the overall mindset on CLIL programmes.

### **5.8.2. Use of the L2 in class**

We will initiate this block of the interviews reporting on CLIL from a student point of view. It emerged that students consider their teachers to have an adequate level on the whole and, in general, 50% is the most common proportion of the CLIL class instructed in English, although this depends on the subject and also on the teacher. Every single student answered affirmatively without hesitation when asked if they thought their English level had improved as a consequence of the CLIL programme, mirroring questionnaire outcomes. In relation to whether much more effort is required to understand the content in non-linguistic area classes, mixed responses transpired. This again is contingent on the subject, in the students' opinion, as some subjects contain specific vocabulary which is very technical. All students admitted to participating sufficiently in class, claiming that at the start of the programme it was difficult and embarrassing, but in the final year of Compulsory Secondary Education, speaking in English posed no problems.

*“El nivel que traíamos del colegio hasta llegar hasta 4°ESO yo lo he notado bastante.”*

*“Tampoco nos suponía muchísimo esfuerzo, sólo un poco más que los demás.”*

*“En 4° de ESO ya nos soltamos.”*

The teachers, in contrast, not only based on the student contribution from the interviews, but also all the overarching results from the questionnaires, do not evince the same overly positive attitude. They agree that students have improved their L2 competence, but only in a lexical sense. Even then, it is difficult to motivate the students to retain the information for further use. Contrasting with student comments, the teachers attribute a small percentage of their class to students they would consider participative. They highlight confidence problems as the main culprit and also a lack of knowledge in relation to the importance of languages in the global world. There is consensual agreement that CLIL does not positively affect the content of the non-linguistic area subjects, also outlined in the questionnaire conclusions. At a push, they confess, once again, vocabulary knowledge in specific subjects may be richer; however, in terms of proficiency in the actual content, negative responses ensue. It was mentioned that in terms of fostering this component, further training is necessary. They do believe their language skills are adequate to teach in a CLIL programme; nevertheless, they declare the need for constant upgrading due to the possible comfortable situation of obtaining a certificate and letting their level decline (*“A lo mejor, no tenemos la formación de metodología, seguramente”*). They recognise the need to practise continuously, but admit that this is not an easy feat. Lastly, in line with students, they assign 50% as the most common amount of English employed in content subject lessons.

Parents prove to be unequivocal in their extremely positive attitude towards CLIL. The conclusions from this block of the interview set forth the most optimistic outlook when comparing cohorts. They add that CLIL methodology poses no problems at all for their children (*“La mía no ha notado diferencia”*): they got used to

the approach rapidly and the students have even commented to them that the class goes faster when it is given English.

### **5.8.3. Development of the L2 in class: Discursive functions**

Turning to how the L2 is developed in the CLIL class, solely students and teachers are involved in the debate on this topic, given that it involves providing information on the CLIL classroom environment. The majority of the students agree that interactional functions are predominant over transmissive ones. Some students explained the procedure of the class as transmissive at the beginning of the lesson, which leads to the asking of questions on the topic presented. Interaction between teacher and students is identified; however, the extent depends, once again, upon the subject and teacher. It is confirmed that feedback is provided efficiently, with the students always aware of the objectives of a specific lesson.

*“El profesor nos introducía el tema, pero luego hacía preguntas para que nos involucráramos en el tema.”*

*“En Ética hacíamos debates en inglés y participábamos más.”*

More positive results on behalf of the teacher cohort are reflected when voicing their opinion on the development of the L2 in class, as opposed to its general use. Concurring with student comments on this topic, a susceptibility to use interactional discursive functions is diagnosed. It is confirmed that a popular technique is to introduce the topic and then instigate a question-and-answer session in which the students take the opportunity to communicate. Teachers claim that teacher talk needs to be kept to a minimum, as the attention span of the students when assimilating information explained in the L2 is significantly shorter than if they were

being taught in their native language. Congruent to what students have outlined, feedback is provided, although in a constructive and timely manner. The EFL teacher characterizes her classes to target error correction, while the CLIL content classes are customarily used to promote a communicative competence.

*“Yo siempre intento que contesten preguntas.”*

*“No puedes dar largas explicaciones en inglés, el nivel de concentración lo impide.”*

*“Intento, sobre todo, que hablen en inglés.”*

#### **5.8.4. Development of competences in class**

Only students and teachers, again, have been approached for this block due to direct involvement of these two groups of participants in relation to the matter in hand. Both cohorts make a strong case that CLIL chiefly encourages oral comprehension and production, fully commensurate with the opinions collated throughout the inspection of the questionnaires. Students underscore that both oral and written competences are paid attention to; however, when referring to the CLIL content class, oral ones predominate. Other indications on the students' behalf acknowledge the interaction of the competences (listening in relation to speaking and reading linked to writing), connection between languages and exposure to culture improving intercultural awareness.

*“Hemos ganado más fluidez y más confianza.”*

*“Conforme iba aprendiendo más inglés, ya veía que tenía alguna relación.”*

As stated above, teachers attribute CLIL methodology to a greater contemplation of oral skills (*“en mi caso más oral”*). They establish that, although

speaking practice overrules, recent motions have been put into practice to step up listening skills by means of real English resources. To recognise the connection between languages and promote cultural awareness also figure on their CLIL agenda. It is reported that the CLIL students are constantly comparing the L1 with the L2 in EFL lessons to facilitate their understanding of language as a concept. Culture is mentioned in terms of dialects and accents, as students get chance to interact with the TA on a regular basis and this gives rise to debates on different ways of speaking around the world.

#### **5.8.5. Methodology and types of groupings**

Methodology comes across as primarily innovative by accounts of the stakeholders. Students describe the activities as participative, interesting and fun. The innovative element wanes slightly concerning task and project work, with students admitting these are carried out to a lesser extent. All types of groupings are used in the CLIL class according to the student, but no consultation of the ELP is documented. Evidence is given of the manipulation of higher order thinking skills, with students claiming CLIL is not about memorising.

*“No era sólo libros y cuadernos.”*

*“Era más dinámica.”*

*“Si hacíamos un trabajo o una exposición o algo era, por ejemplo, en grupos de tres o cuatro.”*

*“Memorizar, no.”*

Teachers' views echo those contributed by students, albeit with a more negative twist. A deficiency which was picked up on, consistent with the students'

declarations, was the absence of task and project work. This was a lacuna which also transpired during the gathering of opinions for the questionnaires. Group work is fostered by teachers, as well as pair and individual options. In discordance with students' optimistic take on activities, teachers convey a more traditional approach and although higher order thinking is present, it is not rife. The motive behind these less than enthusiastic approaches to methodology transpires as a direct need of training. Teachers seem to be crying out for guidance in this terrain.

*“Yo utilizo mucho la dinámica grupal.”*

*“Me encantaría tener una metodología maravillosa y revolucionaria para bilingüe.”*

*“Me encantaría que nos formaran.”*

Parents, on the other hand, appear satisfied with the methodology undertaken to develop L2 oral and written skills in class, although they admit they cannot be certain exactly how it unfolds. Students are witnessed accessing materials in English at home in the form of book, music, films and the internet, which is viewed as positive exposure. A negative aspect which seems to arise frequently is the inability of parents to help their children with CLIL homework, as they have insufficient knowledge of the L2. Parents say they wish it was possible, but the students' English level is significantly superior to theirs, concurring with one of the most negative items in the parent questionnaire and also in prior investigations (e.g., Cabezas Cabello, 2010).

#### **5.8.6. Materials and resources**

According to students, the materials and resources available in the CLIL classroom consist of a combination of more traditional elements in addition to regular

use of ICT. They all agree that the interactive whiteboard is a steadfast component of CLIL teaching, although certain classes do not have constant access. The students state they take advantage of PowerPoint to create presentations they have to deliver to the rest of the students. The use of textbooks in the L2 is evident and these are considered to be adequately adapted to the students' level. To highlight some negative aspects, coinciding with the responses in the questionnaires, there is an absence of the use of online tools such as blogs, wikis, webquests and computer-mediated communication like eTwinning.

From a teacher angle, teachers express strong negative opinions regarding materials. The majority evince that there is an obvious deficit, whereas others claim materials to be inexistent. Furthermore, what is available is scarcely adapted to a suitable level and is generally too high. There is also a plea for a more efficient use of technology: although technological resources are available, training is needed to fully take advantage of these advances.

*“Deficiente es demasiado; para mí, es inexistente.”*

*“Y todo lo he tenido que adaptar siempre.”*

One parent expresses her disappointment in the material available in school and discredits it for having too low a level (*“Los libros de texto en sí son de bajo nivel”*), presenting a conflicting point of view to that of the teachers. CLIL materials seem to be a reoccurring problem on the whole, which has also come to light in the analysis of the questionnaires. Teachers have continually articulated the lack of materials for the CLIL classroom. The predicament appears to be so serious that parents are conscious of the problem.

### 5.8.7. Coordination and organization

Coordination within the CLIL programme is accounted for, although hesitation is detected when asked if all teachers collaborate with one another. They do believe this to be true on the whole, but it also depends on the teacher and usually applies in the case of the non-linguistic area teacher rather than with the FL teachers. This leads us to believe that, in spite of satisfactory organization, there is room for improvement. The students emphasize that it is evident when there is a communicative relationship between the members of staff, as the class runs more smoothly.

*“Pero algunos profesores con los auxiliares sí hablan mucho.”*

Once more, we are faced with pessimism on behalf of the teachers in terms of coordination. The problem does not reside in the lack of a desire to enhance the collaborative dynamic of the CLIL team; complications come in the form of time restraints. Teachers stress there is insufficient time to collaboratively plan lessons, given that there is no allocated time in the timetable for this to take place. This departs from the broadly positive answers in the questionnaires concerning coordination. Disappointment is also directed at the educational authorities for not being as supportive as they should be.

*“No hay tiempo.”*

*“Que nos formen, que nos den la programa adecuada, pero eso no es apoyo.”*

*“Todo que hacemos es por iniciativa propia.”*

Parents have only heard positive accounts from their children as regards the collaboration of teachers and they are given the impression that teachers work well together.

### **5.8.8. Evaluation**

Clear-cut opinions transpire within the interview on the topic of evaluation, given that all students are in agreement that the process of assessment in the bilingual content subject involves a written exam in the L1 with the incorporation of some questions in English at the end. Exams are principally written, in contrast to the communicative lessons, which implicates heightened use of the oral component. The same view was interpreted in the questionnaires, as a high percentage of respondents claimed oral skills were not included in the assessment criteria. Summative evaluation seems to be more popular, with the students being examined by topic as opposed to and end of term exam.

Interestingly, students are confident in that evaluation is geared towards the content of the CLIL subject rather than the FL, completely contradicting the opinion that came across in the questionnaires. This issue was brought to the fore as statistically significant differences were found in the across-cohort comparison to defend that the students had quite strong views that content was not given priority, contrary to the speculations of teachers and parents on this matter. We can only hypothesize that the students did not entirely understand what was being asked in the questionnaire, as feedback in the interviews has been transparent.

*“Nos ponían unas preguntas en inglés.”*

Teachers' comments on evaluation are fully commensurate with those of the students regarding evaluation. Teachers profess to giving priority to Spanish rather than the L2 and explain a few questions in English are added at the end of a written exam.

Parents do not seem to be aware of how evaluation is carried out in the bilingual programme. They do state that their children seem content with the way it is organised, as there have been no complaints on this front.

### **5.8.9. Teacher training and mobility**

Teachers are looked upon as competent educators, as was conveyed in the questionnaires, while some teachers noticeably possess more experience than others from a student perspective (*"Algunos tenían más nivel y están más formados"*). One student points out that they can see teachers struggling in class in that they are unsure of how to adapt the level of English to the students. In accordance with the questionnaire outcomes, students admit they have not had the chance to take part in any exchange programmes, although they strongly agree that to have such an opportunity would benefit their English development greatly.

Displaying a trend of negativity, teachers declare adamantly that training for CLIL teachers is seriously lacking. A plea is made for methodological courses to instruct teachers on exactly how to transmit content in the L2. Confirming what has been ascertained through the questionnaires, we can characterize this obstacle as the most negative feature of the CLIL programme.

*"Nos lanzan un programa que nos pide simplemente una titulación académica en inglés, pero eso no es todo, ni mucho menos para enfrentarnos a esto."*

*“¿Qué formación tenemos nosotros en esto?”*

Pertaining to mobility as an opportunity to develop language skills, parents are in favour of their children participating in an exchange. They regret that this has not been possible, as they are aware of the advantages it can generate. If the opportunity arises, they would be fully supportive of their children taking part.

#### **5.8.10. Motivation and workload**

With reference to the implication that forming part of the CLIL class involves managing a heavier workload, students claim that once you get used to the methodology being taught through the L2, it does not pose any effort whatsoever, corroborating the questionnaire results. Motivation is high and students are aware that more can be learnt by means of such a programme. Comments include that it can be difficult at first, but only until you adapt, more responsibility is placed on the learner and it is definitely worthwhile.

*“Nos acostubramos.”*

*“Se supone que se aprende mucho más.”*

*“Te costaba más trabajo hasta que te adaptabas.”*

*“Sí, merece la pena.”*

Teachers, on the other hand, underscore that the workload is sometimes unmanageable. Forming part of the CLIL implies a much heavier workload than traditional monolingual teaching. They lay emphasis on the fact, however, that if you think of the benefits with which you are equipping the students, then participation is worth the effort.

Tallying with student opinion, parents recognize that in the case of any extra workload as a result of the CLIL programme, it would be outweighed by the numerous benefits CLIL brings about. However, according to them, no extra workload has ensued (*“la mía no se ha quejado de eso”*). This has been interpreted through their children’s enthusiasm.

#### **5.8.11. Overall assessment**

To follow up the overly optimistic outlook in the last heading, strikingly positive attitudes are exposed in this last section to sum up the CLIL programme on behalf of the students, mirroring the overall questionnaire outcomes. Students confessed that, at the beginning of the programme, they were apprehensive as they could not imagine studying content in English and they thought certain subjects could have presented complications. However, after having started, they soon realised the advantages. They reveal motivation increases and the teachers facilitate their learning to improve their English level. A particular student describes CLIL as not only language-orientated, due to the contingency of acquiring knowledge in the content matter.

*“Todos nos fuimos adaptando poco a poco.”*

*“Hemos estado más en contacto con el inglés.”*

*“Ahora vemos que ha merecido la pena, que tenemos un nivel superior que no lo habríamos tenido.”*

*“Cuando sales del país puedes defenderte.”*

*“En las asignaturas nos metían más material de otras cosas, nos formaban más.”*

We can decipher that posterior to the teachers expressing their concerns about the CLIL programme, they do appear to believe it is a positive crusade. Their overall outlook is positive, but can be improved. One teacher points out, referring to the strengths of CLIL, that due to its nature, it has the potential to improve the speaking and listening skills, a facet of language learning that the Spanish are renowned to struggle with, but for this to materialize teachers need to have the sufficient capacity to be able to effectuate this out in the CLIL classroom.

*“Positivo, pero mejorable.”*

*“El primordial fallo que tenemos los españoles es el speaking y el listening, entonces yo creo que con el programa bilingüe se puede potenciar mucho. ¿Cómo? No sabemos.”*

The final cohort to set forth their overall point of view, when taking the CLIL programme as a whole into consideration, are the parents. They are often the neglected party when it comes to gathering perspectives on CLIL, establishing a need to engage this stakeholder in the assessment process. It emerges that parents possess limited knowledge on how CLIL is carried out in the classroom. They also confess to not being familiar with the APPP or CLIL methodology. We were given this impression on examining the questionnaires, but having the opportunity to speak to parents in person only served to emphasize to what extent they were in the dark in relation to the bilingual education plan of Andalusia.

Despite the latter discovery, they believe this is no reason not to have faith in the programme, as they have seen the fruitful outcomes with their own eyes. Summing up CLIL globally, parents stress the motivating effect it has on students to learn not only language, but to learn in general. They appreciate the opportunity it

provides for their children to speak in the FL in the classroom and are ultimately satisfied with its development.



CHAPTER 6  
CONCLUSIONS



## 6.1. Recapitulation

Conducive to underpinning the key assumptions of the study, we will now present an overview of the principal findings in relation to the metaconcerns and objectives outlined in heading 4.2.

Congruent with **metaconcern 1**, encompassing *objectives 1-3*, we have designed and validated two language tests: one to measure students' English competence regarding oral comprehension (*objective 1*) and the other to evaluate students' English competence in relation to oral production (*objective 2*). The content of the tests has been contingent on the Obligatory Secondary Education Curriculum, taking into consideration government royal decrees with reference to Spain as a state and also those that refer to Andalusia as an autonomous community. The Common European Framework of Reference for languages has also been taken into consideration when designing the tests. The oral comprehension test has been based on a two-part structure to, first of all, distinguish phonemes and, secondly, to assess general comprehension. A variety of tasks have been incorporated to examine different skills apropos listening (word stress and syllables, sentence stress and intonation, contracted forms, true/false, multiple choice and matching). The oral production test has entailed the completion of three tasks to test a variety of facets within speaking proficiency (interview, individual speaking and spoken interaction). The components of the test have been subject to a marking scheme taking into account five selective areas of competence: grammatical, lexical, fluency, pronunciation and task fulfilment. Posterior to the design, a validation procedure has ensued, in which five external experts have strictly examined various aspects to provide feedback for their improvement. The recommendations put forward by the team of experts, relating to content, length, rubrics and administration, have been

factored into the final versions. Estimable reliability coefficients have obtained, by means of Cronbach alpha (0.716) and Kuder-Richardson (0.822), to determine the internal consistency and reliability of the oral instruments.

*Objective 3*, in turn, has involved the design and validation of three separate questionnaires, each in line with the specific characteristics of student, teacher and student cohorts, to identify their corresponding perspectives on CLIL methodology adapted to an Andalusian context. The content of the surveys has encompassed seven main aspects: students' use, competence and development of English in class; methodology; materials and resources and ICT; evaluation; teachers' use, competence and development of English in class (students and parents) / teacher training (teachers); mobility; and, finally, improvement and motivation towards English (students and parents) / coordination and organisation (teachers), all of which has been contrived taking APPP principles, official literature and relevant research outcomes into account. The validation of the questionnaires has again involved a double-fold pilot process, in which the first step has been the submission of the survey to five external reviewers with expertise coherent to the study. Valuable suggestions provided by the experts have resulted in the amendment of the questionnaires by means of the elimination of items, reorganisation of items, rewording of items and alteration of age ranges. In virtue of remarkably high Cronbach alpha coefficients for the three questionnaires (0.9283 for the student version, 0.8988 for the teacher equivalent and 0.9753 for the parent one), their internal consistency and reliability have been justifiably confirmed.

**Metaconcern 2 (quantitative study)** will now be adhered to commencing with *objective 4 (sub-objectives a-d)*, which comprises the principal section of the study. An analysis has been carried out providing an insight into whether a CLIL

programme implemented with fourth grade of Compulsory Secondary Education students (experimental group) has developed superior English oral comprehension and production skills to those promoted by an English as a Foreign Language programme with students from the same level (control group). Groups have been examined concurrently in an across-cohort comparison to compare their listening and speaking progress at a pre-, post- and delayed post-test phase.

In the pre-test phase, it has transpired that no statistically significant differences have been detected between the experimental and the control groups for either competence (oral comprehension and oral production), as regards the global mark and specific to each individual task, which has allowed us to ascertain that both the CLIL and the EFL groups are perfectly matched and, therefore, constitute fully homogenous samples. The fact that homogeneity has been statistically corroborated supersedes the lacuna presented on this front by all other previous studies and has provided us with a study with confirmed validity.

The data observed in the post-test phase has revealed encouraging results in favour of the CLIL group regarding both oral comprehension and oral production. Students in the experimental group have displayed more developed oral receptive skills on the overall mark of the test and specifically for the most cognitively demanding task, thereby corroborating prior research claiming CLIL to enhance the understanding of complex language in a listening context. On the surface, very much the same has occurred vis-à-vis oral production, as statistically significant differences have been found on the test as a whole. However, delving deeper to scrutinize outcomes in terms of task and skill, we have found the experimental group to have a higher ability in the spoken interaction task, highlighting, once again, their propensity to employ more sophisticated structures in their language. Fluency has been

pinpointed as the specific skill in which the CLIL students have excelled most, perhaps owing to their intensive preparation for the Trinity College London exam, which was an initiative made possible solely based on forming part of the CLIL programme. The only aspect in which there is harmony between the two groups scores is pronunciation. No statistically significant differences were found for either group, however this skill is renowned for proving difficult to improve in limited periods of time.

The delayed post-test exposes a drastic change in the situation as regards oral comprehension, as we have witnessed the levelling out of test scores between both the CLIL group and its EFL counterpart. No statistically significant differences have been located on any part of the test, although the mean scores have generally been higher for the CLIL group, ascertaining their listening skills are more developed to a certain extent. In contrast, the outcomes for oral production consolidate the more advanced speaking skills of the CLIL students, in which the EFL peers have been outstripped across the board. Fluency, grammatical and lexical skills are the ones that have highlighted the CLIL group's leading speaking competence.

An evaluation has been effectuated to determine the modulating (differential) effect of gender on the CLIL students' oral comprehension and production via the intervening variable of gender. The findings have exhibited that the aforementioned variable does not yield any statistically significant differences between male and female students, insinuating that the CLIL programme is not particularly advantageous for one of the sexes.

To complement the results already presented, *objective 5* has entailed the exploration of each cohort (CLIL and EFL) separately in order to elaborate on the

development of each individual group, bearing upon receptive and productive oral competence from the pre- to the post- to the delayed post-test phases. The evolution of each skill for the experimental and control group over the full year and a half period will now be traced.

Vis-à-vis oral comprehension competence within the CLIL group, we are presented with an unexpected situation. No statistically significant differences have been found from either the pre-to the post- or the post- to the delayed post-test. It is necessary to report that mean scores have been higher from one phase to the next, so that an improvement can be acknowledged, albeit not statistically. On the other hand, this cohort does progress positively from the pre- to the delayed post-test. From the onset to the completion of the testing period, the CLIL students made headway in the two most complicated tasks from each section of the test, reaffirming the fact that CLIL programmes bolster the development of oral comprehension over a more prolonged period of time.

In terms of oral production, CLIL students have flourished. There has been an all-embracing conspicuous improvement throughout, giving us a motive to postulate that CLIL renders undeniable effects on student competence. To flesh out the evolution of this skill, from the pre- to post-test, spoken interaction takes centre stage as the task most effectively performed, whereas grammar embodies the skill with the least impact. This might be attributed to the communicative focus of the CLIL classroom. In comparison, the post- to delayed-post phase have marked higher scores in individual speaking and lexical competence. Finally, from beginning to end of the year and a half interval, statistically significant differences have been observed in every component of both categories: task and skill.

The results for the EFL cohort do not paint such a pretty picture. Relating to oral comprehension, the outcome from the pre- to the post-test reports on a deterioration of this competence. Despite the fact statistically significant differences have only transpired for one task to support this claim, the mean scores have elaborated on this dismay. The subsequent phase has furnished positivity in that scores have improved and several have been statistically confirmed. However, when reminded of the poor outcome for the previous stage, it is hardly surprising. It must be articulated, nevertheless, that it is on the more complex tasks that students have made progress, perhaps due to the effects of the Baccalaureate. The same matching task has yielded affirmative momentum from the pre- to the delayed post-test.

Considering the findings provided by the accomplishment of the oral comprehension and production competence tests, we can conclude that despite a lack of statistically confirmed progress for all phases, there has been a linear evolution of listening skills on behalf of the CLIL group due to the interpretation of rising mean scores, which cannot be confirmed for the EFL cohort. On the contrary, the CLIL programme has had an overwhelming effect on the positive development of oral production; we might be able to assign this encouraging outcome to a heightened use of communication in all CLIL circumstances.

Turning to **metaconcern 3 (qualitative study)** and specific to *objective 6*, a comprehensive evaluation of three stakeholders at the forefront of our investigation has been successfully effectuated, pertaining to students' use, competence and development of English in class; methodology; materials and resources and ICT; evaluation, teachers' use, competence and development of English in class (students and parents) / teacher training (teachers); mobility; and, finally, improvement and motivation towards English (students) / coordination and organisation (teachers and

parents). To collate opinions, we have administered the questionnaires set out in objective 1. In addition, semi-structured interviews have been used as a second qualitative tool in order to substantiate our findings.

Overall outcomes unveil predominantly positive attitudes on behalf of all the stakeholders who are implicated in the study. Whereas the student cohort can be considered to hold somewhat of a more optimistic outlook on the whole, teachers are perceived to be more cautious to praise the CLIL programme and voice a plethora of concerns on aspects they deem unsatisfactory; that said, this latter cohort still brand the experience as more positive than negative. Parents' opinions are in a similar vein to that of the students, although, as indirect participants, it is contemplated that they are less familiar with the programme than the other respondents, suggesting they are unable to embrace the concept in the same way; hence the optimistic outlook, albeit to a lesser extent than that of the students. The students appear to have responded more positively to aspects with reference to their own and their teachers' use, competence and development of English and the methodology employed in the bilingual class. On the other hand, teachers reveal their satisfaction with the APPP is derivable from contrasting components relating to evaluation and certain aspects in the teacher training block of the questionnaire, however these aspects are predominantly in connection to their effective role as a teacher, not teacher training for which a more negative outlook is detected. Parents are in agreement with the students that the CLIL programme promotes their children's development of the L2. When asked to give their views on the plan in general, harmony ensues between the student and parent cohorts in the form of ubiquitous acceptance of the specific CLIL methodology in question. In contrast, teachers come across as somewhat more dubious.

We will now proceed to recapitulate our findings upon closer inspection of each individual cohort, in which we will allude to the principal tendencies discovered and point out any salient exceptions.

The student participants, as previously referred to, have an undeniably self-complacent view of their own English competence in terms of written and oral competence; the only mixed responses identified in this respect are connected to their improvement in the Spanish language. They seem to have competently adjusted to learner-centred methodology and are content with the materials incorporated in class; however, they document mediocre use of ICT, and emphasize a lack of CMC techniques. According to their responses, evaluation is carried out in the correct manner, although not all students agree an oral component is included in exams. Students acknowledge that they are more than satisfied with all the teaching figures who form part of the bilingual programme, although it transpires that they consider the teaching assistants to motivate them to a lesser extent. A slightly worrying conclusion that has emerged is the fact that students scarcely take part in exchange programmes, even though they are adequately encouraged by teachers and family. In contrast with this last point, in light of interpretations regarding their overall improvement and motivation towards learning English, an overly optimistic outlook can be detected.

Teachers more or less agree with the students *vis-à-vis* their English use, competence and development, underscoring the overly adequate participation of students in class. However, they project somewhat more negative perspectives on the whole, especially concerning students' linguistic awareness and intercultural competence. Simulating these results, although teachers evince positive attitudes towards methodology, they report on various negative aspects in terms of project-

based learning and the lexical dimension being given priority. They disagree with the students and claim that the mother tongue and the connection between languages are emphasized to the extent they should be. There are mixed responses in connection to materials. For example, they are in agreement with students on the topic of CMC, but document that the materials employed in class promote oral comprehension and production. They are satisfied with the way evaluation is dealt with, although they also admit an oral component is not always incorporated into assessment. Prevailing enthusiasm is established towards their own English skills and it is evident that they value their roles as effective and fundamentally motivating. However, there is a clear demand for more training opportunities, relative to a deficit from a methodological perspective in particular. Pertinent to mobility, teachers evince a similar negative participation in exchange programmes to that of the students, even though they are fully aware that taking part in such initiatives would significantly improve their oral communication skills. Serious problems are encountered on the subject of all courses and study licenses, posing a reoccurring issue. Assessing the bilingual programme across the board, there are negative results concerning how the plan is supported by educational authorities and a considerable percentage of teachers confess that the increase in workload is not worth the effort. Disregarding these distinct concerns, we are given the impression that the APPP has been welcomed into our education system by this particular cohort.

Parent attitudes have been found to coincide more with those of the students than those of the teachers. Students' use, competence and development of English has been stressed as a CLIL strength on behalf of the parents, insinuating they are content with the way in which their children's skills are advancing. In terms of methodology, they pinpoint as a negative aspect not possessing the ability to assist their children

with their homework, but view the CLIL approach to foster oral skills in the classroom. Parents are also in agreement that materials and evaluation have a positive connection with the promotion of oral comprehension and production, leading us to believe that parents value the communicative focus of CLIL. They appear to encourage their children to participate in exchange programs and are insistent that this also provides a way of furthering oral skills. Optimism ensues across the board when summing up the CLIL programme, with unequivocal opinion that forming part of the CLIL group will, without a doubt, boost their children's opportunities in their future professional life.

The meagre differences between cohorts previously specified have been empirically corroborated by means of the application of the Mann-Whitney U and Kruskal-Wallis tests, which correspond to *objective 7a*. Only one statistically significant difference has been located in the comparison, substantiating a complete congruence in responses. To elaborate on this contrasting element, we have observed that students do not consider that the content in the CLIL subjects is given priority over linguistic competence. On the other hand, the teachers and parents are in agreement that the opposite scenario is evident, considering that the content of the subject does receive primary attention over any language knowledge. It is likely that the latter groups are reflecting on reality as we know that, according to APPP specifications, that content is the dominant component and, also, since it is the teacher who devises the evaluation criteria (hence an increased insight into how assessment is implemented).

On account of all cohorts, satisfaction with the CLIL programme broadly speaking demonstrates that the overall improvement of the plan is not a crucial

consideration; however, it would be advisable to look carefully at each cohort, the teachers in particular, in order to overcome the minor imperfections observed.

Varying perspectives have transpired in consideration of the intervening identification variables. However, very few statistically significant differences have become apparent in light of the Mann-Whitney U and Kruskal-Wallis tests, representing *objectives 7b, 7c and 7d*.

The student cohort undoubtedly presents the greatest number of statistically significant differences of all the groups. These differences are encountered within *gender* (where females acknowledge teachers are motivating, collaborate with the TA successfully and possess adequate oral skills in English to a greater extent than males), *English level* (which reveals that upper intermediate learners evince more negative attitudes on use of multimedia and interactive whiteboards and the fact that teachers motivate students to participate in exchange programmes) and *level of studies of parents* (students whose parents have higher levels of education agree more readily that online reference materials are used in class).

The statistically significant differences detected within the teacher cohort are fewer, albeit equally interesting for two variables: *percentage of subject taught in English* (teachers employing higher percentages believe authentic materials are used more in class) and *bilingual teaching experience* (those teachers who have less bilingual teaching experience admit to knowing more about the CLIL programme and those that have been working longer have participated more in exchange programmes).

As outlined in the objectives, semi-structured interviews have been incorporated into the study in order to factor in methodological triangulation and to

thus accommodate ourselves with a more valid and reliable study. The interviews have served to provide a more in-depth insight into stakeholder perceptions, as the three cohorts have been given the opportunity to elaborate on specific aspects. With reference to the information brought to the fore, what has been established in the questionnaire outcomes has essentially been authenticated. The interviews have permitted us to, first of all, clear up the difference in opinion regarding evaluation. During the student interview, it was confirmed that content was given priority over language competence, as it should be, indicating students might have misunderstood the concept in the questionnaire. Secondly, we have been able to decipher exactly to what extent teachers are crying out for help. A very strong case has been made with respect to lack of guidance and methodological training in order to ensure they are effectuating their duties correctly. This should be taken on board by the educational authorities to put the necessary interventions into place with a view to achieving a smoother implementation and growth of the CLIL crusade.

## **6. 2. Limitations of the study and lines for further research**

With the assistance of the designed and validated instruments appertaining to **metaconcern 1**, **metaconcern 2** and **metaconcern 3**, it has been possible to carry out an analysis to shed light on whether a CLIL programme implemented with fourth grade of Compulsory Secondary Education (CSE) students (experimental group) has developed superior English oral comprehension and production skills to those promoted by an English as a Foreign Language (EFL) programme with students from the same level (control group). In addition, we have been able to deliver an in-depth description of stakeholder perspectives as regards CLIL methodology.

The present study has superseded many of the shortcomings of prior research which compromised the validity of the outcomes obtained. To begin with, it presents an eclectic research design (combining quantitative and qualitative aspects). Secondly, it is longitudinal in nature, as it has unfolded over the course of a year and a half, with three different testing phases: pre-, post-, and delayed post-testing ones. In addition, it has been the first to ensure the homogeneity of the experimental and control groups involved, which have been matched from the very outset of the experience in terms of their English oral competence level. Furthermore, intervening and identification variables have been factored in for both the quantitative and qualitative parts of the study to determine how they modulate the results obtained. A fifth trait which this study presents as opposed to previous ones involves the fact that multiple triangulation procedures have been employed, as data (students, teachers and parents) and methodological (competence tests, questionnaires and interviews) triangulation have been factored in. Finally, a thorough double-fold validation process (via the expert ratings approach and a pilot study with a representative sample) has been followed to ensure the internal consistency and reliability of both the tests and questionnaires employed, both of which have been ascertained via the high Cronbach alpha and Kuder-Richardson coefficients obtained. .

Nonetheless, no study is without its limitations, and we now proceed to outline the most conspicuous ones which affect ours, concomitantly setting forth lines for future research to address them. To begin with, since the investigation can be characterized as a case study, we have worked with a geographically and numerically reduced sample .Only one public bilingual school has been implicated in the thesis, highlighting the lack of location triangulation.

It would thus be interesting to increase the sample to examine students from different types of schools (public, private and semi-private) in other areas of Andalusia to probe if results are derived in line with what we have ascertained and determine if the plan is working as competently throughout our autonomous community. This would require more than one researcher, however, if we seek to replicate the situation of the present study, where the investigator has also been the teacher of both groups and has implemented the intervention programme, maintaining all other conditions steady except for methodology.

In line with the foregoing triangulation, we have only employed questionnaires and interviews in our study, and it would be worthwhile to employ observation protocols as well within methodological triangulation in order to scrutinize and describe what is actually happening in the CLIL classroom and what the implementation of this approach looks like in practice. We have not included it in our own study since we ourselves were the teacher of both treatment and comparison groups and it would be advisable to have an external, unobtrusive, and unbiased researcher conduct this observation.

Since our study has only focused on the effects of CLIL on oral competence in the L2, it would also be extremely useful to diversify the study focus to discover the effects of CLIL on students' L1 competence and content knowledge of those subjects studied through the FL, by factoring these aspects into studies as dependent variables. Paran (2015) points out that researchers “focus almost exclusively on a language, with content knowledge rarely examined or measured” (p. 323), so this should clearly be the remit of future investigations. We have opted to focus on two specific aspects of L2 in greater depth by means of our teaching to ensure the conditions of their implementation were truly controlled, but, again, working with a larger team of L1

and content teachers, as well as researchers, could make this line for future research feasible.

Finally, in terms of statistical methodology, discriminant and factor analyses are called for to determine whether CLIL is genuinely responsible for a positive development in certain skills. Factoring in additional intervening variables (such as motivation, verbal intelligence, socioeconomic level, or extramural exposure to the L2) would be crucial on this front. Our own study has worked with a small and homogeneous group in this sense, but widening the size and nature of the sample could lead to interesting multivariate analyses.

All these lines for future research are already being addressed via two longitudinal governmentally-funded research projects (FFI2012-32221 and P12-HUM-2348 – cf. section 4.3.6.4), within which this Thesis is inserted and with which we will continue to actively collaborate in order to provide answers to the afore-mentioned lines of research. .

Muñoz (2007) attests ‘it is hoped that the solid foundations of CLIL will contribute to the improvement of the processes of teaching-learning languages that our multilingual aspirations aspire’ (p. 25), although San Isidro (2010) points out that ‘CLIL will only develop satisfactorily by means of further research’ (p. 75). Regardless of the exact scope of the investigation which we will be embarking upon in the forthcoming future, we hope the present study, albeit with its limitations, has increased awareness of the effects of CLIL on oral comprehension and production and the concerns that exist about how they can be improved upon to contribute to pushing forward CLIL implementation in Andalusia to, in turn, incite positive development in the autonomous community as regards foreign language learning.



## THESIS SUMMARY IN SPANISH



## **Los Efectos del AICLE en las Competencias Orales de los Estudiantes de 4ESO: Un Estudio Longitudinal.**

### *Introducción*

Esta tesis doctoral consiste en un estudio longitudinal con un diseño de investigación cuantitativo y cualitativo. Se ha llevado a cabo para determinar los efectos de la metodología AICLE dentro del Plan de Fomento del Plurilingüismo de Andalucía en relación con las competencias orales en inglés de alumnos en 4º de Educación Secundaria Obligatoria.

En cuanto al análisis, se ha diseñado dos tests para evaluar las competencias de la comprensión y producción oral de los dos grupos de alumnos, previo y posterior a un periodo de intervención de seis meses en el cual el grupo experimental estará sujeto a la metodología AICLE, mientras que se aplicará un enfoque más tradicional de la enseñanza de lenguas en lo que concierne al grupo de control.

El contenido de los tests ha estado supeditado al curriculum de la Educación Secundaria Obligatoria teniendo en cuenta la legislación vigente tanto a nivel estatal como a nivel de la comunidad autónoma de Andalucía. El Marco Común Europeo de Referencia para las Lenguas se ha considerado también en el diseño de los tests.

Para complementar la naturaleza cuantitativa del diseño de los tests y su análisis correspondiente, se ha administrado un cuestionario adicional con la finalidad de identificar el grado de satisfacción de los participantes (alumnos, profesores y padres/madres) en relación con la implementación del AICLE.

### *Objetivos*

El objetivo principal de esta investigación es determinar si el programa AICLE, realizado con alumnos de 4º de ESO (grupo experimental), perfecciona las habilidades superiores en comprensión y producción oral; en contraste con aquellas habilidades fomentadas por un programa de aprendizaje de idiomas extranjeras tradicional para alumnos del mismo nivel (grupo de control). Así mismo, busca el establecer si los posibles efectos diferenciadores, ejercidos por AICLE en las habilidades de comprensión y producción oral del inglés, se extienden al primer curso de bachillerato (seis meses después de que AICLE de la ESO sea suspendido y sustituido por AICLE de bachillerato con una exposición a la lengua significadamente menor) o si desaparece gradualmente.

La parte **cuantitativa** del estudio se complementa desde un punto de vista cualitativo con un análisis FODA (Fuerzas, Oportunidades, Debilidades y Amenazas), realizado con las partes interesadas (profesores, alumnos y padres) por la satisfacción generada por el Plan de Fomento del Plurilingüismo de Andalucía.

Se dan tres metaconcern que son la base de esta investigación, las cuales son presentadas y desglosadas por medio de conclusiones a continuación.

### **Metaconcern 1: instrumentos de diseño y validación**

1. Diseñar, validar y administrar un pre test, post test y un *delayed* post test con el fin de valorar la competencia en comprensión oral del inglés de los alumnos de ESO.
2. Diseñar, validar y administrar un pre test, post test y un *delayed* post test con el fin de valorar la competencia en la producción oral del inglés de los alumnos de ESO.

3. Diseñar, validar y administrar cuestionarios paralelos (uso, competencia y desarrollo del inglés por parte de los alumnos en el aula, metodología, material, recursos y TIC, evaluación, uso, competencia y desarrollo del inglés por parte del profesor en el aula, formación del profesorado, movilidad, perfeccionamiento y motivación hacia el aprendizaje del inglés, coordinación y organización) para identificar las perspectivas de alumnos, profesores del Plan de Fomento del Plurilingüismo de Andalucía.

### **Metaconcern 2: Investigación cuantitativa**

4. Comparación de los dos grupos
  - a) Determinar si los grupos experimentales y de control son homogéneos al comienzo del programa de intervención, para averiguar la existencia de diferencias estadísticamente significativas en sus habilidades de comprensión y producción oral en la etapa pre test.
  - b) Determinar si la competencia lingüística diferencial entre el grupo experimental y de control, al finalizar el año académico del programa de intervención, presenta diferencias estadísticamente significativas en sus habilidades de comprensión y producción oral en la etapa post test.
  - c) Determinar la posible competencia lingüística diferencial entre el grupo experimental y el de control, si prevalece al finalizar el año académico del programa de intervención, en el primer curso del Bachillerato (seis meses después de que la AICLE de la ESO desapareciera y fuese remplazada por el programa AICLE del Bachillerato con una significativa menor exposición a la lengua) o si va desapareciendo gradualmente al determinar si se dan diferencias estadísticamente significativas en las habilidades de comprensión oral en la etapa de *delayed* post test.

- d) Determinar el efecto de la modulación (diferencial) ejercido en la comprensión y producción oral en los alumnos de 4º curso de la ESO al intervenir la variable del sexo.
5. Comparación dentro de los dos grupos
- a) Seguir la evolución de las habilidades de comprensión y producción oral del grupo experimental que sigue el AICLE, al determinar si se dan diferencias estadísticamente significativas entre la etapa pre test, post test y *delayed* post test.
  - b) Seguir la evolución de las habilidades de comprensión y producción oral del grupo de control que sigue el programa de Inglés como Lengua Extranjera, al determinar si se dan diferencias estadísticamente significativas en la etapa pre test, post test y *delayed* post test..

### **Metaconcern 3: Estudio cualitativo**

6. Identificar las expectativas del alumno, profesor y padres.
- a) Identificar las perspectivas de alumnos, profesores y padres relacionadas con el uso, competencia y desarrollo del inglés en el aula por parte del alumno.
  - b) Identificar las perspectivas de alumnos, profesores, padres relacionadas con la metodología.
  - c) Identificar las perspectivas de alumnos, profesores, padres, relativas al material, recursos y TIC.
  - d) Identificar las perspectivas de alumnos, profesores, padres en relativas a la evaluación.

- e) Identificar las perspectivas de los alumnos, profesores, padres relativas al uso, competencia y desarrollo del inglés en el aula y la formación del profesorado (cuestionario sólo para el profesor).
  - f) Identificar las expectativas de alumnos, profesores y padres relativas a la movilidad.
  - g) Identificar perspectivas de alumnos, profesores y padres relacionadas con la mejora y motivación hacia el aprendizaje del inglés (cuestionario sólo para el padre y el alumno), coordinación y motivación (cuestionario sólo para el profesor).
7. Comparación de los grupos
- a) Determinar si existen diferencia estadísticamente significativas entre las perspectivas de los tres grupos: alumnado, profesorado y padres.
  - b) Determinar si se dan perspectivas acertadas dentro del grupo del alumnado al darse diferencias estadísticamente significativas en términos de edad, sexo, nacionalidad, nivel de estudios, nivel de lengua de lengua extranjera, tiempo que hayan estudiado un programa bilingüe, asignaturas estudiadas en inglés, exposición al inglés dentro y fuera de la escuela.
  - c) Determinar si se dan perspectivas acertadas dentro del grupo del profesorado en términos de edad, sexo, nacionalidad, tipo de profesor, situación administrativa, nivel de lengua extranjera, asignaturas que imparte en inglés, exposición de los niños al inglés dentro de la escuela, experiencia docente en general y experiencia en docencia bilingüe.

- d) Determinar si existen diferencias estadísticamente significativas que respalden perspectivas acertadas por parte del grupo de los padres en términos de edad, sexo, nacionalidad, nivel de estudios, nivel de lengua extranjera y exposición de los alumnos al inglés fuera de la escuela.

### *Metodología*

Podemos caracterizar este estudio, en primer lugar, como investigación primaria que depende de la aplicación de unas pruebas y cuestionarios previos y posteriores, propiciando una investigación estadística que es cuantitativa y cualitativa.

Se realizará en el contexto educacional del IES 'Llano de La Viña' en la localidad de Villargordo, ubicado en la provincia de Jaén. En 4º ESO hay un total de 55 alumnos, que constituirán la muestra de la investigación. Estos alumnos serán los componentes de dos grupos homogéneos: uno será un grupo experimental y el otro representará un grupo de control. Se elaborará un programa de intervención en relación a la metodología AICLE y será implementado en el grupo experimental, mientras que el grupo de control se adherirá a un programa de aprendizaje de idiomas extranjeras tradicional con características adecuadas a la etapa educativa. El contenido del programa de estudios será constante y pertinente en los dos grupos para poder identificar las diferencias estadísticamente significativas que existen como resultado del período de intervención.

Las variables dependientes consisten en la competencia de comprensión oral y en la competencia de producción oral en inglés. La variable independiente está representada por el programa de intervención. La variable interviniente será el género del alumnado.

Una prueba previa/posterior constituye el instrumento principal del estudio. En primer lugar, se tendrán en cuenta las directrices de Heaton (1975) and Hughes (1990) para garantizar un producto final fiable. Con referencia al diseño de las pruebas, se tendrá en cuenta el plan de estudios de la Educación Secundaria Obligatoria con su contenido como base y se consultará y se considerará la legislación vigente tanto a nivel estatal como autonómico. El marco Común Europeo de Referencia para las lenguas también servirá de referencia para el diseño de las pruebas.

También se diseñará un cuestionario para complementar las pruebas. Para facilitar el análisis posterior de los datos, los puntos del cuestionario corresponderán al tipo de preguntas de Patton (1987) y a la tipología de preguntas de Brown (2001). Los puntos estarán directamente relacionados con las especificaciones del programa de intervención.

Se adoptará un procedimiento de doble pilotaje para editar y validar los dos instrumentos. Esto implicará, en primer lugar, el enfoque basado en el sistema de jueces y, en segundo lugar, la administración a una muestra representativa. Se calcularán el alpha de Cronbach y el coeficiente de fiabilidad Kuder-Richardson para cada instrumento y así comprobar su grado de fiabilidad y su consistencia interna. Se tendrá en cuenta la validez de contenido basando las pruebas y los cuestionarios exclusivamente en el contenido del programa de estudios.

Tras el diseño y a la validación de los instrumentos y la formación de los grupos experimental y de control, se administrará la prueba previa a los alumnos de 4ºESO. La prueba posterior se aplicará después de un período de seis meses a los dos grupos

Como anteriormente he mencionado, se calcularán el alpha de Cronbach y el coeficiente de fiabilidad de Kuder-Richardson para las pruebas y los cuestionarios. Para detectar la existencia de diferencias estadísticamente significativas inter- e intra-grupales, se emplearán el Modelo Lineal General de Medidas Repetidas y las prueba de Bonferroni, U de Mann-Whitney y Kruskal-Wallis.

Estadísticas descriptivas adicionales del análisis del cuestionario implicarán:

- Medidas de tendencia central:

- Media

- Mediana

- Moda

- Medidas de dispersión:

- Rango

- Alto-bajo

- Desviación típica

### *Resumen*

En capítulo uno se introduce el tema, previo a un capítulo (capítulo dos) dedicado a proporcionar una evaluación exhaustiva de los programas bilingües de Canadá y en los E.E.U.U. Dentro este mismo capítulo existe una caracterización de la metodología AICLE para enmarcar el enfoque del estudio. Capítulo tres se basa en una revisión de las publicaciones escritas sobre el tema de AICLE en Europa, España y la comunidad autónoma de Andalucía. Describir el diseño y el proceso de la investigación constituye el capítulo cuatro y, finalmente, los resultado y las

conclusiones están presentados en el último capítulo mientras que la conclusión resume el tema en su totalidad.

### *Conclusiones*

A continuación presentamos un resumen de los principales resultados de los metaconcerns Y los objetivos perfilados en el apartado 4.2, respaldando las hipótesis en que se basa nuestro estudio.

Relativo al **metaconcern 1** (*objetivos 1-3*), hemos diseñado y ratificado dos test de lengua inglesa: uno para medir la competencia de los alumnos en relación a la comprensión oral de la lengua inglesa (*objetivo 1*) y otro para evaluar la competencia de los alumnos relativa la producción oral (*objetivo 2*). El contenido de los tests se basa en el currículo de la ESO, tomando en consideración los reales decretos con referencia a España como nación y también a aquellos relativos a Andalucía como Comunidad Autónoma. El Marco Común Europeo de Referencia para las Lenguas también se ha considerado al diseñar los tests.

El test de comprensión oral se basa en una estructura dividida en dos partes, primero para distinguir fonemas y segundo para evaluar comprensión en general, también se incorporaron una variedad de tareas para examinar capacidades pertinentes para escuchar. El test de producción oral implicó la realización de tres preguntas para examinar una variedad de facetas dentro del dominio del habla. Los componentes del test estaban sujetos a un criterio de calificación tomando en cuenta cinco áreas selectivas de competencia: gramática, léxico, fluidez, pronunciación y ejecución del ejercicio. El procedimiento de validación, posterior al de diseño, resultó en cinco expertos externos que examinaron estrictamente varios aspectos para proveer observaciones para ser mejorado. Las recomendaciones presentadas por el equipo de

expertos relacionadas con el contenido, duración, apartados y administración son consideradas en las versiones finales. Los altos coeficientes, del método de Cronbach alpha y Kuder-Richardson, determinaron la consistencia interna y la fiabilidad de los mecanismos orales.

El *objetivo 3* conlleva el diseño y validación de dos cuestionarios por separado, cada uno de acuerdo con las características específicas del alumno, el profesor y los padres, para identificar sus perspectivas correspondientes en la metodología del Aprendizaje Integrado de Contenidos y Lenguas Extranjeras (AICLE) adaptada al contexto andaluz. El contenido de los estudios han abarcado siete aspectos principales: uso, competencia y desarrollo del inglés por parte del alumno en el aula; metodología; materiales, recursos y TICs; evaluación; uso, competencia y desarrollo del inglés por parte del profesor en el aula (alumnos y padres) / formación de profesorado (profesorado); movilidad y finalmente, desarrollo y motivación hacia el inglés (estudiantes y padres)/coordinación y organización (profesorado), todo ello ha sido ideado tomando en consideración los principios del Plan de Fomento de Plurilingüismo en Andalucía, publicaciones oficiales y tomando en cuenta resultados de estudios relevantes. La validación de los cuestionarios implicó un proceso piloto doble, en el que el primer paso fue la sumisión del cuestionario a cinco supervisores con conocimientos coherentes con el estudio. Las valiosas sugerencias proporcionadas por los expertos tuvieron como resultado en la modificación de los cuestionarios mediante la eliminación, reorganización, nueva redacción de elementos, así como la alteración de los grupos de edad. En virtud de los altos coeficientes alpha de Cronbach en ambos cuestionarios, su consistencia interna y fiabilidad ha sido justificadamente confirmada.

**Metaconcern 2 (estudio cuantitativo)** comprende la sección principal del estudio, ateniéndose al comienzo del *objetivo 4 (subjetivos a-d)*. Se ha efectuado un estudio que ha proporcionado una perspectiva más profunda sobre si el programa de AICLE, llevado a cabo con alumnos de 4º de ESO (grupo experimental), ha desarrollado habilidades superiores de comprensión y producción oral, que las fomentadas por un programa de idiomas extranjeras tradicional con alumnos del mismo nivel (grupo de control). Dichos Grupos (AICLE y LE) han sido examinados simultáneamente comparándolos de manera transversal para contrastar su progreso en la audición y conversación en la fase de pre test, post test y *delayed* post test.

En la etapa pre test no se reflejan diferencias estadísticamente significativas entre el grupo experimental y el grupo de control, tanto en la competencia de comprensión oral como en la producción oral, en cuanto a la puntuación global y específica de cada ejercicio individual, la cual nos permite determinar que ambos grupos: AICLE y LE son perfectamente iguales, por lo tanto constituyen muestras completamente homogéneas. El hecho de que la homogeneidad ha sido corroborada estadísticamente sustituye todos aquellos estudios previos y nos proporciona un estudio con validez confirmada.

Los datos observados en la fase de post test revelan resultados esperanzadores a favor del grupo de AICLE con respecto a comprensión y producción oral. Los alumnos mostraron haber desarrollado habilidades receptivas orales en la puntuación global del test y concretamente en el ejercicio más exigente desde el punto de vista cognitivo, corroborando una investigación previa que sostenía que el AICLE mejoraba la comprensión del lenguaje complejo en un contexto de conversación. En el plano superficial, lo mismo ocurre respecto a la producción oral al darse diferencias

estadísticamente significativas en el test en su conjunto. Sin embargo, profundizando al analizar los resultados en términos de ejercicio-habilidad, nos encontramos con que los grupos experimentales tienen una mayor capacidad en ejercicios de interacción oral, destacando de nuevo su tendencia a emplear estructuras más sofisticadas en su lenguaje. La habilidad en la que los alumnos de AICLE destacan en concreto es la soltura, tal vez debido a la preparación intensiva del examen para el "Trinity College London", una iniciativa que se hizo realidad, basada exclusivamente para formar parte del programa AICLE. El único aspecto que no presentó diferencias estadísticamente significativas fue la pronunciación, que está ampliamente demostrada su dificultad en ser mejorada en un periodo de tiempo limitado.

El *delayed* post test presenta un cambio drástico en la situación relativa a la comprensión oral, ya que observamos una nivelación en los resultados de los test del grupo AICLE y su equivalente grupo LE. Aunque la nota media sea por lo general más alta en el grupo de AICLE estableciendo que sus habilidades de escuchar están más desarrolladas, no se dan diferencias estadísticamente significativas que puedan ser localizadas en ninguna parte del test. En contraste, los resultados de la producción oral consolidan que los alumnos de AICLE presentan habilidades orales más avanzadas que los alumnos de LE, siendo superior en general. Las habilidades de soltura, gramática y léxico fueron aquellas que hicieron destacar los grupos de AICLE como líderes en la competencia oral.

Se efectuó una evaluación para determinar los efectos de la modulación (diferencia) del sexo en los alumnos de AICLE en la comprensión y producción oral al introducir tal variable. Las conclusiones muestran que la variable mencionada anteriormente, no

produce ninguna diferencia estadísticamente significativa entre alumnos y alumnas, insinuando que el programa AICLE no afecta a este respecto.

*El objetivo 5* implica el análisis de cada grupo (AICLE y LE) por separado, para así elaborar el desarrollo de cada grupo individualmente sobre la competencia receptiva y productiva oral desde las fases de pre, post y *delayed* post test. La evolución de las capacidades del grupo experimental y el grupo de control, a lo largo del periodo de año y medio serán trazadas más adelante.

Con la intención de informar al lector sobre la competencia de comprensión oral dentro del grupo que siguió el programa AICLE, se nos presentó una situación imprevista, ya que no se han dado diferencias estadísticamente significativas en la etapa pre test, post test y *delayed* post test. Es necesario mencionar que la nota media fue más alta de una fase a la siguiente, por lo tanto hay que reconocer la existencia de un progreso, aunque no estadísticamente. Por otro lado, este grupo tuvo un progreso positivo significativo desde la fase pre test hasta la fase *delayed* post test. Desde el principio hasta la finalización del periodo de evaluación los alumnos de AICLE progresaron en dos de las habilidades más complicadas en cada sección del test, reafirmando el hecho de que el programa de AICLE refuerza la mejoría de dichas actividades.

Los alumnos han avanzado en materia de producción oral, dándose una visible mejoría en general, produciendo un motivo para suponer que los efectos de AICLE sobre la competencia del alumno son incuestionables. La evolución de dicha capacidad se desarrolla entre la etapa pre test y post test, ocupando la interacción oral el centro del debate como aquella habilidad desempeñada con más eficacia, mientras que la habilidad gramatical se manifiesta con menor impacto, tal vez sea debido a que

la clase de AICLE tiene un enfoque comunicativo. En comparación, la fase post test a la fase *delayed post test* obtienen puntuaciones más altas en *individual speaking* y competencia léxica. Por último, se han observado diferencias estadísticamente significativas en cada aspecto de ambas categorías: ejercicio y habilidad, desde el principio hasta el del año con un periodo vacacional.

El rendimiento por parte del grupo del LE no presenta un panorama muy atractivo, ya que los resultados en comprensión oral de la fase pre test y post test muestran un deterioro en dicha competencia. A pesar del hecho de diferencias estadísticamente significativas, solo un ejercicio respalda dicha afirmación, siendo la nota media producida desalentadora. La fase posterior aporta un dato positivo a los resultados mejorados y hasta algunos fueron estadísticamente confirmados, aunque no es de extrañar cuando observamos los resultados deficientes en la fase previa. No obstante, se ha de reflejar que los alumnos mejoraron en aquellos ejercicios que eran más complejos, tal vez debido al impacto del Bachillerato. El mismo ejercicio de *matching task* produjo una dinámica afirmativa desde la fase pre test y la *delayed post test*.

Si se consideran los resultados proporcionados por la ejecución de exámenes de competencias de comprensión y producción oral, podemos concluir que a pesar de carecer de progreso confirmado estadísticamente en todas las etapas, se ha dado una evolución lineal por parte de las habilidades de escuchar en el grupo de AICLE debido a la interpretación del aumento en la nota media, la cual no puede ser confirmada en el grupo de LE. El programa de AICLE ha tenido un efecto extraordinario en el desarrollo positivo de la producción oral; por lo tanto podemos relacionar este resultado prometedor al elevado uso de comunicación en la metodología AICLE en todas las circunstancias.

**Metaconcern 3 (estudio cualitativo)**, específico del *objetivo 6*; una evaluación global de las partes interesadas para nuestra investigación relativa al uso, competencia y desarrollo del inglés en el aula por parte del alumno; metodología; materiales, recursos y TICs; evaluación; uso, competencia y desarrollo del inglés en el aula por parte del profesor (alumnos y padres); formación del profesorado (profesores); movilidad y finalmente mejora y motivación hacia el inglés (alumnos)/coordinación y organización (profesores y padres) ha sido efectuada con éxito. Con el fin de recopilar opiniones hemos administrado los cuestionarios presentados en el *objetivo 1*, además las entrevistas semiestructuradas fueron utilizadas como una segunda herramienta cualitativa eficaz con el fin de corroborar los resultados.

Los resultados en general presentan una predominante actitud positiva por parte de todas los grupos implicadas en este estudio. Mientras el grupo de los alumnos presenta un panorama más optimista en términos generales, los profesores son considerados más cautelosos a la hora de elogiar el programa AICLE y comunican una serie de inquietudes en aspectos que consideran insatisfactorios; ahora bien, este último grupo aún describe la experiencia como más positiva que negativa. Las opiniones de los padres presentan un estilo parecido al de los alumnos, aunque se tiene en consideración que al ser participantes indirectos no están tan familiarizados con el programa como los otros encuestados; sugiriendo que son incapaces de comprender el concepto de la misma manera, de ahí el panorama optimista pero de menor magnitud que el de los alumnos. Los alumnos parecen haber respondido más positivamente a aquellos aspectos referentes a sí mismos y al uso, competencia y desarrollo del inglés por parte del profesor y la metodología empleada en el aula bilingüe. Por otra parte, los profesores están satisfechos con el Plan de Fomento de Plurilingüismo en Andalucía, denotando componentes de contraste relacionados con

la evaluación y con ciertos aspectos del apartado del cuestionario relativo a la formación del profesorado, aunque no directamente relacionado a la formación en sí, si no a su rol efectivo como educador de AICLE. Los padres están de acuerdo con los alumnos en que el programa de AICLE, fomenta el desarrollo de inglés sus hijos. Cuando se les pidió que diesen su punto de vista sobre el plan en general, generó un acuerdo por parte del grupo de alumnos y el padres aceptando de manera unilateral la metodología específica a AICLE. En contraste, los profesores se presentan un tanto ambiguos.

A continuación procederemos a recapitular los resultados obtenidos para llevar a cabo una inspección de cada grupo individualmente, aludiendo las tendencias principales descubiertas y señalando aquellas excepciones destacadas.

Los alumnos partícipes, a los que nos hemos referido anteriormente, poseen una opinión autocomplaciente sobre su competencia en inglés escrito y oral, las únicas respuestas mixtas identificadas a este respecto, están relacionadas con su mejora en la lengua española. Parecen haberse adaptado por completo a la metodología con enfoque centrado en el alumno y están satisfechos con el material incorporado a la clase, aunque documentan que el uso de TICs es mediocre y enfatizan la ausencia de comunicación mediada por ordenador. Las respuestas revelan que la evaluación se realiza adecuadamente, aunque no todos los alumnos están de acuerdo en que el examen incluye una parte oral. Los alumnos reconocen que están muy satisfechos con los docentes que imparten el programa bilingüe, aunque consideran que los asistentes bilingües los motivan en menor medida. Una conclusión ligeramente preocupante, es el hecho de que los alumnos apenas participan en programas de intercambio, a pesar de ser debidamente fomentado por profesores y por la familia. En contraste con este

último punto y en vista de las interpretaciones relacionadas con la mejora general y motivación hacia el aprendizaje del inglés, podemos detectar un enfoque optimista.

El profesorado más o menos está de acuerdo con los alumnos respecto a su uso, competencia y progreso del inglés, destacando la participación más que adecuada de los alumnos en la clase, aunque proyectan perspectivas negativas en términos generales, especialmente aquellas competencias relativas a la sensibilización de los alumnos en la diversidad lingüística e intercultural. Similares a dichos resultados, los profesores también informan sobre algunos aspectos negativos del aprendizaje por proyectos y de la prioridad dada al léxico, aunque los profesores manifiestan actitudes positivas hacia la metodología. Los profesores están en desacuerdo con los alumnos, al afirmar que la lengua materna y la conexión entre lenguas están reforzadas dentro de lo que se espera. Se dan respuestas mixtas en relación al material, acordando junto a los alumnos en materia de comunicación mediada por ordenador, aunque documentan que el material empleado en el aula fomenta la comprensión y la producción oral. Se muestran satisfechos con la manera en como se trata la evaluación, aunque admiten que no siempre la parte oral está incorporada en el examen. Los profesores, predominantemente muestran entusiasmo hacia sus propias habilidades en inglés y evidencian que valoran su rol como efectivo y fundamentalmente motivador. A pesar de todo, se da una demanda evidente de oportunidades de formación, especialmente de metodología. En relación a la movilidad, los profesores manifiestan un enfoque negativo similar al de los alumnos hacia los programas de intercambio, a pesar de ser conscientes de que participando en dichas iniciativas mejorarían significativamente sus habilidades de comunicación oral. Nos encontramos con serios problemas en el tema de todos los cursos y licencias de estudio, siendo un problema recurrente. Valorando el programa bilingüe, en general presenta resultados negativos

relativos a como el plan es respaldado por las autoridades educativas y un considerable porcentaje de profesores admite que el aumento en el volumen de trabajo no merece la pena. Ignorando tales cuestiones, nos da la impresión que el Plan de Fomento de Plurilingüismo ha sido bienvenido en el sistema educativo.

Las actitudes de los padres están más cercanas a los alumnos que a los profesores. El uso, competencia y desarrollo del inglés por parte de los alumnos ha sido destacado como una de las ventajas de del AICLE por parte de los padres, al insinuar que están satisfechos con el progreso de las habilidades de los alumnos. En relación a la metodología, los padres identifican como aspecto negativo el no poseer la habilidad para ayudar a sus hijos con los deberes pero consideran que el método AICLE promueve las habilidades orales en el aula. Los padres también coinciden en que el material y la evaluación son positivas al fomentar la comprensión y la producción oral, lo que nos lleva a creer que los padres valoran el enfoque comunicativo de AICLE. Por otra parte, parecen animar a sus hijos a participar en los programas de intercambio e insisten en que también es un modo de adquirir más capacidades orales. El optimismo surge a la hora de recapitular el programa AICLE, con la opinión unánime que al formar parte de un grupo AICLE, sin lugar a duda, incrementará las oportunidades laborales en el futuro.

Las escasas diferencias entre los grupos previamente especificados han sido empíricamente corroboradas por medio de la utilización del test de Mann-Whitney U y Kruskal-Wallis, correspondientes al *objetivo 7a*. Sólo se da una diferencia estadísticamente significativa localizada en la comparación, manteniendo congruencia con las respuestas. Observamos que los alumnos no consideran que el volumen de asignaturas en el AICLE se le ha dado prioridad al contenido. Por otra parte, los

padres y profesores están de acuerdo en que el escenario opuesto es evidente y que el contenido de la asignatura si recibe debida atención sobre conocimiento de la lengua. Es posible que el último grupo reflejen la realidad tal y como es, de acuerdo con las especificaciones del Plan de Fomento de Plurilingüismo, el contenido es el elemento dominante y también es el profesor quien elabora el criterio de evaluación, de ahí, un aumento en la percepción en como los exámenes se realizan.

En términos generales se da una satisfacción hacia el programa AICLE, por parte de todos los grupos, aunque la mejora del plan no es una consideración crucial, de todas formas sería recomendable el mirar detenidamente a cada grupo, especialmente al de los profesores, para así superar las pequeñas imperfecciones observadas.

Varias perspectivas se han dado en relación a variables de identificación que pueden intervenir, aunque pocas diferencias estadísticamente significativas se hicieron aparentes ante los test de Mann-Whitney U y Kruskal-Wallis, que representan los *objetivos 7b, c y d*.

El grupo de alumnos presenta sin lugar a duda el mayor número a diferencia de los otros grupos, dichas diferencia aparecen dentro de sexo (donde las niñas reconocen que sus profesores son motivadores, colaboran con el ayudante del profesor y que poseen capacidades orales adecuadas en inglés en mayor medida que los varones), nivel de inglés (el cual revela que los alumnos de nivel intermedio alto da más evidencias de actitudes negativas hacia multimedia y pizarras interactivas y el hecho de que los profesores motivan a los alumnos para participar en los programas de intercambio) y nivel de estudio de los padres (aquellos alumnos con padres de estudios de nivel alto aceptan más rápidamente material de referencia online en el aula).

Las diferencias estadísticamente significativas detectadas dentro del grupo de profesores son menos, no obstante igualmente interesante debido a cinco variables: porcentaje de asignaturas impartidas en inglés (los profesores que utilizan altos porcentajes cree que el material utilizado en el aula es genuino) y experiencia en la docencia bilingüe (aquellos profesores que tienen más experiencia en la docencia bilingüe admiten su falta de conocimiento sobre el programa AICLE y aquellos con más experiencia han tenido más participación en programas de intercambio).

Como esquema de los objetivos, las entrevistas semiestructuradas son incorporadas en la investigación para así adaptarnos a un estudio válido y fiable. Las entrevistas sirvieron para proporcionar una percepción más profunda de las percepciones de las partes interesadas, al habersele dado la oportunidad de extender aspectos específicos. En relación a la información a que indicase, lo que se estableció como conclusiones del cuestionario fue esencialmente autenticado. Sin embargo, también nos permitió en un principio el aclarar las diferentes opiniones referidas a evaluación. Durante las entrevistas los alumnos se confirmó que se le da más prioridad al contenido que a la competencia del lenguaje, como debería de ser, lo cual indica que tal vez los estudiantes mal interpretaron el concepto en el cuestionario. Segundo, fuimos capaces de descifrar exactamente en qué medida los profesores están clamando por ayuda, se expusieron argumentos de peso relativos a falta de asesoramiento y de formación metodológica, con el fin de efectuar sus obligaciones correctamente. Todo lo dicho se ha de poner en práctica por las autoridades de educación para así aplicar las intervenciones necesarias para conseguir su aplicación sea más gradual y aumente “la cruzada de AICLE”.

## REFERENCES



### References

- Ackerl, C. (2007). Lexico-grammar in the essays of CLIL and non-CLIL students: Error analysis of written production. *Vienna English Working Papers*, 16(3), 6-11.
- Admiraal, W., Westhoff., & de Bot, K. (2006). Evaluation of bilingual secondary education in the Netherlands: Students' language proficiency. *English Educational Research and Evaluation*, 12(1), 75-93.
- Agustín Llach, M. P. (2009). The role of Spanish L1 in the vocabulary of CLIL and non-CLIL EFL learners. In Y. Ruiz de Zarobe & R.M. Jiménez Catalán (Eds.), *Content and language integrated learning. Evidence from research in Europe* (pp. 111-129). Bristol: Multilingual Matters.
- Amengual-Pizarro, M., & Prieto-Arranz, J., I. (2015). Exploring affective factors in L3 learning: CLIL vs. non-CLIL. In M. Juan-Garau & J. Salazar Noguera (Eds.), *Content-based language learning in multilingual educational environments*. (pp. 197-220). doi: 10.1007/978-3-319-11496-5
- Bergroth, M. (2006). Immersion students in the matriculation examination three years after immersion. In S. Björklund, K. Mård-Miettinen, M. Bergström & M. Södergård (Eds.), *Exploring dual-focussed education. Integrating language and content for individual and societal needs*. Retrieved from [http://www.uwasa.fi/materiaali/pdf/isbn\\_952-476-149-1.pdf](http://www.uwasa.fi/materiaali/pdf/isbn_952-476-149-1.pdf)
- Bognár, A. (1999). School subjects in a foreign language: A decade of success in Hungary. In J. Masih (Ed.), *Learning through a foreign language. Models, methods and outcomes* (pp. 106-116). London: Centre for Information on Language Teaching and Research.
- Brown, J. D. (2001). *Using surveys in language programs*. Cambridge, U.K.:

Cambridge University Press.

- Bruton, A. 2011. Are the Differences Between CLIL and non-CLIL Groups in Andalusia Due to CLIL? A Reply to Lorenzo, Casal and Moore (2010). *Applied Linguistics 2011*, 1-7.
- Bruton, A. (2012). Is CLIL so beneficial, or just selective? Re-evaluating some of the research. *System*, 39, 523-532.
- Bruton, A. (2013). CLIL: Some of the Reasons Why ... And Why Not. *System 4*, 587-597.
- Cabezas Cabello, J. M. (2010). A SWOT analysis of the Andalusian Plurilingualism Promotion Plan (APPP). In M. L. Pérez (Ed.), *Proceedings of the 23<sup>rd</sup> GRETA Convention* (pp. 83-91). Jaén: Joxman.
- Canadian Council on Learning. (2007). *Lessons in learning: French-immersion education in Canada*. Retrieved from <http://www.ccl-cca.ca/pdfs/LessonsInLearning/May-17-07-French-immersion.pdf>
- Cazabon, M.T., Nicoladis, E., & Lambert, W. E. (1998). *Becoming bilingual in the amigos two-way immersion programme*. Research Reports No. 3. Center for Research on Education, Diversity and Excellence, UC Berkeley. Retrieved from <http://escholarship.org/uc/item/48b1x975 - page-1>
- Cenoz, J. (2009). *Towards multilingual education: Basque educational research from an international perspective*. Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters.
- Cenoz, J., F. Genesee, and D. Gorter. (2013). Critical Analysis of CLIL: Taking Stock and Looking Forward. *Applied Linguistics 2013*, 1-21.
- Clark, K. (2009). The case for structured English immersion. *Educational Leadership*, 66(7), 42-46. Retrieved from [http://www.ascd.org/ASCD/pdf/journals/ed\\_lead/el200904\\_clark.pdf](http://www.ascd.org/ASCD/pdf/journals/ed_lead/el200904_clark.pdf)

- Coyle, D. (2006). *Content and language integrated learning. Motivating learners and teachers.* Retrieved from <http://www.blocs.xtec.cat/clilpractiques1/files/2008/11/slrcoyle.pdf>
- Coyle, D. (2011). *Teacher education and CLIL methods and tools.* Retrieved from <http://www.cremit.it/public/documenti/seminar.pdf>
- Coyle, D., Hood, P., & Marsh, D. (2010). *CLIL: content and language integrated learning.* Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Crawford, J. (1998). *Ten common fallacies about bilingual education.* ERIC Clearinghouse on Languages and Linguistics. Washington DC: National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education. Retrieved from <http://www.ericdigests.org/1999-3/ten.htm>
- Crawford, J. (2002). *The bilingual education act, 1968-2002: An obituary.* Language Policy Research Unit. Retrieved from [http://www.languagepolicy.net/books/AEL/Crawford\\_BEA\\_Obituary.pdf](http://www.languagepolicy.net/books/AEL/Crawford_BEA_Obituary.pdf)
- Crawford, J. (2006). *English as the “national language”? A political blunder by republicans.* Retrieved from <http://users.rcn.com/crawj/langpol/NationalLanguage.pdf>
- Czura, A., Papaja, K., & Urbaniak, M. (2009). Bilingual education and the emergence of CLIL in Poland. In D. Marsh, P. Mehisto, D. Wolff, R. Aliaga, T. Asikainen, M.J. Frigols-Martín, S. Hughes & G. Langé (Eds.), *CLIL practice: Perspectives from the field.* Finland: University of Jyväskylä.
- Dalton-Puffer, C. (2007b, March). *Research on CLIL – where do we stand?* Paper presented at the Universidad Autónoma de Madrid, Madrid. Retrieved from [http://www.univie.ac.at/Anglistik/Dalton/SE08\\_clil/CLIL\\_research\\_overview\\_PPT.pdf](http://www.univie.ac.at/Anglistik/Dalton/SE08_clil/CLIL_research_overview_PPT.pdf)

- Dalton-Puffer, C., A. Llinares, F. Lorenzo, and T. Nikula. (2014). You Can Stand Under My Umbrella. Immersion, CLIL and Bilingual Education. A response to Cenoz, Genesee & Gorter (2013). *Applied Linguistics*, 35(2), 213-218.
- De Graff, R., Koopman, G. J., & Westhoff, G. (2007). Identifying effective L2 pedagogy in content and learning integrated learning (CLIL). *Vienna English Working Papers*, 16(3), 12-19.
- Deller, S. (2005). Teaching other subjects in English (CLIL). *English! Spring*, 29-31.
- Dueñas, M. (2004). The whats, whys, hows and whos of content-based instruction in second/foreign language education. *IJES*, 4(1), 73-96.
- European Commission. (1995). *White paper on education and training. Teaching and learning: Towards the learning society*. Retrieved from [http://europa.eu/documents/comm/white\\_papers/pdf/com95\\_590\\_en.pdf](http://europa.eu/documents/comm/white_papers/pdf/com95_590_en.pdf)
- European Commission. (2006). *Europeans and their languages. Special Eurobarometer 243*. Brussels: European Commission.
- European Council. (2001). *Common European framework of reference for languages: Learning, teaching, assessment*. Strasbourg: Council of Europe.
- Eurydice. (2006). *Content and language integrated learning (CLIL) at school in Europe*. Brussels: Eurydice.
- Fernández Fontecha, A. (2010). First steps of CLIL in a Spanish monolingual community: The case of La Rioja. In D. Lasagabaster & Y. Ruiz de Zarobe (Eds.), *CLIL in Spain: Implementation, results and teacher training* (pp. 79-94). Newcastle upon Tyne: Cambridge Scholars Publishing.
- Gallardo del Puerto, F., Gomez Lacabex, E., & García Lecumberri, M. L. (2009). Testing the effectiveness of content and language integrated learning in foreign language contexts: The assessment of English pronunciation. In Y.

- Ruiz de Zarobe & R.M. Jiménez Catalán (Eds.), *Content and language integrated learning. Evidence from research in Europe* (pp. 63-80). Bristol: Multilingual Matters.
- Gálvez Gómez, M. (2013). *A SWOT analysis of CLIL implementation: A case study in the province of Jaén*. Unpublished manuscript.
- Gassner, D., & Maillat, D. (2006). Spoken competence in CLIL: A pragmatic take on recent Swiss data. *Vienna English Working Papers*, 15(3), 15-22.
- Gené-Gil, M., Juan-Garau, M., & Salazar-Noguera, J. (2015). Writing development under CLIL provision. In M. Juan-Garau & J. Salazar Noguera (Eds.), *Content-based language learning in multilingual educational environments*. (pp. 139-161). doi: 10.1007/978-3-319-11496-5
- Genesee, F. (1994). *Integrating language and content: Lessons from immersion*. Educational Practice Reports No. 11. National Center for Research on Cultural Diversity and Second Language Learning. Washington, DC: Center for Applied Linguistics. Retrieved from <http://escholarship.org/uc/item/61c8k7kh>
- Gerdes, T. (2009). SIOP: Un modelo para AICLE/CLIL. In A. Bueno González, J. M. Nieto García & D. Cobo López (Eds.), *Atención a la diversidad en la enseñanza plurilingüe: I, II y III jornadas regionales de formación de profesorado* (CD-ROM). Jaén: Delegación Provincial de Educación de Jaén y Universidad de Jaén.
- Greene, J. P. (1998). *A meta-analysis of the effectiveness of bilingual education*. Retrieved from <http://www.hks.harvard.edu/pepg/PDF/Papers/biling.pdf>
- Heaton, J.B. (1975). *Writing English Language Tests*. London: Longman.
- Horwitz, E. (2005). Bilingual education: Conceptions and misconceptions. *GRETA. Revista para Profesores de Inglés*, 13(1&2), 23-27.

- Jaímez, S., & López Morillas, A. M. (2011). The Andalusian plurilingual programme in primary and secondary education. In D. Madrid & S. Hughes (Eds.), *Studies in bilingual education* (pp. 77-103). Frankfurt-am-Main: Peter Lang.
- Järvinen, H. M. (1999). Second language acquisition through CLIL at primary school level. In J. Masih (Ed.), *Learning through a foreign language. Models, methods and outcomes* (pp. 72-80). London: Centre for Information on Language Teaching and Research.
- Järvinen, H. M. (2006). *Language in content instruction. Issues in promoting language and learning in CLIL type provision*. Retrieved from [http://www.lici.utu.fi/materials/article\\_jarvinen.pdf](http://www.lici.utu.fi/materials/article_jarvinen.pdf)
- Jiménez Catalán, R. M., & Ruiz de Zarobe, Y. (2009). The receptive vocabulary of EFL learners in two instructional contexts: CLIL versus non-CLIL instruction. In Y. Ruiz de Zarobe & R.M. Jiménez Catalán (Eds.), *Content and language integrated learning. Evidence from research in Europe* (pp. 81-92). Bristol: Multilingual Matters.
- Jiao, J., O'Brian, E., & Reynolds, K. (2012). *How effective are ESL push-in and pull-out models of instruction?* Paper presented at the TESOL Graduate Student Forum, Pennsylvania.
- Junta de Andalucía. (2005). *Plan de fomento del plurilinguismo en Andalucía*. Sevilla: Junta de Andalucía. Retrieved from <http://www.juntadeandalucia.es/boja/boletines/2005/65/d/5.html>
- Juan-Garau, M., Prieto-Arranz, J. I., & Salazar-Noguera, J. (2015). Lexico-grammatical development in secondary. In M. Juan-Garau & J. Salazar Noguera (Eds.), *Content-based language learning in multilingual educational environments*. (pp. 179-195). doi: 10.1007/978-3-319-11496-5

- Klein, A. (2015). No child left behind: An overview. *Education week*.
- Krashen, S. (2004). Proposition 227 and skyrocketing test scores: An urban legend from California. *Educational Leadership*, 62(4), 37-39. Retrieved from <http://www.sdkrashen.com/articles/prop227/index.html>
- Krashen, S. (2005a). Let's tell the public the truth about bilingual education. In V. González & J. Tinajero (Eds.) *Review of Research and Practice, National Association for Bilingual Education*, 3, 165-173. Retrieved from [http://www.sdkrashen.com/articles/tell\\_the\\_truth/index.html](http://www.sdkrashen.com/articles/tell_the_truth/index.html)
- Krashen, S. (2005b). The acquisition of academic English by children in two-way programs: What does the research say? In V. González & J. Tinajero (Eds.) *Review of Research and Practice, National Association for Bilingual Education*, 3, 1-19. Retrieved from [http://www.sdkrashen.com/articles/the\\_2-way\\_issue/index.html](http://www.sdkrashen.com/articles/the_2-way_issue/index.html)
- Krashen, S. (2006). *Bilingual education accelerates English language development*. Retrieved from [http://www.sdkrashen.com/articles/krashen\\_intro.pdf](http://www.sdkrashen.com/articles/krashen_intro.pdf)
- Lancaster, N. (2012). *Stakeholder perspectives on CLIL development in a monolingual context: The case of Jaén*. Unpublished manuscript.
- Lasagabaster, D., & Sierra, J. M. (2009). Language attitudes in CLIL and traditional EFL classes. *International Research Journal*, 1(2), 4-17.
- Lasagabaster, D., & Ruiz de Zarobe. (2010). Ways forward in CLIL: Provision issues and future planning. In D. Lasagabaster & Y. Ruiz de Zarobe (Eds.), *CLIL in Spain: Implementation, results and teacher training* (pp. 278-295). Newcastle upon Tyne: Cambridge Scholars Publishing.
- Llinares, A., & Dafouz, E. (2010). Content and language integrated language programmes in the Madrid region: Overview and research findings. In D.

- Lasagabaster & Y. Ruiz de Zarobe (Eds.), *CLIL in Spain: Implementation, results and teacher training* (pp. 95-114). Newcastle upon Tyne: Cambridge Scholars Publishing.
- Lorenzo, F. (2007). The sociolinguistics of CLIL: Language planning and language change in 21<sup>st</sup> century Europe. *RESLA, 1*, 27-38.
- Lorenzo Bergillos, F., Casal Madinabeitia, S., De Alba Quiñones, V., & Moore, P. (2007). Introduction. *RESLA, 1*, 11-13.
- Lorenzo, F., Casal, S., & Moore, P. (2009). The effects of content and language integrated learning in European education: Key findings from the Andalusian bilingual sections evaluation project. *Applied Linguistics, 31*(3), 418-442.
- Lorenzo, F., Casal, S., Moore, P., & Afonso, Y. M. (2009). *Bilingüismo y educación. Situación de la red de centros bilingües en Andalucía*. Sevilla: Fundación Centro de Estudios Andaluces.
- Madrid, D. (2011). Monolingual and bilingual students' competence in social sciences. In D. Madrid & S. Hughes (Eds.), *Studies in bilingual education* (pp. 195-222). Frankfurt-am-Main: Peter Lang.
- Madrid, D., & Hughes, S. (2011). Introduction to bilingual and plurilingual education. In D. Madrid & S. Hughes (Eds.), *Studies in bilingual education* (pp. 17-50). Frankfurt-am-Main: Peter Lang.
- Madrid Manrique, M., & Madrid Fernández, D. (2014). *La formación inicial del profesorado para la educación bilingüe*. Granada: Universidad de Granada.
- Marsh, D. (2000). An introduction to CLIL for parents and young people. In D. Marsh & G. Langé (Eds.), *Using languages to learn and learning to use languages*. Finland: University of Jyväskylä.

- Marsh, D. (2006). *English as a medium of instruction in the new global linguistic order: Global characteristics, local consequences*. Finland: UNICOM, Continuing Education Centre, University of Jyväskylä. Retrieved from <http://www.metsmac.org./2007/proceedings/2006/Marsh-D-METSMaC-2006.pdf>
- Martínez Adrián, M., & Gutiérrez Mangado, M. J. (2009). The acquisition of English syntax by CLIL learners in the Basque Country. In Y. Ruiz de Zarobe & R.M. Jiménez Catalán (Eds.), *Content and language integrated learning. Evidence from research in Europe* (pp. 176-196). Bristol: Multilingual Matters.
- Mehisto, P., & Asser, H. (2007). Stakeholder perspectives: CLIL programme management in Estonia. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 10 (5), 683-701.
- Menezes, E., & Juan-Garau, M. (2015). English learners willingness to communicate and achievement in CLIL and formal instruction contexts. In M. Juan-Garau & J. Salazar Noguera (Eds.), *Content-based language learning in multilingual educational environments*. (pp. 221-236). doi: 10.1007/978-3-319-11496-5
- Merisou-Storm, T. (2006). Development of boys' and girls' literacy skills and learning attitudes in CLIL education. In S. Björklund, K. Mård-Miettinen, M. Bergström & M. Södergård (Eds.), *Exploring dual-focussed education. Integrating language and content for individual and societal needs*. Retrieved from [http://www.uwasa.fi/materiaali/pdf/isbn\\_952-476-149-1.pdf](http://www.uwasa.fi/materiaali/pdf/isbn_952-476-149-1.pdf)
- Met, M. (1999). *Content-based instruction: Defining terms, making decisions*. NFLC Reports vol. January. Washington DC: The National Foreign Language

Center. Retrieved from

<http://www.carla.umn.edu/cobalitt/modules/principles/decisions.html>

Muñoz, C. (2007). CLIL: Some thoughts on psycholinguistic principles. *RESLA, 1*, 17-26.

Naves, T. (2009). Effective content and language integrated learning (CLIL). In Y. Ruiz de Zarobe & R.M. Jiménez Catalán (Eds.), *Content and language integrated learning. Evidence from research in Europe* (pp. 22-40). Bristol: Multilingual Matters.

Naves, T., & Victori, M. (2010). CLIL in Catalonia: An overview of research studies. In D. Lasagabaster & Y. Ruiz de Zarobe (Eds.), *CLIL in Spain: Implementation, results and teacher training* (pp. 30-54). Newcastle upon Tyne: Cambridge Scholars Publishing.

Novotná, J., & Hofmannová, M. (2007). Czech Republic. In A. Maliers, D. Marsh & D. Wolff (Eds.), *Windows on CLIL* (pp. 39-51). Graz: ECML.

Ojeda Alba, J. (2009). Themes and vocabulary in CLIL and non-CLIL instruction. In Y. Ruiz de Zarobe & R.M. Jiménez Catalán (Eds.), *Content and language integrated learning. Evidence from research in Europe* (pp. 130-156). Bristol: Multilingual Matters.

Pérez Cañado, M. L. (2012). CLIL research in Europe: past, present and future. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism, 15*(3), 315-341. doi: 10.1080/13670050.2011.630064

Pérez Cañado, M.L. (2013). Intro. *RLFE, 19*, 12-27.

Pérez Cañado, M. L., & Ráez Padilla, J. (2015). Introduction and overview. In D. Marsh, M. L. Pérez Cañado & J. Ráez Padilla (Eds.), *CLIL in action: voices*

- from the classroom* (pp. 1-12). Newcastle upon Tyne: Cambridge Scholars Publishing.
- Pérez-Vidal, C., & Juan-Garau, M. (2010). To CLIL or not to CLIL? From bilingualism to multilingualism in Catalan/Spanish communities in Spain. In D. Lasagabaster & Y. Ruiz de Zarobe (Eds.), *CLIL in Spain: Implementation, results and teacher training* (pp. 115-138). Newcastle upon Tyne: Cambridge Scholars Publishing.
- Pérez-Vidal, C., & Roquet, H. (2015). CLIL in context: profiling language abilities. In M. Juan-Garau & J. Salazar Noguera (Eds.), *Content-based language learning in multilingual educational environments*. (pp. 237-255). doi: 10.1007/978-3-319-11496-5
- Piquer Vives, I., & Lorenzo Galés, N. (2015). Reflecting on CLIL innovation. An interview with Do Coyle and Elisabet Pladevall. *Bellaterra Journal of Teaching & Learning Language and Literature*, 8 (1), 86-93.
- Prieto-Arranz, J. I., Rallo Fabra, L., Calafat-Ripoll, C., & Catrain González, M. (2015). Testing progress on receptive skills in CLIL and non-CLIL contexts. In M. Juan-Garau & J. Salazar Noguera (Eds.), *Content-based language learning in multilingual educational environments*. (pp. 123-137). doi: 10.1007/978-3-319-11496-5
- Rallo Fabra, L., & Jacob, K. (2015). Does CLIL enhance oral skills? Fluency and pronunciation. In M. Juan-Garau & J. Salazar Noguera (Eds.), *Content-based language learning in multilingual educational environments*. (pp. 163-177). doi: 10.1007/978-3-319-11496-5

- Ramos García, A. M. (2011). The cultural knowledge of monolingual and bilingual studies. In D. Madrid & S. Hughes (Eds.), *Studies in bilingual education* (pp. 223-235). Frankfurt-am-Main: Peter Lang.
- Ramos García, A. M., Ortega Martín, J. L., & Madrid, D. (2011). Bilingualism and competence in the mother tongue. In D. Madrid & S. Hughes (Eds.), *Studies in bilingual education* (pp. 135-156). Frankfurt-am-Main: Peter Lang.
- Reynolds, K., Nolin-Smith, K., & Groshek, K. (2012). *Which CBI model yields the best learning outcomes?* Paper presented at the TESOL Graduate Student Forum, Pennsylvania.
- Roa, J., Madrid, D., & Sanz, I. (2011). A bilingual education research report in monolingual areas. In D. Madrid & S. Hughes (Eds.), *Studies in bilingual education* (pp. 107-133). Frankfurt-am-Main: Peter Lang.
- Romu, A., & Sjöberg-Heino, L. (1999). A practitioner's perspective on bilingual education teaching in Alhaisten Primary school. In J. Masih (Ed.), *Learning through a foreign language. Models, methods and outcomes* (pp. 81-88). London: Centre for Information on Language Teaching and Research.
- Rubio Mostacero, M. D. (2009). *Language and teacher training for non-language teachers: Meeting the needs of Andalusian teachers for school plurilingualism projects. Design of a targeted training course*. Jaén: University of Jaén.
- Ruiz de Zarobe, Y., & Lasagabaster, D. (2010). CLIL in a bilingual community: The Basque Autonomous Community. In D. Lasagabaster & Y. Ruiz de Zarobe (Eds.), *CLIL in Spain: Implementation, results and teacher training* (pp. 12-29). Newcastle upon Tyne: Cambridge Scholars Publishing.
- Ruiz Gómez, D. (2015). A practical approach to CLIL in L2 content-based courses: methodological guidelines for the Andalusian bilingual classroom. In D.

- Marsh, M. L. Pérez Cañado & J. Ráez Padilla (Eds.), *CLIL in action: voices from the classroom* (pp. 14-30). Newcastle upon Tyne: Cambridge Scholars Publishing.
- San Isidro, X. (2010). An insight into Galician CLIL: Provision and results. In D. Lasagabaster & Y. Ruiz de Zarobe (Eds.), *CLIL in Spain: Implementation, results and teacher training* (pp. 55-78). Newcastle upon Tyne: Cambridge Scholars Publishing.
- Södergård, M. (2006). From kindergarten to grade 6. The immersion experience from the pupils' point of view. In S. Björklund, K. Mård-Miettinen, M. Bergström & M. Södergård (Eds.), *Exploring dual-focussed education. Integrating language and content for individual and societal needs*. Retrieved from [http://www.uwasa.fi/materiaali/pdf/isbn\\_952-476-149-1.pdf](http://www.uwasa.fi/materiaali/pdf/isbn_952-476-149-1.pdf)
- Somers, T., & Surmont, J. (2011). CLIL and immersion: how clear-cut are they? *ELT Journal*, 66 (1), 113-116. doi: 10.1093/elt/ccr079
- Stotz, D., & Meuter, T. (2003). Embedded English: Integrating content and language learning in a Swiss primary school project. *Le Bulletin Suisse de Linguistique Appliquée*, 77, 83-101.
- Sylvén, L. K. (2006). How is extramural exposure to English among Swedish school students used in the CLIL classroom? *Vienna English Working Papers*, 15(3), 47-53.
- Tobin, N. A., and C. Abello-Contesse. (2013). The Use of Native Assistants as Language and Cultural Resources in Andalusia's Bilingual Schools. In C. Abello-Contesse, P. M. Chandler, M. D. López-Jiménez, & R. Chacón-Beltrán (Eds.), *Bilingual and Multilingual Education in the 21st Century. Building on Experience* (pp. 231-255). Bristol: Multilingual Matters.

- Ullmann, M. (1999). History and geography through French: CLIL in a UK secondary school. In J. Masih (Ed.), *Learning through a foreign language. Models, methods and outcomes* (pp. 96-105). London: Centre for Information on Language Teaching and Research.
- Vazquez, G. (2007). Models of CLIL: An evaluation of its status drawing on the German experience. A critical report on the limits of reality and perspectives. *RESLA, 1*, 95-111.
- Villarreal Olaizola, I., & García Mayo, M. P. (2009). Tense and morphology in the interlanguage of Basque/Spanish bilinguals: CLIL versus non-CLIL. In Y. Ruiz de Zarobe & R.M. Jiménez Catalán (Eds.), *Content and language integrated learning. Evidence from research in Europe* (pp. 152-175). Bristol: Multilingual Matters.
- Villoria, J., Hughes, S., & Madrid, D. (2011). Learning English and learning through English. In D. Madrid & S. Hughes (Eds.), *Studies in bilingual education* (pp. 157-194). Frankfurt-am-Main: Peter Lang.
- Wiesemes, R. (2009). Developing theories of practices in CLIL: CLIL as post-method pedagogies? In Y. Ruiz de Zarobe & R.M. Jiménez Catalán (Eds.), *Content and language integrated learning. Evidence from research in Europe* (pp. 41-59). Bristol: Multilingual Matters.
- Wode, H. (1999). Language learning in European immersion classes. In J. Masih (Ed.), *Learning through a foreign language. Models, methods and outcomes* (pp. 16-25). London: Centre for Information on Language Teaching and Research.

Wolff, D. (2005). *Approaching CLIL. In the quality CLIL matrix*. Central workshop  
report, coord. D. Marsh. Retrieved from  
[http://www.ecml.at/mtp2/CLILmatrix/pdf/wsrepD3E2005\\_6.pdf](http://www.ecml.at/mtp2/CLILmatrix/pdf/wsrepD3E2005_6.pdf)



## APPENDICES



APPENDIX I  
ORAL COMPREHENSION TEST



# ENGLISH LISTENING TEST

## COMPULSORY SECONDARY EDUCATION

4TH GRADE

NAME \_\_\_\_\_

SURNAMES \_\_\_\_\_

GROUP \_\_\_\_\_

GENDER \_\_\_\_\_

AGE \_\_\_\_\_

MARK \_\_\_\_\_

### ***1) PHONEME, STRESS AND INTONATION TESTS***

**A. WORD STRESS AND SYLLABLES**

**B. SENTENCE STRESS AND INTONATION**

**C. CONTRACTED FORMS**

### ***2) COMPREHENSION TESTS***

**A. TRUE/FALSE**

**B. MULTIPLE CHOICE**

**C. MATCHING**

TIME: 30 minutes



## 1) PHONEME, STRESS AND INTONATION TESTS

### A. WORD STRESS AND SYLLABLES

Listen to the following words and circle the syllable which is most stressed in each word.

1. boring (**bor-ing**)
2. embarrassed (**em-bar-rassed**)
3. excited (**ex-ci-ted**)
4. gorgeous (**gor-geous**)
5. interesting (**in-teres-ting**)
6. surprised (**sur-prised**)

### B. SENTENCE STRESS AND INTONATION

Listen to the following sentences and circle the syllable which is most stressed in each sentence.

1. Your hands are filthy! (**your hands are fil-thy**)
2. It's boiling in here! (**it's boi-ling in here**)
3. I think Ben Affleck is gorgeous! (**I think Ben Aff-leck is gor-geous**)
4. The film was terrible! (**The film was ter-ri-ble**)

### C. CONTRACTED FORMS

Listen to the following sentences and circle the correct form in each sentence.

1. We **could/couldn't** afford it.
2. He **should/shouldn't** pay for you.
3. This **would/wouldn't** cost £10.
4. I **could/couldn't** see her.
5. Chris **has/hasn't** lost this wallet.



## 2) COMPREHENSION TESTS

### A. TRUE/FALSE

Listen to the dialogue and tick the sentences T (true) or F (false).

- |  | <b>T</b>                 | <b>F</b>                 |
|--|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. Ellie used to read more when she was a student.             | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 2. Charlie says you only need a few minutes to read a novel.   | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 3. Ellie is reading a lot of poetry at the moment.             | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 4. Ellie thinks a biography is better than science fiction.    | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 5. Charlie decides what to read after looking at book reviews. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |

### B. MULTIPLE CHOICE

Listen to the dialogue and circle the correct answer.

- In the past Lee wanted to be...
  - a) a firefighter
  - b) a footballer**
- Lee is going to...
  - a) start the firefighting training course after the summer
  - b) stay on at school for one more year**
- Sharon has enjoyed being in the kitchen since she was...
  - a) four years old
  - b) fourteen years old**
- Sharon is doing a training course...
  - a) three evenings a week
  - b) every evening for three weeks**
- Sharon will spend...
  - a) three years working in a hotel kitchen
  - b) three years at college**

### C. MATCHING

Listen to the conversation about the life of Bill Gates. Then match the events to the dates. There are more dates than you need.

#### A

1. Bill Gates wrote his first computer program.
2. Gates and Allen started Microsoft.
3. Windows was released.
4. Bill Gates wrote the book *The Road Ahead*.
5. Gates became the richest man in the world.

#### B

- ..... a. 1968
- ..... b. 1985
- ..... c. 2000
- ..... d. 1999
- ..... e. 1995
- ..... f. 1975
- ..... g. 1967

APPENDIX II  
ORAL PRODUCTION TEST



# ENGLISH SPEAKING TEST

## COMPULSORY SECONDARY EDUCATION

4TH GRADE

NAME \_\_\_\_\_

SURNAMES \_\_\_\_\_

GROUP \_\_\_\_\_

GENDER \_\_\_\_\_

AGE \_\_\_\_\_

MARK \_\_\_\_\_

### ***1) INTERVIEW (40%)***

TIME: 5 MINUTES

### ***2) INDIVIDUAL SPEAKING (30%)***

TIME: 5 MINUTES

### ***3) SPOKEN INTERACTION (30%)***

TIME: 5 MINUTES



## 1) INTERVIEW

**Examiner:** Hello, I am..... I am going to ask you some questions.

**To student A:** Ok, what is your name? And how do you spell that?

**To student B:** And you, what is your name? And how do you spell that? And who do you live with? Can you describe a member of your family?

**To student A:** And who do you live with? Can you describe a member of your family? And what are your hobbies?

**To student B:** And what are your hobbies?

**To both students:** Have you ever travelled to another city? What did you do there?

**To student A:** What would you like to study in the future?

**To student B:** And what job would you like in the future? What would you do if you won the lottery?

**To student A:** And what would you do?



## 2) INDIVIDUAL SPEAKING

**Photos 1 and 2 are given to student A**

**Examiner:** Ok, now I want you to look at these photos and to describe and compare them. What can you see? What is happening? Which photo do you prefer? Why?

**Photos 3 and 4 are given to student B**

The same process is repeated.

**Photos for individual speaking**

**Photo 1**



**Photo 2**



**Photo 3**



**Photo 4**



### **3) SPOKEN INTERACTION**

**Examiner:** Now we are going to talk about two topics. After you choose a pair of topics we will give opinions, agree or disagree and ask questions.

- Learning English
- Today's technology
  
- Types of music
- Reading fact and fiction
  
- Areas of study
- Job interests



APPENDIX III  
ASSESSMENT CRITERIA



	<b>GRAMMATICAL RANGE AND ACCURACY</b>	<b>LEXICAL RANGE AND ACCURACY</b>	<b>FLUENCY AND INTERACTION</b>	<b>PRONUNCIATION, STRESS AND INTONATION</b>	<b>TASK FULFILLMENT/ APPROPRIACY OF RESPONSE/ COMMUNICATIVE EFFECTIVENESS</b>
<b>2</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Shows a <i>good degree</i> of control of basic <b>grammatical structures</b> to deal with the content of the test</li> <li>- Shows a <i>good degree</i> of control of <b>grammatical accuracy</b> to deal with simple exchanges</li> <li>- Makes basic mistakes but most <b>errors do not impede</b> communication</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Shows a <i>good degree</i> of control of <b>lexical range</b> to deal with the content of the test</li> <li>- Shows a <i>good degree</i> of control of <b>lexical precision</b> to deal with simple exchanges</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- <b>Few pauses, false starts and reformulations</b></li> <li>- Responds <b>slowly</b> on <i>very few occasions</i></li> <li>- Maintains simple exchanges. Requires <i>very little</i> <b>prompting and support</b></li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- <b>Mostly intelligible</b> and has <i>good</i> control of <b>phonological features</b> at both utterance and word level</li> <li>- <i>Good</i> control of lexical <b>stress</b> and <b>intonation</b></li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Fulfils the <b>task well</b></li> </ul>
<b>1.5</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Shows <i>sufficient</i> control of basic <b>grammatical structures</b> to deal with the content of the test</li> <li>- Shows <i>sufficient</i> control of <b>grammatical accuracy</b> to deal with simple exchanges</li> <li>- Makes basic mistakes. Major <b>errors occasionally impede</b> communication</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Shows <i>sufficient</i> control of <b>lexical range</b> to deal with the content of the test</li> <li>- Shows <i>sufficient</i> control of <b>lexical precision</b> to deal with simple exchanges</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- <b>Some pauses, false starts and reformulations</b></li> <li>- Responds <b>slowly</b> on <i>few occasions</i> due to need formulate output</li> <li>- Maintains simple exchanges despite some difficulty. Requires <i>some</i> <b>prompting and support</b></li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- <b>Mostly intelligible</b> and has <i>sufficient</i> control of <b>phonological features</b></li> <li>- <i>Sufficient</i> control of lexical <b>stress</b> and <b>intonation</b></li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Fulfils the <b>task appropriately</b></li> </ul>
<b>1</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Shows an <i>acceptable</i> degree of control of basic <b>grammatical</b></li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Shows <i>acceptable</i> control of <b>lexical range</b> to deal with the</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- <b>Pauses, false starts and reformulations</b> are <i>frequent</i></li> <li>- Responds</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- <i>Limited</i> control of <b>phonological features</b> and <i>sometimes</i> <b>unintelligible</b></li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Fulfils the <b>task acceptably with support</b></li> </ul>

	<p><b>structures</b> to deal with the content of the test</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Shows an <i>acceptable</i> degree of control of <b>grammatical accuracy</b> <i>just enough to follow</i></li> <li>- Makes basic mistakes. Major <b>errors</b> <i>sometimes</i> impede communication</li> </ul>	<p>content of the test</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Shows <i>acceptable</i> control of <b>lexical precision</b> to deal with simple exchanges</li> </ul>	<p><b>slowly</b> on <i>few occasions</i> due to need to make sense of input</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Has difficulty maintaining simple exchanges. Requires <i>additional</i> <b>prompting and support</b></li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- <i>Acceptable</i> control of lexical <b>stress</b> and <b>intonation</b> <i>just enough to follow</i></li> </ul>	
<b>0.5</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Shows <i>only limited</i> control of basic <b>grammatical structures</b>. <i>Does not manage</i> to deal with the content of the test</li> <li>- Shows <i>only limited</i> control of <b>grammatical accuracy</b> for simple exchanges</li> <li>- Makes basic mistakes and major <b>errors</b> <i>often</i> impede communication</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Shows <i>only limited</i> control of <b>lexical range</b> to deal with the content of the test</li> <li>- Shows <i>only limited</i> control of <b>lexical precision</b> to deal with simple exchanges</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- <b>Pauses, false starts</b> and <b>reformulations</b> are <i>very frequent</i></li> <li>- <i>Often</i> responds <b>slowly</b> due to failure to understand input</li> <li>- Has difficulty maintaining simple exchanges <i>even with additional</i> <b>prompting and support</b></li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- <i>Limited</i> control of <b>phonological features</b> and <i>often</i> <b>unintelligible</b></li> <li>- <i>Limited</i> control of lexical <b>stress</b> and <b>intonation</b></li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Does not fulfil the <b>task</b> <i>even with support</i></li> </ul>
<b>0</b>	<p><b>NO PERFORMANCE TO ASSESS</b> Does not speak or does not speak in English</p>				

APPENDIX IV  
STUDENT QUESTIONNAIRE



**ANÁLISIS DE EDUCACIÓN BILINGÜE EN LOS INSTITUTOS PÚBLICOS DE JAÉN**  
**(ALUMNADO)**

1. EDAD: \_\_\_\_\_
2. SEXO:       Hombre                       Mujer
3. NACIONALIDAD: \_\_\_\_\_
4. NIVEL DE ESTUDIOS DE PADRES:
  - Sin estudios
  - Título de Graduado Escolar
  - Título de Bachiller
  - Título de Formación Profesional
  - Título Universitario
  - Doctorado
5. SU NIVEL DE INGLÉS ES:
  - Elemental
  - Pre-intermedio
  - Intermedio
  - Alto-intermedio
  - Avanzado
6. CUÁNTOS AÑOS HA ESTUDIADO EN UN PROGRAMA BILINGÜE? \_\_\_\_\_
7. ASIGNATURAS QUE ESTUDIA EN INGLÉS ESTE CURSO:
  - Ciencias Naturales
  - Ciencias Sociales
  - Matemáticas
  - Dibujo
  - Música
  - Educación Física
  - Otro \_\_\_\_\_
8. EXPOSICIÓN AL INGLÉS DENTRO DEL PROGRAMA BILINGÜE :  
¿Qué porcentaje de cada asignatura bilingüe se enseña en inglés?     30%     40%     50%     No sé
9. EXPOSICIÓN AL INGLÉS FUERA DEL INSTITUTO:
  - Libros/revistas
  - Televisión
  - Música
  - Internet
  - Videojuegos
  - Otro \_\_\_\_\_

**POR FAVOR, INDIQUE HASTA QUÉ PUNTO ESTA DE ACUERDO CON LOS SIGUIENTES ASPECTOS RELACIONADOS CON LA ENSEÑANZA BILINGÜE (1=Totalmente en desacuerdo; 2=En desacuerdo; 3=De acuerdo; 4=Totalmente de acuerdo).**

**1. USO, COMPETENCIA Y DESARROLLO DE INGLÉS DE LOS ALUMNOS EN CLASE**

ASPECTOS	TOTALMENTE EN DESACUERDO	EN DESACUERDO	DE ACUERDO	TOTALMENTE DE ACUERDO
1. Se desarrollan las competencias básicas en clase	1	2	3	4
2. Mi inglés ha mejorado debido a mi participación en un programa bilingüe	1	2	3	4
3. Mi francés ha mejorado debido a mi participación en un programa bilingüe	1	2	3	4
4. Mi español ha mejorado debido a mi participación en un programa bilingüe	1	2	3	4
5. Mi conocimiento de los contenidos de las asignaturas impartidas en inglés ha mejorado debido a mi participación en un programa bilingüe	1	2	3	4
6. Mi comprensión de cómo funcionan las lenguas ha mejorado debido a mi participación en un programa bilingüe	1	2	3	4
7. Mi comprensión de la conexión entre el inglés, el francés y el español ha mejorado debido a mi participación en un programa bilingüe	1	2	3	4
8. Tengo confianza en mi mismo dentro de la clase bilingüe	1	2	3	4
9. Soy participativo en la clase bilingüe	1	2	3	4
10. Me intereso en la clase bilingüe	1	2	3	4
11. Me gustaría más uso del inglés dentro de la clase bilingüe	1	2	3	4
12. Tengo una capacidad adecuada en comprensión y expresión orales en inglés	1	2	3	4
13. Tengo una capacidad adecuada en comprensión y expresión escritas en inglés	1	2	3	4
14. Tengo una conciencia lingüística adecuada y reflexiono sobre el inglés	1	2	3	4
15. Tengo un conocimiento adecuado de aspectos socio-culturales y una conciencia intercultural en inglés	1	2	3	4
<b>Otro (especificar):</b> ..... ..... .....	1	2	3	4

## 2. METODOLOGÍA

ASPECTOS	TOTALMENTE EN DESACUERDO	EN DESACUERDO	DE ACUERDO	TOTALMENTE DE ACUERDO
16. Se desarrollan tareas en clase	1	2	3	4
17. Se desarrollan proyectos en clase	1	2	3	4
18. Se da prioridad al vocabulario en la clase bilingüe	1	2	3	4
19. Se trabaja en grupo en la clase bilingüe	1	2	3	4
20. La metodología utilizada en clase fomenta la comprensión y expresión orales en inglés	1	2	3	4
21. Reflexiono a menudo sobre la lengua materna	1	2	3	4
22. Reflexiono a menudo sobre la conexión entre la L1, L2 y L3	1	2	3	4
<b>Otro (especificar):</b> ..... ..... .....	1	2	3	4

## 3. MATERIALES Y RECURSOS

ASPECTOS	TOTALMENTE EN DESACUERDO	EN DESACUERDO	DE ACUERDO	TOTALMENTE DE ACUERDO
23. Se utilizan materiales auténticos para la enseñanza bilingüe	1	2	3	4
24. Se adaptan materiales auténticos para la enseñanza bilingüe	1	2	3	4
25. Los materiales para la enseñanza bilingüe son interesantes e innovadores	1	2	3	4
26. Los profesores de la sección bilingüe colaboran para preparar y enseñar los materiales de enseñanza bilingüe en clase	1	2	3	4
27. Los materiales de enseñanza bilingüe fomentan la comprensión y expresión orales en inglés	1	2	3	4
28. Se adaptan los materiales de enseñanza bilingüe para atender a los alumnos de diversidad en la clase	1	2	3	4
29. Se utiliza <i>software</i> multimedia en clase	1	2	3	4
30. Se utilizan materiales de referencia <i>online</i> en clase	1	2	3	4
31. Se utilizan <i>blogs</i> , <i>Wikis</i> (herramientas Web 2.0) y <i>webquests</i> en clase	1	2	3	4
32. Se utilizan pizarras electrónicas interactivas en clase	1	2	3	4
33. Se utiliza comunicación	1	2	3	4

mediada por ordenador en clase (e.g., <i>e-Twinning</i> )				
<b>Otro (especificar):</b> ..... ..... .....	1	2	3	4

#### 4. EVALUACIÓN

ASPECTOS	TOTALMENTE EN DESACUERDO	EN DESACUERDO	DE ACUERDO	TOTALMENTE DE ACUERDO
<b>34.</b> Se evalúan todo los contenidos aprendidos en el programa bilingüe	1	2	3	4
<b>35.</b> A la hora de evaluar, se da prioridad a los contenidos de las asignaturas bilingües frente a la competencia de inglés	1	2	3	4
<b>36.</b> Se evalúa con un examen de comprensión y expresión orales en inglés en las asignaturas bilingües	1	2	3	4
<b>37.</b> Se practica la evaluación continua y final	1	2	3	4
<b>Otro (especificar):</b> ..... ..... .....	1	2	3	4

#### 5. USO, COMPETENCIA Y DESARROLLO DE INGLÉS DE LOS PROFESORES EN CLASE

ASPECTOS	TOTALMENTE EN DESACUERDO	EN DESACUERDO	DE ACUERDO	TOTALMENTE DE ACUERDO
<b>38.</b> Mis profesores de lenguas extranjeras imparten sus clases con éxito	1	2	3	4
<b>39.</b> Mis profesores de asignaturas bilingües imparten sus clases con éxito	1	2	3	4
<b>40.</b> Mis auxiliares de conversación imparten sus clases bilingües con éxito	1	2	3	4
<b>41.</b> Mis profesores de lenguas extranjeras motivan al alumno	1	2	3	4
<b>42.</b> Mis profesores de asignaturas bilingües motivan al alumno	1	2	3	4
<b>43.</b> Mis auxiliares de conversación motivan al alumno	1	2	3	4
<b>44.</b> Mis profesores de lenguas extranjeras fomentan la comprensión y expresión orales en inglés	1	2	3	4
<b>45.</b> Mis profesores de asignaturas bilingües fomentan la comprensión y expresión orales en inglés	1	2	3	4
<b>46.</b> Mis auxiliares de conversación fomentan la comprensión y expresión orales en inglés	1	2	3	4
<b>47.</b> Mis auxiliares de conversación	1	2	3	4

colaboran con éxito con los alumnos de la clase bilingüe				
48. Mis auxiliares de conversación colaboran con éxito con los otros profesores de las clases bilingües	1	2	3	4
49. Mis profesores tienen una capacidad adecuada en comprensión y expresión orales en inglés	1	2	3	4
50. Mis profesores tienen una capacidad adecuada en comprensión y expresión escritas en inglés	1	2	3	4
51. Mis profesores tienen una conciencia lingüística adecuada y reflexionan sobre inglés	1	2	3	4
52. Mis profesores tienen un conocimiento adecuado de aspectos socio-culturales y una conciencia intercultural en inglés	1	2	3	4
<b>Otro (especificar):</b> ..... ..... .....	1	2	3	4

## 6. MOVILIDAD

ASPECTOS	TOTALMENTE EN DESACUERDO	EN DESACUERDO	DE ACUERDO	TOTALMENTE DE ACUERDO
53. He participado en programas de intercambio dentro del programa bilingüe	1	2	3	4
54. Mis profesores de la sección bilingües fomentan la participación en programas de intercambio	1	2	3	4
55. Mi familia fomentan la participación en programas de intercambio	1	2	3	4
56. La participación en programas de intercambio dentro del programa bilingüe mejorarían mi capacidad en comprensión y expresión orales en inglés	1	2	3	4
<b>Otro (especificar):</b> ..... ..... .....	1	2	3	4

## 7. MEJORAS Y MOTIVACIÓN HACIA EL APRENDIZAJE DE INGLÉS

ASPECTOS	TOTALMENTE EN DESACUERDO	EN DESACUERDO	DE ACUERDO	TOTALMENTE DE ACUERDO
57. Formar parte de una sección bilingüe compensa el incremento de trabajo que esto implica	1	2	3	4
58. Ha habido una mejoría general de mi aprendizaje de inglés debido a	1	2	3	4

mi participación en un programa bilingüe				
<b>59.</b> Mi motivación por el aprendizaje de inglés ha aumentado debido a mi participación en un programa bilingüe	1	2	3	4
<b>60.</b> Ha habido una mejoría de mi capacidad en comprensión y expresión orales en inglés debido a mi participación en un programa bilingüe	1	2	3	4
<b>61.</b> Tengo un acceso adecuado a materiales en inglés fuera del instituto	1	2	3	4
<b>Otro (especificar):</b> ..... ..... .....	1	2	3	4

**AGRADECZCO ENCARECIDAMENTE SU COLABORACIÓN**

APPENDIX V  
TEACHER QUESTIONNAIRE



**ANÁLISIS DE EDUCACIÓN BILINGÜE EN INSTITUTOS PÚBLICOS DE JAÉN**  
**(PROFESORADO EN ACTIVO)**

1. EDAD: \_\_\_\_\_
2. SEXO:       Hombre                               Mujer
3. NACIONALIDAD: \_\_\_\_\_
4. TIPO DE PROFESORADO:  
 Lengua extranjera  
 Área no lingüística  
 Auxiliar lingüístico  
 Otro: \_\_\_\_\_
5. SITUACIÓN ADMINISTRATIVA:  
 Funcionario/a con destino definitivo  
 Funcionario/a con destino provisional  
 Interino/a  
 Otro: \_\_\_\_\_
6. SU NIVEL EN LA LENGUA EXTRANJERA QUE ENSEÑA ES:  
 A1  
 A2  
 B1  
 B2  
 C1  
 C2
7. ASIGNATURAS QUE ENSEÑA EN INGLÉS:  
 Ciencias Naturales  
 Ciencias Sociales  
 Matemáticas  
 Dibujo  
 Música  
 Educación Física  
 Otro \_\_\_\_\_
8. EXPOSICIÓN AL INGLÉS DE LOS ALUMNOS DENTRO DEL PROGRAMA BILINGÜE:  
¿Cuántas asignaturas se enseñan en inglés? \_\_\_\_\_  
¿Qué porcentaje de cada asignatura se enseña en inglés?    30%    40%    50%    Otro \_\_\_\_\_
9. ¿ES COORDINADOR/A DE SU SECCIÓN BILINGÜE?    Sí       No
10. EXPERIENCIA DOCENTE GENERAL:  
 Menos de 1 año  
 1-10 años  
 11-20 años  
 21-30 años  
 Más de 30 años
11. EXPERIENCIA DOCENTE EN UN INSTITUTO BILINGÜE:  
 Menos de 1 año  
 1-5 años  
 6-10 años  
 11-15 años  
 Más de 15 años

**POR FAVOR, INDIQUE HASTA QUÉ PUNTO ESTA DE ACUERDO CON LOS SIGUIENTES ASPECTOS RELACIONADOS CON LA ENSEÑANZA BILINGÜE (1=Totalmente en desacuerdo; 2=En desacuerdo; 3=De acuerdo; 4=Totalmente de acuerdo).**

**1. USO, COMPETENCIA Y DESARROLLO DE INGLÉS DE LOS ALUMNOS EN CLASE**

ASPECTOS	TOTALMENTE EN DESACUERDO	EN DESACUERDO	DE ACUERDO	TOTALMENTE DE ACUERDO
1. Se desarrollan las competencias básicas en clase	1	2	3	4
2. El inglés de mis alumnos ha mejorado debido a su participación en un programa bilingüe	1	2	3	4
3. El francés de mis alumnos ha mejorado debido a su participación en un programa bilingüe	1	2	3	4
4. El español de mis alumnos ha mejorado debido a su participación en un programa bilingüe	1	2	3	4
5. El conocimiento por parte de mis alumnos de los contenidos de las asignaturas enseñadas en inglés ha mejorado debido a su participación en un programa bilingüe	1	2	3	4
6. La comprensión de mis alumnos de cómo funcionan las lenguas ha mejorado debido a su participación en un programa bilingüe	1	2	3	4
7. La comprensión de la conexión entre el inglés, el francés y el español de mis alumnos ha mejorado debido a su participación en un programa bilingüe	1	2	3	4
8. Mis alumnos tienen confianza en sí mismos dentro de la clase bilingüe	1	2	3	4
9. Mis alumnos son participativos en la clase bilingüe	1	2	3	4
10. Mis alumnos se interesan en la clase bilingüe	1	2	3	4
11. A mis alumnos les gustaría más uso del inglés dentro de la clase bilingüe	1	2	3	4
12. Mis alumnos tienen una capacidad adecuada en comprensión y expresión orales en la LE	1	2	3	4
13. Mis alumnos tienen una capacidad adecuada en comprensión y expresión escritas en la LE	1	2	3	4
14. Mis alumnos tienen una conciencia lingüística adecuada y reflexionan sobre la LE	1	2	3	4
15. Mis alumnos tienen un	1	2	3	4

conocimiento adecuado de aspectos socio-culturales y una conciencia intercultural en la LE				
<b>Otro (especificar):</b> ..... ..... .....	1	2	3	4

## 2. METODOLOGÍA

ASPECTOS	TOTALMENTE EN DESACUERDO	EN DESACUERDO	DE ACUERDO	TOTALMENTE DE ACUERDO
16. Se utiliza el aprendizaje basado en tareas en clase	1	2	3	4
17. Se utiliza el aprendizaje basado en proyectos en clase	1	2	3	4
18. Se da prioridad a la dimensión léxica en la clase bilingüe	1	2	3	4
19. Se utiliza aprendizaje cooperativo en la clase bilingüe	1	2	3	4
20. La metodología utilizada en clase fomenta la comprensión y expresión orales en inglés	1	2	3	4
21. Se fomenta la reflexión sobre la lengua materna	1	2	3	4
22. Se enfatiza la conexión entre la L1, L2 y L3	1	2	3	4
23. Se siguen las recomendaciones del Marco Común Europeo de Referencia	1	2	3	4
24. Se siguen las recomendaciones del Portfolio Europeo de Lenguas	1	2	3	4
<b>Otro (especificar):</b> ..... ..... .....	1	2	3	4

## 3. MATERIALES Y RECURSOS

ASPECTOS	TOTALMENTE EN DESACUERDO	EN DESACUERDO	DE ACUERDO	TOTALMENTE DE ACUERDO
25. Se utilizan materiales auténticos para la enseñanza bilingüe	1	2	3	4
26. Se adaptan materiales auténticos para la enseñanza bilingüe	1	2	3	4
27. Los materiales para la enseñanza bilingüe son interesantes e innovadores	1	2	3	4
28. Los profesores de la sección bilingüe colaboran para preparar y enseñar los materiales de enseñanza bilingüe en clase	1	2	3	4
29. Los materiales de enseñanza bilingüe fomentan la comprensión y expresión orales en inglés	1	2	3	4
30. A la hora de diseñar los materiales de enseñanza bilingüe siempre se tiene en cuenta la atención a la diversidad	1	2	3	4
31. Se utiliza <i>software</i> multimedia en	1	2	3	4

clase				
32. Se utilizan materiales de referencia <i>online</i> en clase	1	2	3	4
33. Se utilizan <i>blogs</i> , <i>Wikis</i> (herramientas Web 2.0) y <i>webquests</i> en clase	1	2	3	4
34. Se utilizan pizarras electrónicas interactivas en clase	1	2	3	4
35. Se utiliza comunicación mediada por ordenador en clase (e.g., <i>e-Twinning</i> )	1	2	3	4
Otro (especificar): ..... ..... .....	1	2	3	4

#### 4. EVALUACIÓN

ASPECTOS	TOTALMENTE EN DESACUERDO	EN DESACUERDO	DE ACUERDO	TOTALMENTE DE ACUERDO
36. Se evalúan todo los contenidos enseñados en el programa bilingüe	1	2	3	4
37. A la hora de evaluar, se da prioridad al dominio de los contenidos frente a la competencia lingüística	1	2	3	4
38. Se evalúa con un examen de comprensión y expresión orales en inglés en las asignaturas bilingües	1	2	3	4
39. Se practica la evaluación diversificada, formativa, sumativa y holística	1	2	3	4
Otro (especificar): ..... ..... .....	1	2	3	4

#### 5. FORMACIÓN DEL PROFESORADO

ASPECTOS	TOTALMENTE EN DESACUERDO	EN DESACUERDO	DE ACUERDO	TOTALMENTE DE ACUERDO
40. Los profesores de lengua extranjera necesitan más formación	1	2	3	4
41. Los profesores de áreas no lingüísticas necesitan más formación	1	2	3	4
42. Los auxiliares lingüísticos necesitan más formación	1	2	3	4
43. Los profesores de lengua extranjera motivan al alumno en su aprendizaje del inglés	1	2	3	4
44. Los profesores de áreas no lingüísticas motivan al alumno en su aprendizaje del inglés	1	2	3	4
45. Los auxiliares lingüísticos motivan al alumno en su aprendizaje del inglés	1	2	3	4
46. Los profesores de lenguas extranjeras fomentan la comprensión y expresión orales en	1	2	3	4

inglés				
47. Los profesores de asignaturas bilingües fomentan la comprensión y expresión orales en inglés	1	2	3	4
48. Los auxiliares lingüísticos fomentan la comprensión y expresión orales en inglés	1	2	3	4
49. Los auxiliares lingüísticos colaboran con éxito con los alumnos de la clase bilingüe	1	2	3	4
50. Los auxiliares lingüísticos colaboran con éxito con los otros profesores de la sección bilingüe	1	2	3	4
51. Tengo una capacidad adecuada en comprensión y expresión orales en la LE	1	2	3	4
52. Tengo una capacidad adecuada en comprensión y expresión escritas en la LE	1	2	3	4
53. Tengo una conciencia lingüística adecuada y reflexiono sobre la LE	1	2	3	4
54. Tengo un conocimiento adecuado de aspectos socio-culturales y una conciencia intercultural en la LE	1	2	3	4
55. Tengo conocimiento del Plan de Fomento del Plurilingüismo: objetivos, acciones, pilares, y marco legislativo	1	2	3	4
56. Tengo conocimiento de los principios básicos del Aprendizaje Integrado de Contenidos y Lenguas Extranjeras dentro de la educación bilingüe	1	2	3	4
57. He participado en formación sobre el Aprendizaje Integrado de Contenidos y Lenguas Extranjeras	1	2	3	4
58. He realizado cursos de actualización lingüística en las EOIs	1	2	3	4
<b>Otro (especificar):</b> ..... ..... .....	1	2	3	4

## 6. MOVILIDAD

ASPECTOS	TOTALMENTE EN DESACUERDO	EN DESACUERDO	DE ACUERDO	TOTALMENTE DE ACUERDO
59. He participado en programas de intercambio dentro de la sección bilingüe	1	2	3	4
60. La participación en programas de intercambio dentro de la sección bilingüe mejorarían la capacidad en comprensión y expresión orales en inglés	1	2	3	4
61. He participado en cursos lingüísticos en el extranjero	1	2	3	4
62. He participado en cursos metodológicos en el extranjero	1	2	3	4

<b>63.</b> He obtenido licencias de estudios/investigación	1	2	3	4
<b>Otro (especificar):</b> ..... ..... .....	1	2	3	4

## 7. COORDINACIÓN Y ORGANIZACIÓN

ASPECTOS	TOTALMENTE EN DESACUERDO	EN DESACUERDO	DE ACUERDO	TOTALMENTE DE ACUERDO
<b>64.</b> Formar parte de una sección bilingüe compensa el incremento de trabajo que esto implica	1	2	3	4
<b>65.</b> Ha habido una mejoría general del aprendizaje de inglés de mis alumnos debido a su participación en un programa bilingüe	1	2	3	4
<b>66.</b> Ha habido una mejoría de la capacidad en comprensión y expresión orales en inglés de mis alumnos debido a su participación en un programa bilingüe	1	2	3	4
<b>67.</b> Colaboro en la elaboración, adaptación e implementación del Currículo Integrado de las Lenguas	1	2	3	4
<b>68.</b> Cumpló con o el/la coordinador/a de la sección bilingüe cumple con todas sus funciones dentro del Plan de Fomento del Plurilingüismo	1	2	3	4
<b>69.</b> Me comunico o el/la coordinador/a se comunica con otros centros bilingües y los/las coordinadores/as provinciales	1	2	3	4
<b>70.</b> Se recibe un apoyo adecuado de las autoridades educativas	1	2	3	4
<b>Otro (especificar):</b> ..... ..... .....	1	2	3	4

AGRADECZCO ENCARECIDAMENTE SU COLABORACIÓN

APPENDIX VI  
PARENT QUESTIONNAIRE



**ANÁLISIS DE EDUCACIÓN BILINGÜE EN LOS INSTITUTOS PÚBLICOS DE JAÉN**  
**(PADRES)**

1. EDAD: \_\_\_\_\_
2. SEXO:       Hombre                       Mujer
3. NACIONALIDAD: \_\_\_\_\_
4. NIVEL DE ESTUDIOS: \_\_\_\_\_
  - Sin estudios
  - Título de Graduado Escolar
  - Título de Bachiller
  - Título de Formación Profesional
  - Título Universitario
  - Doctorado
5. SU NIVEL DE INGLÉS ES:
  - Elemental
  - Pre-intermedio
  - Intermedio
  - Alto-intermedio
  - Avanzado
6. EXPOSICIÓN AL INGLÉS DE MI HIJO/A FUERA DEL INSTITUTO:
  - Libros/revistas
  - Televisión
  - Música
  - Internet
  - Videojuegos
  - Otro \_\_\_\_\_

**POR FAVOR, INDIQUE HASTA QUÉ PUNTO ESTA DE ACUERDO CON LOS SIGUIENTES ASPECTOS RELACIONADOS CON LA ENSEÑANZA BILINGÜE (1=Totalmente en desacuerdo; 2=En desacuerdo; 3=De acuerdo; 4=Totalmente de acuerdo).**

**1. USO, COMPETENCIA Y DESARROLLO DE INGLÉS DE SU HIJO/A EN CLASE**

ASPECTOS	TOTALMENTE EN DESACUERDO	EN DESACUERDO	DE ACUERDO	TOTALMENTE DE ACUERDO
1. El inglés de mi hijo/a ha mejorado debido a su participación en un programa bilingüe	1	2	3	4
2. El francés de mi hijo/a ha mejorado debido a su participación en un programa bilingüe	1	2	3	4
3. El español de mi hijo/a ha mejorado debido a su participación en un programa bilingüe	1	2	3	4
4. El conocimiento de los contenidos de las asignaturas impartidas en inglés de mi hijo/a ha mejorado debido a su participación en un programa bilingüe	1	2	3	4
5. Mi hijo/a tiene una capacidad adecuada en comprensión y expresión orales en inglés	1	2	3	4
6. Mi hijo/a tiene una capacidad adecuada en comprensión y expresión escritas en inglés	1	2	3	4
7. Mi hijo/a tiene una conciencia lingüística adecuada y reflexiona sobre el inglés	1	2	3	4
8. Mi hijo/a tiene un conocimiento adecuado de aspectos socio-culturales y una conciencia intercultural en inglés	1	2	3	4
Otro (especificar): ..... ..... .....	1	2	3	4

**2. METODOLOGÍA**

ASPECTOS	TOTALMENTE EN DESACUERDO	EN DESACUERDO	DE ACUERDO	TOTALMENTE DE ACUERDO
9. Se desarrollan tareas en casa	1	2	3	4
10. Se desarrollan proyectos en casa	1	2	3	4
11. Se trabaja en grupo en la casa	1	2	3	4
12. La metodología utilizada en clase fomenta la comprensión y expresión orales en inglés de mi hijo/a	1	2	3	4
13. Soy capaz de ayudar a mi hijo/a con sus deberes de enseñanza bilingüe	1	2	3	4
Otro (especificar): ..... ..... .....	1	2	3	4

### 3. MATERIALES Y RECURSOS

ASPECTOS	TOTALMENTE EN DESACUERDO	EN DESACUERDO	DE ACUERDO	TOTALMENTE DE ACUERDO
14. Los materiales de enseñanza bilingüe fomentan la comprensión y expresión orales en inglés de mi hijo/a	1	2	3	4
15. Se utiliza <i>software</i> multimedia en casa	1	2	3	4
16. Se utilizan materiales de referencia <i>online</i> en casa	1	2	3	4
17. Se utiliza comunicación mediada por ordenador en casa	1	2	3	4
Otro (especificar): ..... ..... .....	1	2	3	4

### 4. EVALUACIÓN

ASPECTOS	TOTALMENTE EN DESACUERDO	EN DESACUERDO	DE ACUERDO	TOTALMENTE DE ACUERDO
18. A la hora de evaluar, se da prioridad a los contenidos de las asignaturas bilingües frente a la competencia de inglés de mi hijo/a	1	2	3	4
19. Se evalúa con un examen de comprensión y expresión orales en inglés en las asignaturas bilingües de mi hijo/a	1	2	3	4
Otro (especificar): ..... ..... .....	1	2	3	4

### 5. USO, COMPETENCIA Y DESARROLLO DE INGLÉS DE LOS PROFESORES EN CLASE

ASPECTOS	TOTALMENTE EN DESACUERDO	EN DESACUERDO	DE ACUERDO	TOTALMENTE DE ACUERDO
20. Los profesores de lenguas extranjeras motivan a mi hijo/a	1	2	3	4
21. Los profesores de asignaturas bilingües motivan a mi hijo/a	1	2	3	4
22. Los auxiliares de conversación motivan a mi hijo/a	1	2	3	4
23. Los profesores de lenguas extranjeras fomentan la comprensión y expresión orales en inglés de mi hijo/a	1	2	3	4
24. Los profesores de asignaturas bilingües fomentan la comprensión y expresión orales en inglés de mi hijo/a	1	2	3	4

<b>25.</b> Mis auxiliares de conversación fomentan la comprensión y expresión orales en inglés de mi hijo/a	1	2	3	4
<b>26.</b> Los profesores de mi hijo/a tienen una capacidad adecuada en comprensión y expresión orales en inglés	1	2	3	4
<b>27.</b> Los profesores de mi hijo/a tienen una capacidad adecuada en comprensión y expresión escritas en inglés	1	2	3	4
<b>28.</b> Los profesores de mi hijo/a tienen una conciencia lingüística adecuada y reflexionan sobre inglés	1	2	3	4
<b>29.</b> Los profesores de mi hijo/a tienen un conocimiento adecuado de aspectos socio-culturales y una conciencia intercultural en inglés	1	2	3	4
<b>30.</b> Tengo conocimiento del Plan de Fomento del Plurilingüismo	1	2	3	4
<b>31.</b> Tengo conocimiento del Aprendizaje Integrado de Contenidos y Lenguas Extranjeras dentro de la educación bilingüe	1	2	3	4
<b>Otro (especificar):</b> ..... ..... .....	1	2	3	4

## 6. MOVILIDAD

ASPECTOS	TOTALMENTE EN DESACUERDO	EN DESACUERDO	DE ACUERDO	TOTALMENTE DE ACUERDO
<b>32.</b> Mi hijo/a ha participado en programas de intercambio dentro del programa bilingüe	1	2	3	4
<b>33.</b> Los profesores de la sección bilingües fomentan la participación de mi hijo/a en programas de intercambio	1	2	3	4
<b>34.</b> Fomento la participación de mi hijo/a en programas de intercambio	1	2	3	4
<b>35.</b> La participación en programas de intercambio dentro del programa bilingüe mejorarían la capacidad en comprensión y expresión orales en inglés de mi hijo/a	1	2	3	4
<b>Otro (especificar):</b> ..... ..... .....	1	2	3	4

## 7. MEJORAS Y MOTIVACIÓN DE SU HIJO/A HACIA EL APRENDIZJE DE INGLÉS

ASPECTOS	TOTALMENTE EN DESACUERDO	EN DESACUERDO	DE ACUERDO	TOTALMENTE DE ACUERDO
<b>36.</b> Formar parte de una sección bilingüe compensa el incremento de trabajo de mi hijo/a que esto implica	1	2	3	4
<b>37.</b> Ha habido una mejoría general del aprendizaje de inglés de mi hijo/a debido a su participación en un programa bilingüe	1	2	3	4
<b>38.</b> La motivación por el aprendizaje de inglés de mi hijo/a ha aumentado debido a su participación en un programa bilingüe	1	2	3	4
<b>39.</b> Ha habido una mejoría de la capacidad en comprensión y expresión orales en inglés de mi hijo/a debido a su participación en un programa bilingüe	1	2	3	4
<b>40.</b> Mi hijo/a tiene un acceso adecuado a materiales en inglés fuera del instituto	1	2	3	4
<b>41.</b> Formar parte de una sección bilingüe ayudará a mi hijo/a en su futuro profesional	1	2	3	4
<b>Otro (especificar):</b> ..... ..... .....	1	2	3	4

AGRADECZCO ENCARECIDAMENTE SU COLABORACIÓN



APPENDIX VII  
STUDENT INTERVIEW



**Proyecto MON-CLIL: Los Efectos del Aprendizaje Integrado de Contenidos y Lenguas Extranjeras en Comunidades Monolingües: Un Estudio Longitudinal**

**Protocolo de entrevistas**

**ALUMNADO**

1. CENTRO: \_\_\_\_\_
2. CURSO:     6º EP                                     4º ESO
3. EDAD: \_\_\_\_\_
4. SEXO:         Hombre                                     Mujer
5. NACIONALIDAD: \_\_\_\_\_

**1) USO DE LA L2 EN CLASE**

¿Consideras que el nivel de inglés de tus profesores es adecuado para participar en el programa bilingüe?

¿En qué porcentaje dirías que se utiliza el inglés en clase?

¿Consideras que tu nivel de inglés ha mejorado como consecuencia de tu participación en el programa bilingüe?

¿Es más difícil aprender los contenidos de las asignaturas enseñadas en inglés?

¿Consideras que eres participativo en clase y utilizas el inglés para ello?

## **2) DESARROLLO DE LA L2 EN CLASE: FUNCIONES DISCURSIVAS**

¿Para qué funciones discursivas se utiliza el inglés en clase: *transmisivas* o *interaccionales*?

**EJEMPLOS:** *Dar instrucciones*

*Introducir el tema*

*Transmitir contenidos*

*Realizar actividades*

*Aclarar dudas y explicar dificultades*

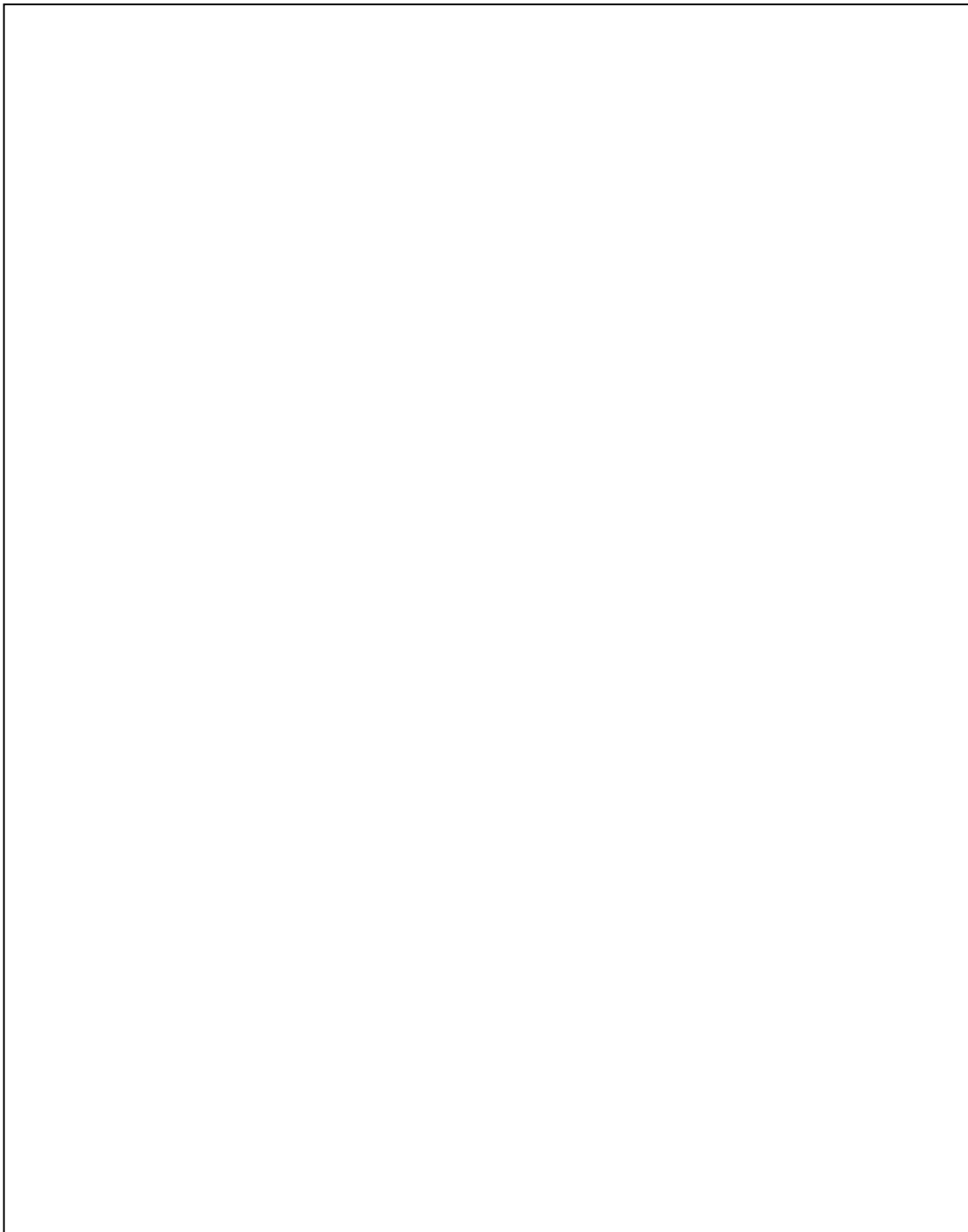
*Corregir tareas*

*Consolidar y repasar conocimientos*

*Organizar la clase con distintos tipos de agrupamiento*

*Interactuar con el alumnado/profesorado*

*Aplicar y transferir el conocimiento a otras situaciones*



### **3) DESARROLLO DE COMPETENCIAS EN CLASE**

¿Qué competencias-lingüísticas, interculturales y genéricas- consideras que desarrolláis en clase?

**EJEMPLOS:** *Comprensión oral*

*Comprensión escrita*

*Expresión oral*

*Expresión escrita*

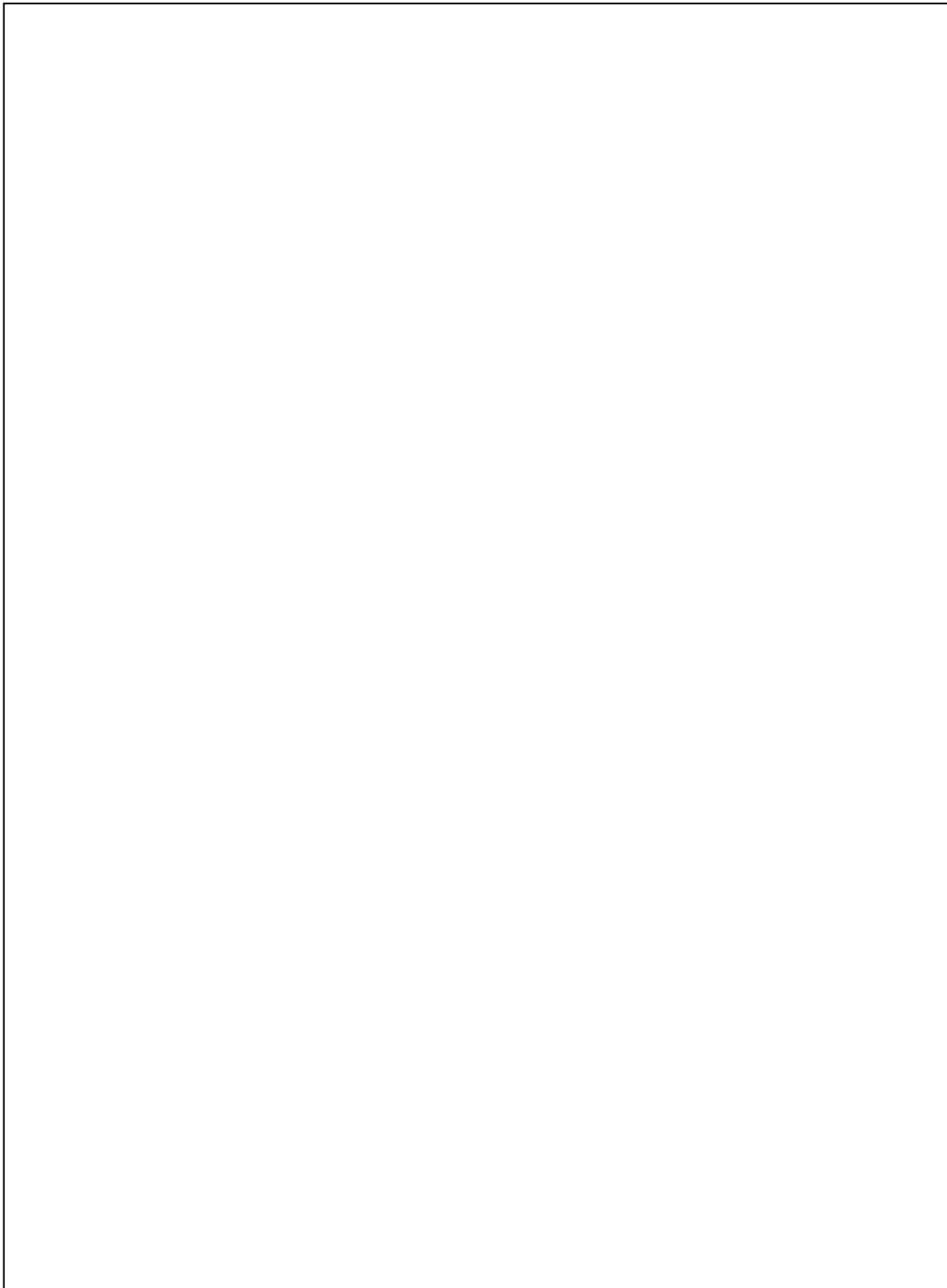
*Capacidad crítica*

*Creatividad*

*Autonomía en el aprendizaje*

*Conciencia metalingüística*

*Conciencia intercultural*



#### **4) METODOLOGÍA Y TIPOS DE AGRUPAMIENTO**

¿Qué metodologías y tipos de agrupamiento empleáis en clase? ¿Dirías que son tradicionales o innovadores / basadas en el profesor o centradas en el alumno?

**EJEMPLOS:** *Aprendizaje basado en tareas*

*Aprendizaje basado en proyectos*

*Aprendizaje cooperativo*

*Enfoque léxico*

*CEFR*

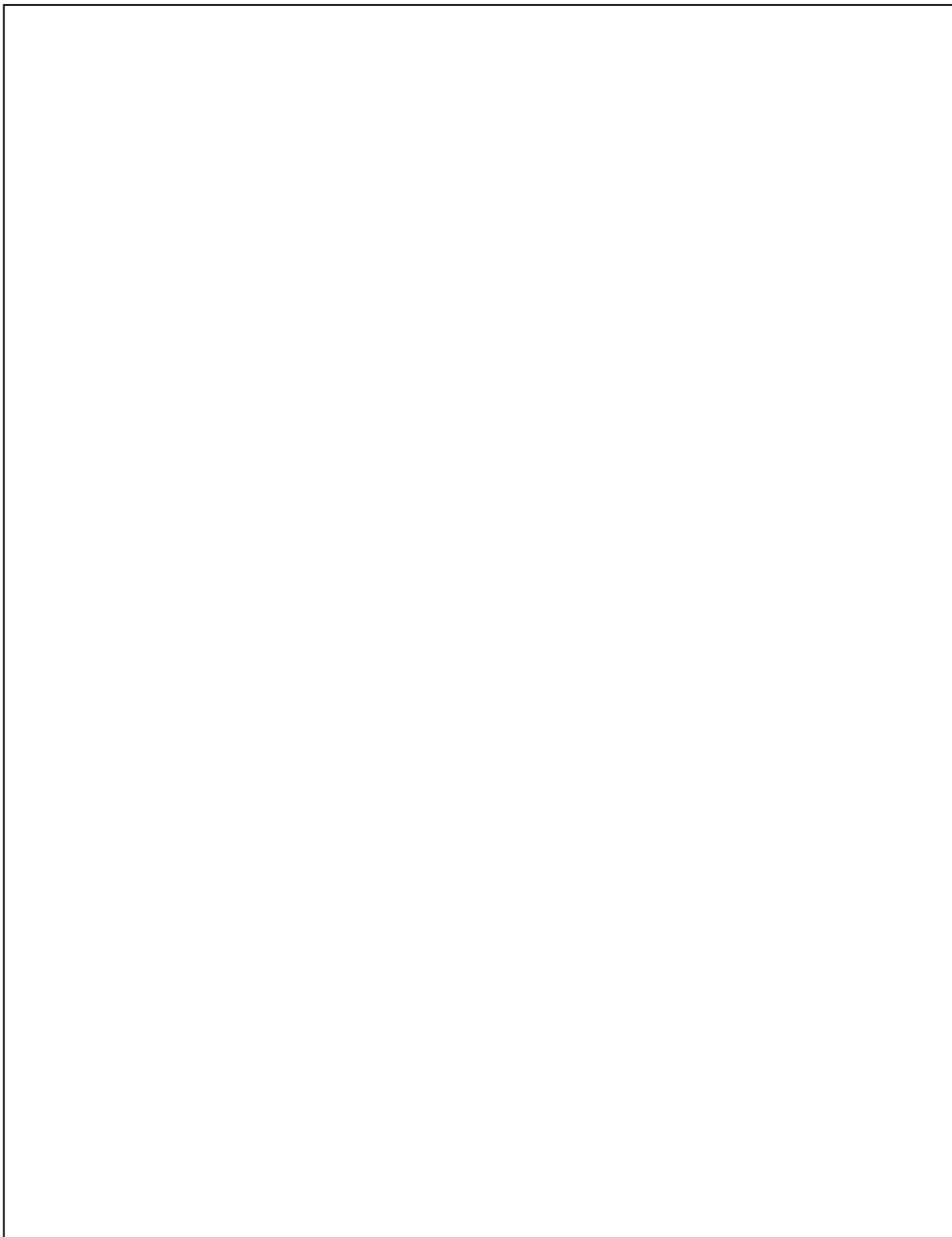
*ELP*

*Trabajo con toda la clase*

*Trabajo en grupos*

*Trabajo en parejas*

*Trabajo autónomo*



## **5) MATERIALES Y RECURSOS**

¿Qué materiales y recursos empleáis en su clase?

**EJEMPLOS:** *Materiales auténticos*

*Materiales adaptados*

*Materiales originales*

*Software específico*

*Recursos online*

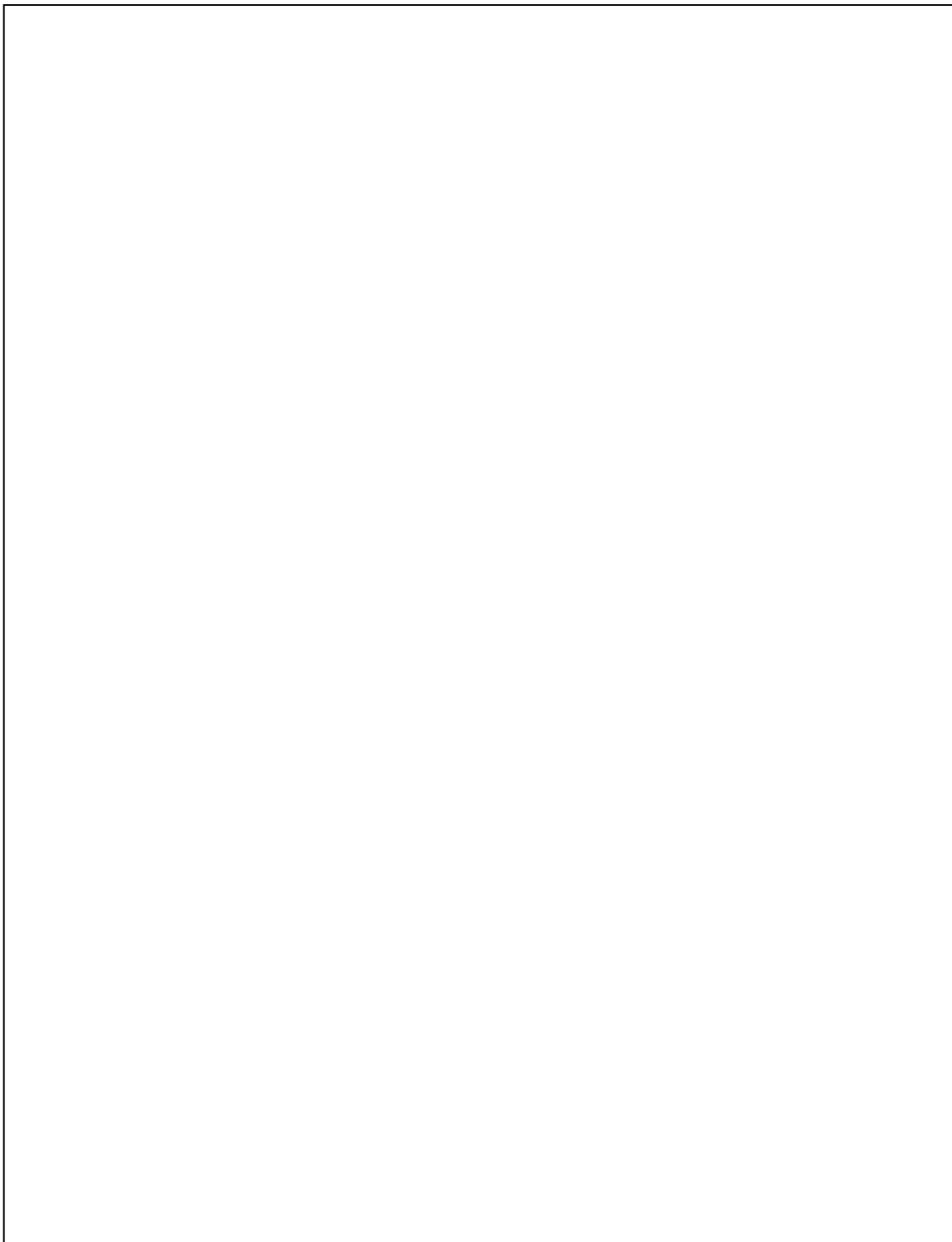
*Blogs*

*Wikis*

*Webquests*

*Pizarra electrónica*

*e-Twinning*



**6) COORDINACIÓN Y ORGANIZACIÓN**

¿Existe suficiente comunicación y coordinación entre tus profesores?

## **7) EVALUACIÓN**

¿Cómo realiza la evaluación en clase? ¿Qué instrumentos se utiliza?

**EJEMPLOS:** *De forma holística / formativa /sumativa /diversificada*

*Primando contenido/lengua*

*Con énfasis en los aspectos orales/escritos*

**8) FORMACIÓN DEL PROFESORADO Y MOVILIDAD**

¿Considera que tus profesores tienen suficiente formación para participar en un programa bilingüe?

¿Has participado en algún programa de intercambio? Si es así, ¿te resultó beneficioso?

¿Te ha animado tu familia a que participes en ellos?

**9) MOTIVACIÓN Y CARGA DE TRABAJO**

¿Consideras que participar en un programa bilingüe ha incrementado tu carga de trabajo?  
¿Ha merecido la pena? ¿Estás más motivado?

**10) VALORACIÓN GLOBAL**

¿Cuáles son las principales dificultades que has encontrado al participar en un programa bilingüe?

¿Y las principales ventajas?

¿Cómo lo valoras de modo global?

A large, empty rectangular box with a thin black border, intended for the student to write their responses to the questions above. It occupies the majority of the page's vertical space.

APPENDIX VIII  
TEACHER INTERVIEW



**Proyecto MON-CLIL: Los Efectos del Aprendizaje Integrado de Contenidos y Lenguas Extranjeras en Comunidades Monolingües: Un Estudio Longitudinal**

**Protocolo de entrevistas**

**PROFESORADO**

1. CENTRO: \_\_\_\_\_
2. CURSO:  6º EP  4º ESO
3. ASIGNATURA: \_\_\_\_\_
4. TIPO DE PROFESORADO:
  - Lengua extranjera
  - Área no lingüística
  - Auxiliar lingüístico
5. ¿ES COORDINADOR/A DE SU SECCIÓN BILINGÜE?  Sí  No
6. EDAD: \_\_\_\_\_
7. SEXO:  Hombre  Mujer
8. NACIONALIDAD: \_\_\_\_\_
9. SITUACIÓN ADMINISTRATIVA:
  - Funcionario/a con destino definitivo
  - Funcionario/a con destino provisional
  - Interino/a
  - Otro: \_\_\_\_\_
10. SU NIVEL EN LA LENGUA EXTRANJERA QUE ENSEÑA ES:
  - A1
  - A2
  - B1
  - B2
  - C1
  - C2
11. EXPERIENCIA DOCENTE GENERAL:
  - Menos de 1 año
  - 1-10 años
  - 11-20 años
  - 21-30 años
  - Más de 30 años
12. EXPERIENCIA DOCENTE EN UN CENTRO BILINGÜE:
  - Menos de 1 año
  - 1-5 años
  - 6-10 años
  - 11-15 años
  - Más de 15 años

**1) USO DE LA L2 EN CLASE**

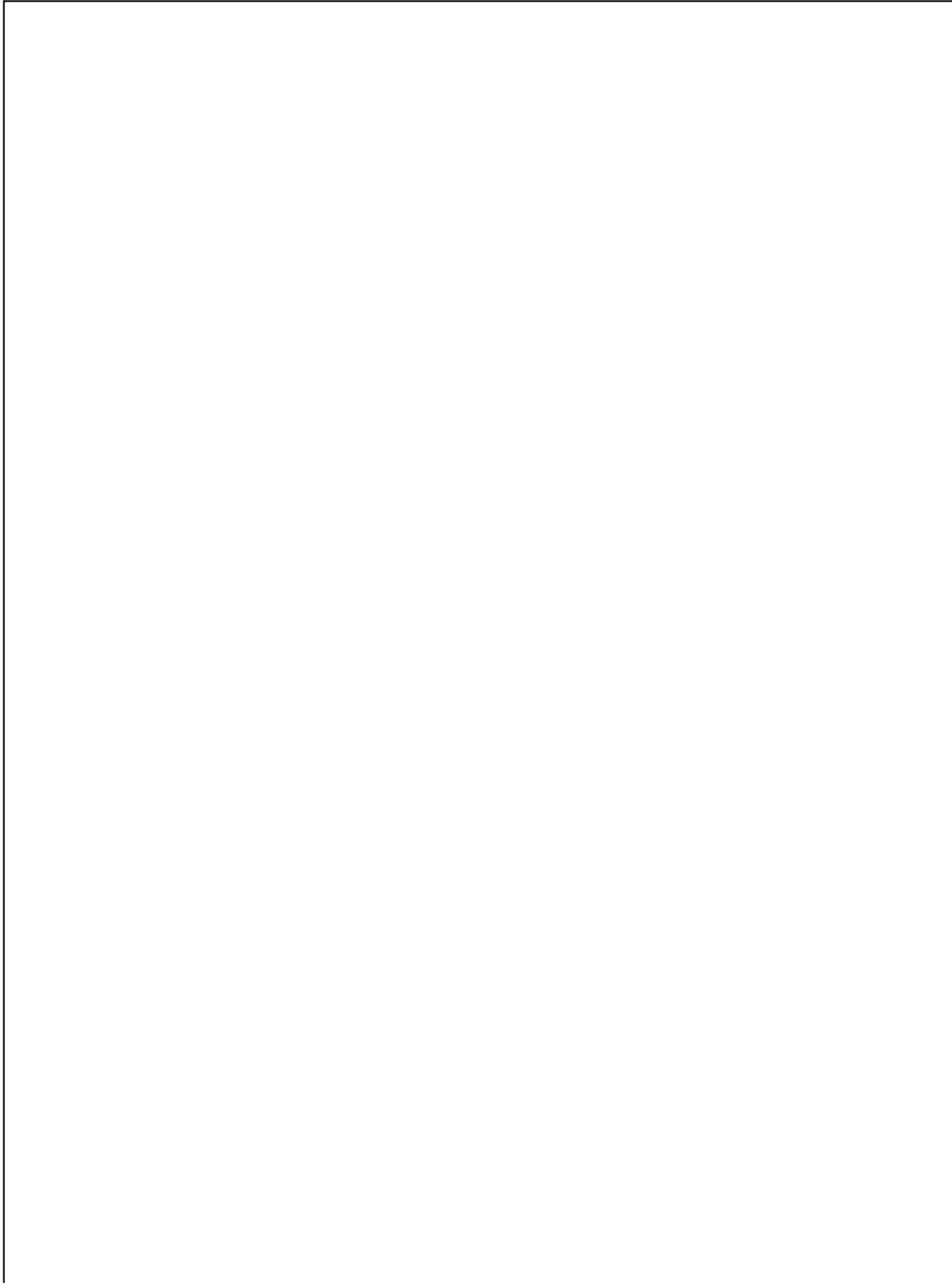
¿Considera que su nivel de inglés es adecuado para participar en el programa bilingüe?

¿En qué porcentaje diría que utiliza usted el inglés en clase?

¿Considera que el inglés de sus alumnos ha mejorado como consecuencia de su participación en el programa bilingüe?

¿Considera que el conocimiento por parte de sus alumnos de los contenidos de las asignaturas enseñadas en inglés ha mejorado debido a su participación en un programa bilingüe?

¿Considera que sus alumnos son participativos en clase y utilizan el inglés para ello?



## **2) DESARROLLO DE LA L2 EN CLASE: FUNCIONES DISCURSIVAS**

¿Para qué funciones discursivas utiliza el inglés en clase: *transmisivas* o *interaccionales*?

**EJEMPLOS:** *Dar instrucciones*

*Introducir el tema*

*Transmitir contenidos*

*Realizar actividades*

*Aclarar dudas y explicar dificultades*

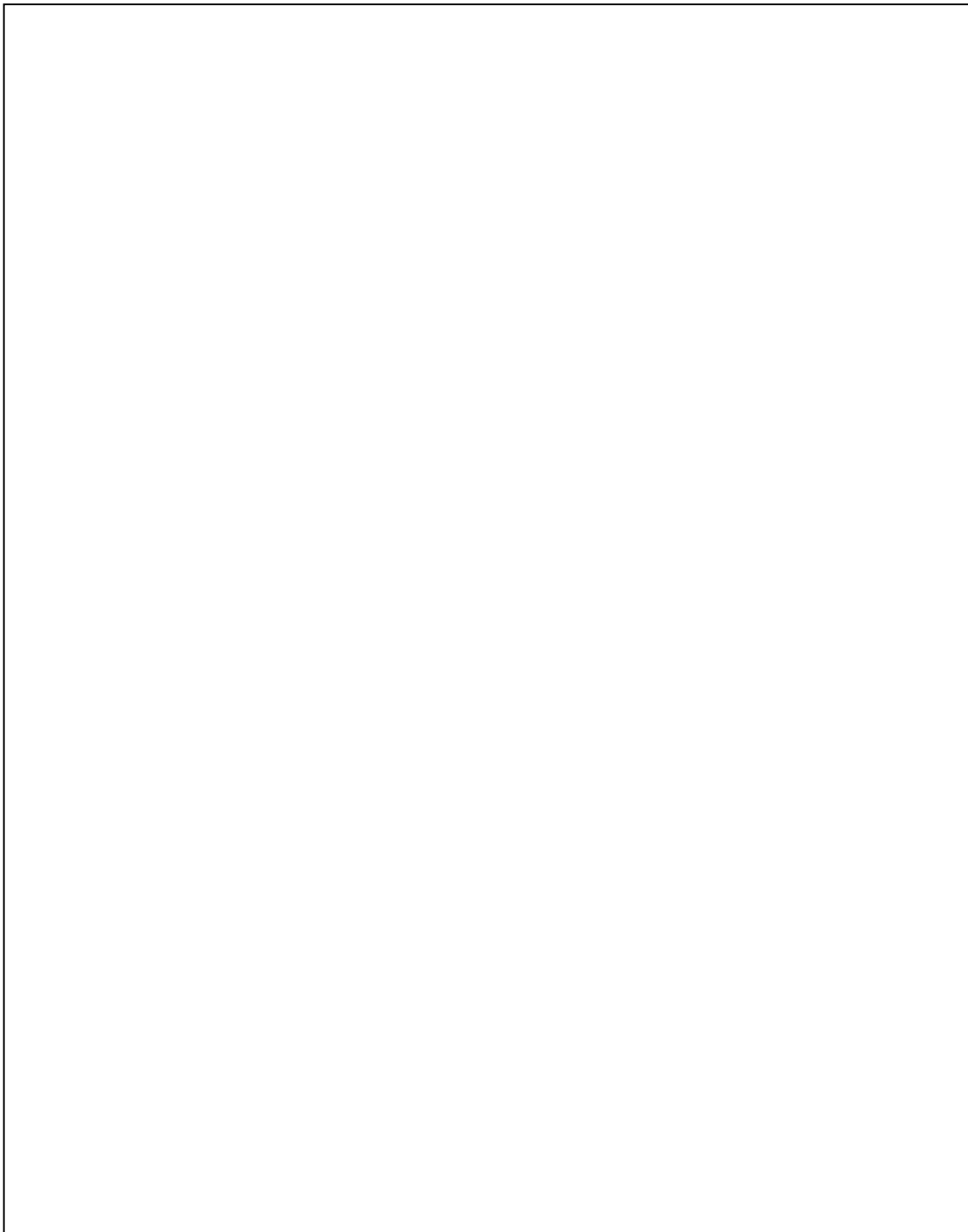
*Corregir tareas*

*Consolidar y repasar conocimientos*

*Organizar la clase con distintos tipos de agrupamiento*

*Interactuar con el alumnado/profesorado*

*Aplicar y transferir el conocimiento a otras situaciones*



### **3) DESARROLLO DE COMPETENCIAS EN CLASE**

¿Qué competencias-*lingüísticas, interculturales* y *genéricas*- considera que desarrolla en clase?

**EJEMPLOS:** *Comprensión oral*

*Comprensión escrita*

*Expresión oral*

*Expresión escrita*

*Capacidad crítica*

*Creatividad*

*Autonomía en el aprendizaje*

*Conciencia metalingüística*

*Conciencia intercultural*

A large empty rectangular box with a thin black border, intended for the student to write their answer to the question about classroom competencies.

#### **4) METODOLOGÍA Y TIPOS DE AGRUPAMIENTO**

¿Qué metodologías y tipos de agrupamiento emplea en clase? ¿Diría que son tradicionales o innovadores / basadas en el profesor o centradas en el alumno?

**EJEMPLOS:** *Aprendizaje basado en tareas*

*Aprendizaje basado en proyectos*

*Aprendizaje cooperativo*

*Enfoque léxico*

*CEFR*

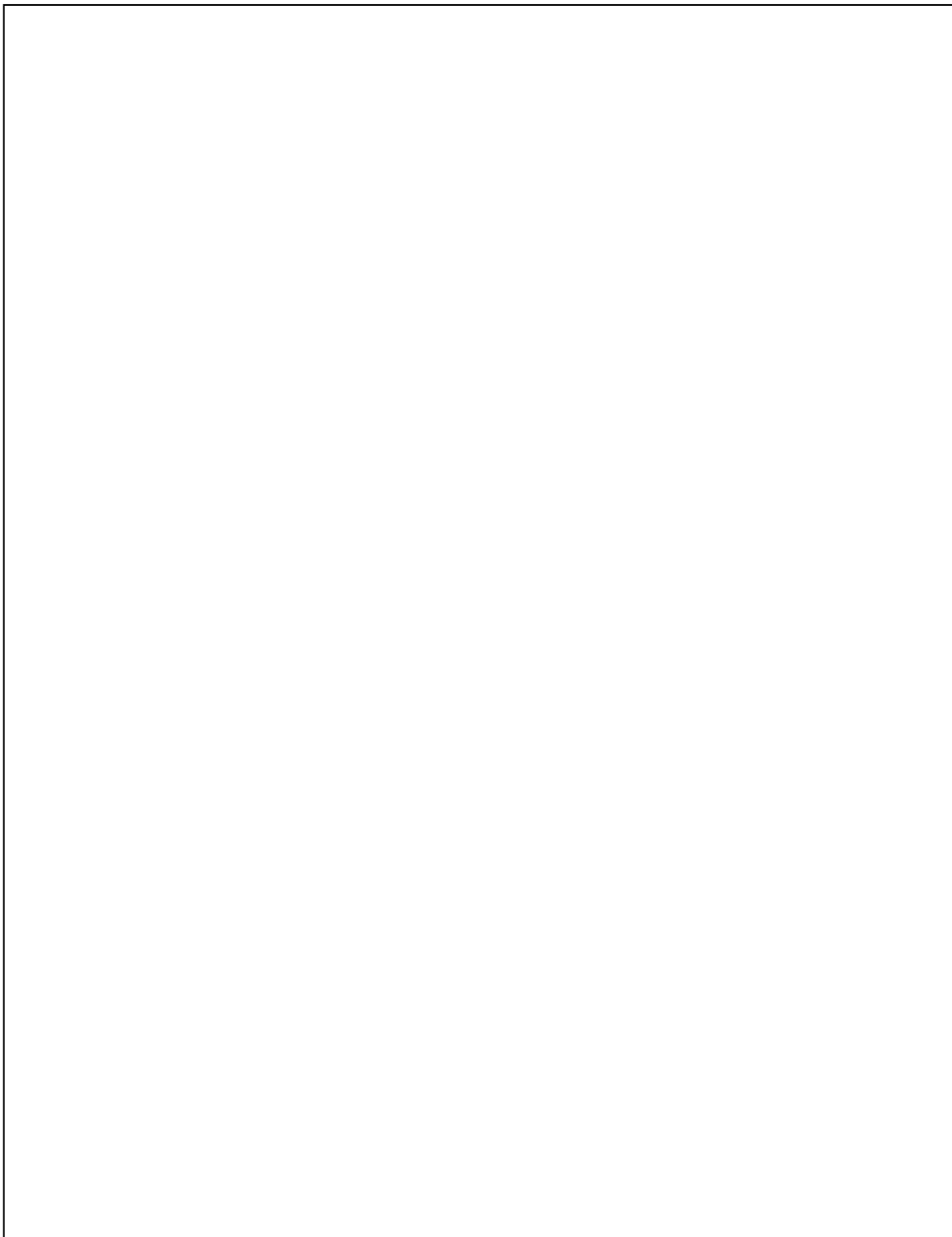
*ELP*

*Trabajo con toda la clase*

*Trabajo en grupos*

*Trabajo en parejas*

*Trabajo autónomo*

A large empty rectangular box with a thin black border, intended for the student to write their response to the question above.

## **5) MATERIALES Y RECURSOS**

¿Qué materiales y recursos emplea en su clase?

**EJEMPLOS:** *Materiales auténticos*

*Materiales adaptados*

*Materiales originales*

*Software específico*

*Recursos online*

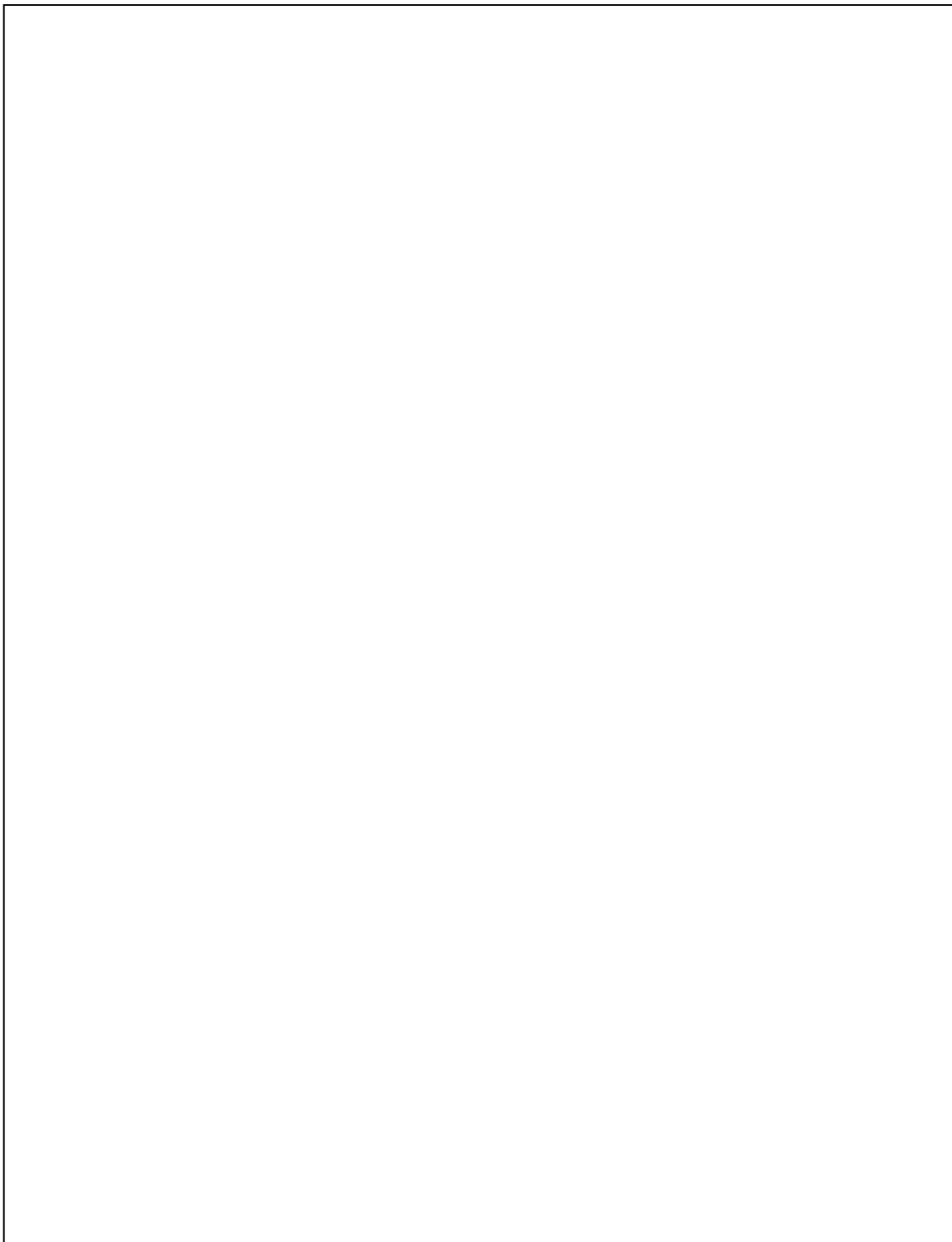
*Blogs*

*Wikis*

*Webquests*

*Pizarra electrónica*

*e-Twinning*



**6) COORDINACIÓN Y ORGANIZACIÓN**

¿Considera que está desarrollando el CIL?

¿Existe suficiente comunicación y coordinación entre el profesorado implicado en el programa bilingüe? ¿Y con el coordinador bilingüe?

¿Se recibe apoyo adecuado de las autoridades educativas?

## **7) EVALUACIÓN**

¿Cómo realiza la evaluación en su clase? ¿Qué instrumentos utiliza?

**EJEMPLOS:** *De forma holística / formativa /sumativa /diversificada*

*Primando contenido/lengua*

*Con énfasis en los aspectos orales/escritos*

## **8) FORMACIÓN DEL PROFESORADO Y MOVILIDAD**

¿Considera que su formación es adecuada para participar en un programa bilingüe?

¿En qué iniciativas de formación / movilidad ha participado?

¿En cuáles cree que le sería beneficioso participar?

**EJEMPLOS:** *Curso lingüísticos*

*Cursos metodológicos*

*Programas de intercambio*

*Licencias de estudio/investigación*

¿En qué aspectos del AICLE cree que requiere más formación?

**EJEMPLOS:** *Bases teóricas del AICLE*

*Plan de Fomento del Plurilingüismo*

*Aspectos lingüísticos*

*Aspectos interculturales*

*Metodologías centradas en el estudiante*

*Uso de las TIC*

*Investigación en el aula*

*Investigación sobre los efectos del AICLE*

**9) MOTIVACIÓN Y CARGA DE TRABAJO**

¿Considera que participar en un programa bilingüe ha incrementado su carga de trabajo?

¿Ha merecido la pena? ¿Está más motivado?

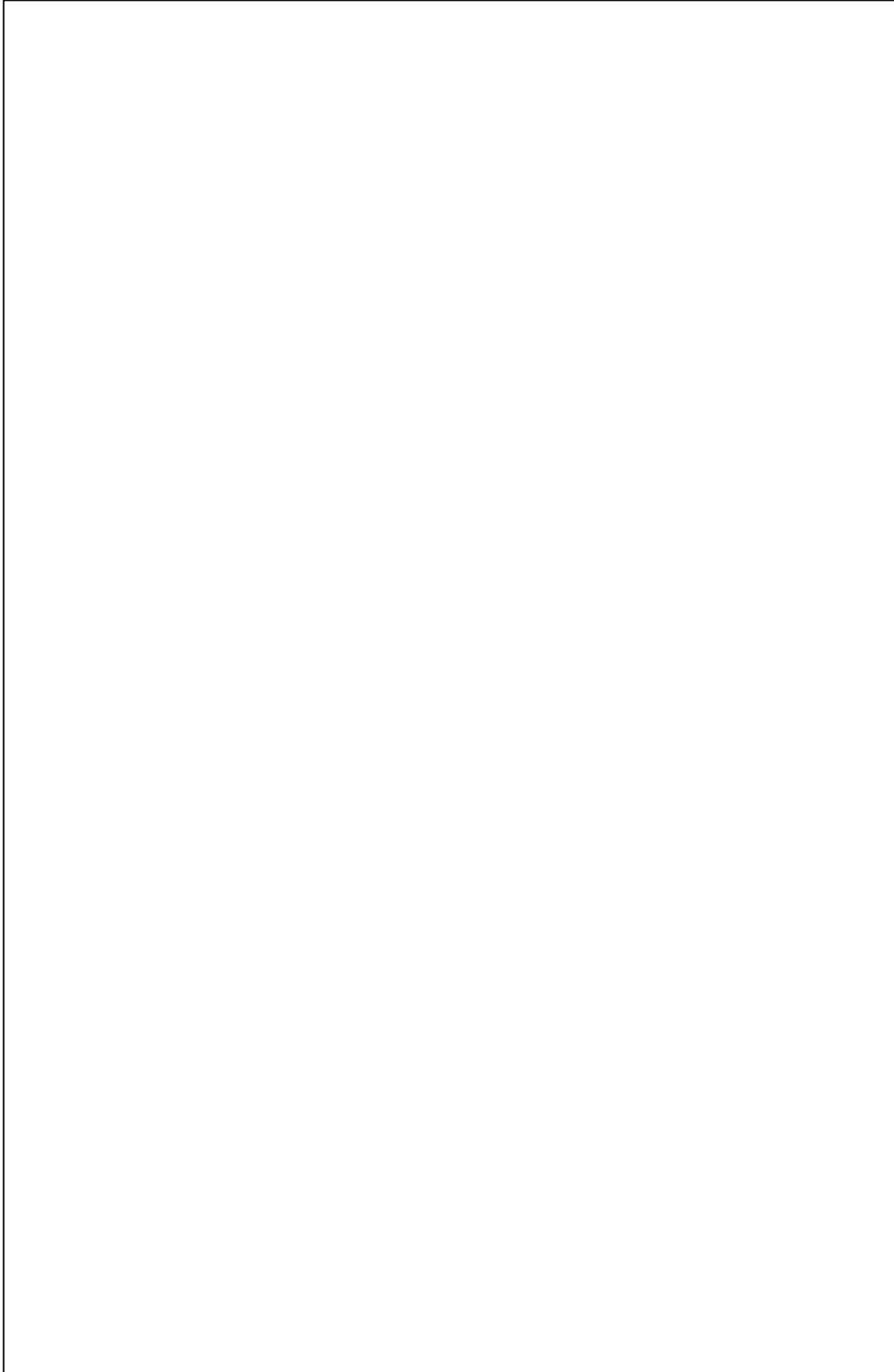
¿Considera que sus alumnos están más motivados como resultado de su participación en el programa bilingüe?

**10) VALORACIÓN GLOBAL**

¿Cuáles cree que son las principales dificultades en el correcto desarrollo del programa bilingüe en su centro?

¿Y sus principales fortalezas?

¿Cómo lo valora de modo global?

A large, empty rectangular box with a thin black border, intended for the respondent to write their answers to the questions above. It occupies the majority of the page's vertical space.



APPENDIX IX  
PARENT INTERVIEW





¿Considera que la metodología empleada en clase fomenta la comprensión y expresión oral en inglés de su hijo/a?

¿Es capaz de ayudar a su hijo/a con los deberes de enseñanza bilingüe?

¿Tiene su hijo/a exposición al inglés fuera del centro? ¿De qué fuentes?

**EJEMPLOS:**

*Libros*

*Revistas*

*Periódicos*

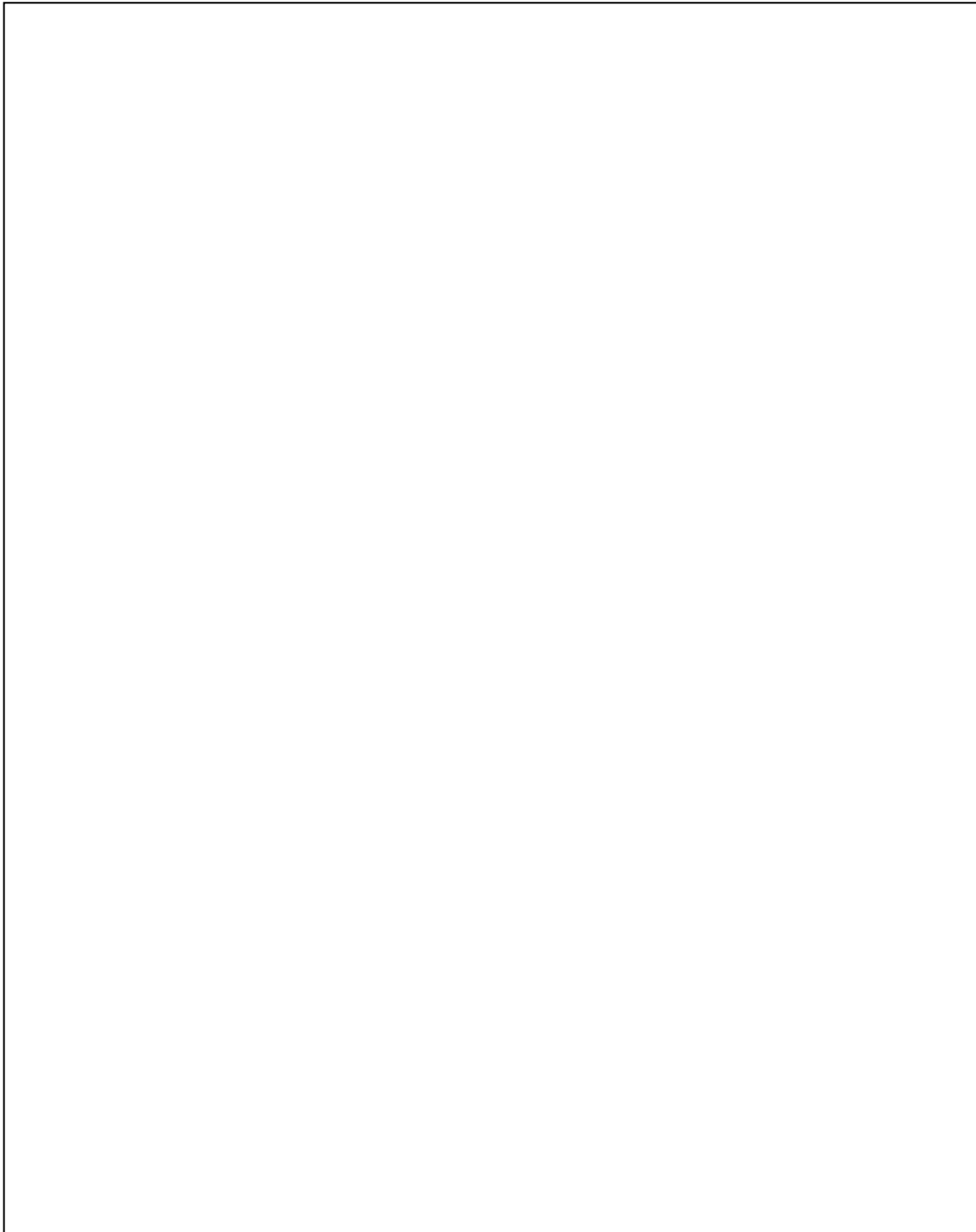
*Televisión*

*Cine*

*Internet*

*Vídeouegos*

*Música*



¿Qué materiales y recursos emplea su hijo/a en clase? ¿Y en casa? ¿Considera que tiene acceso adecuado a ellos?

**EJEMPLOS:** *Materiales auténticos*

*Materiales adaptados*

*Materiales originales*

*Software específico*

*Recursos online*

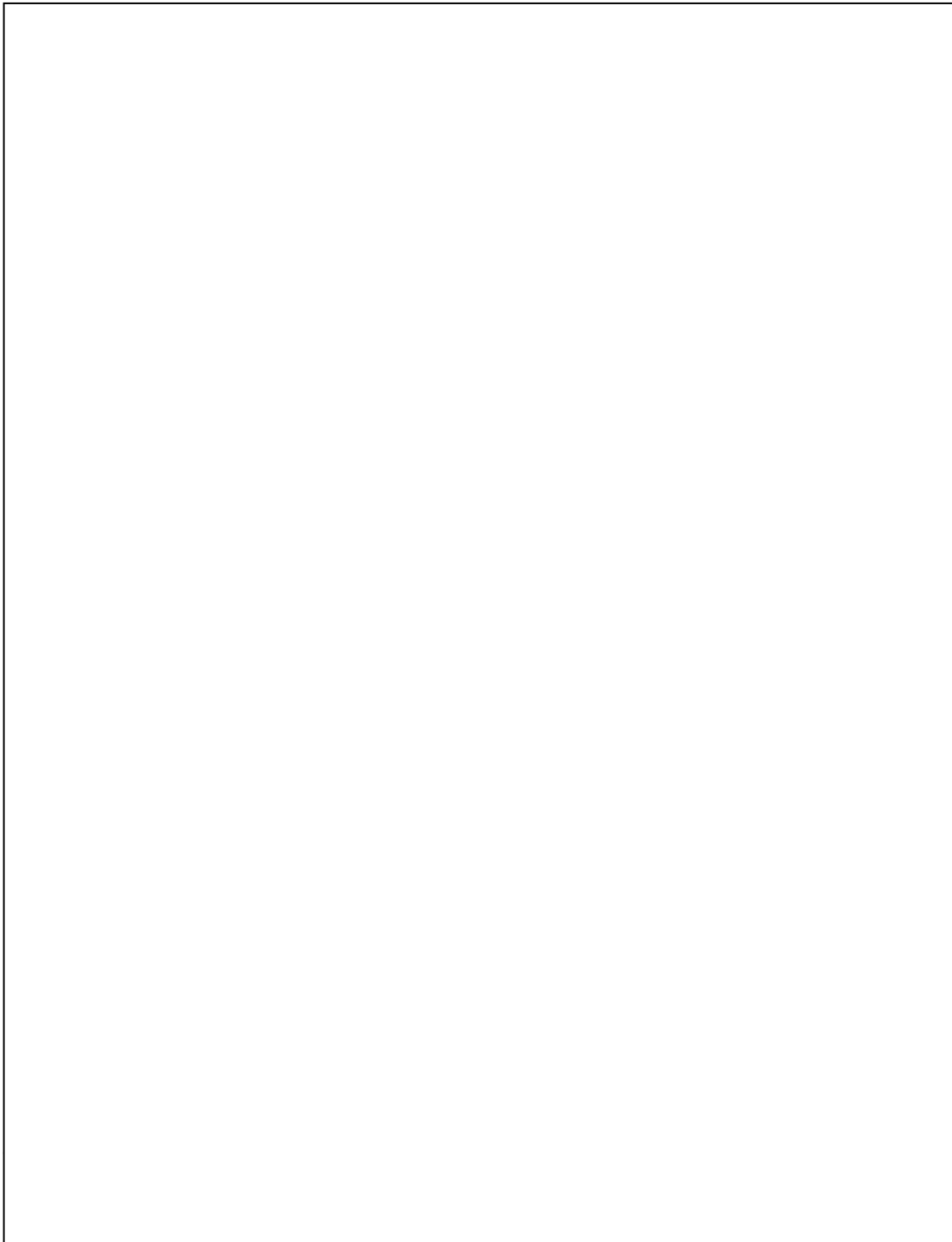
*Blogs*

*Wikis*

*Webquests*

*Pizarra electrónica*

*e-Twinning*

A large empty rectangular box with a thin black border, intended for the user to write their response to the question above.

¿Existe suficiente comunicación y coordinación entre los profesores de su hijo/a?

¿Tienen los profesores de su hijo una formación adecuada para participar en un programa bilingüe?

¿Considera la evaluación en los programas bilingües adecuada? ¿Cómo la caracterizaría?

**EJEMPLOS:** *Holística / formativa /sumativa /diversificada*

*Primando contenido/lengua*

*Con énfasis en los aspectos orales/escritos*

**6) MOVILIDAD**

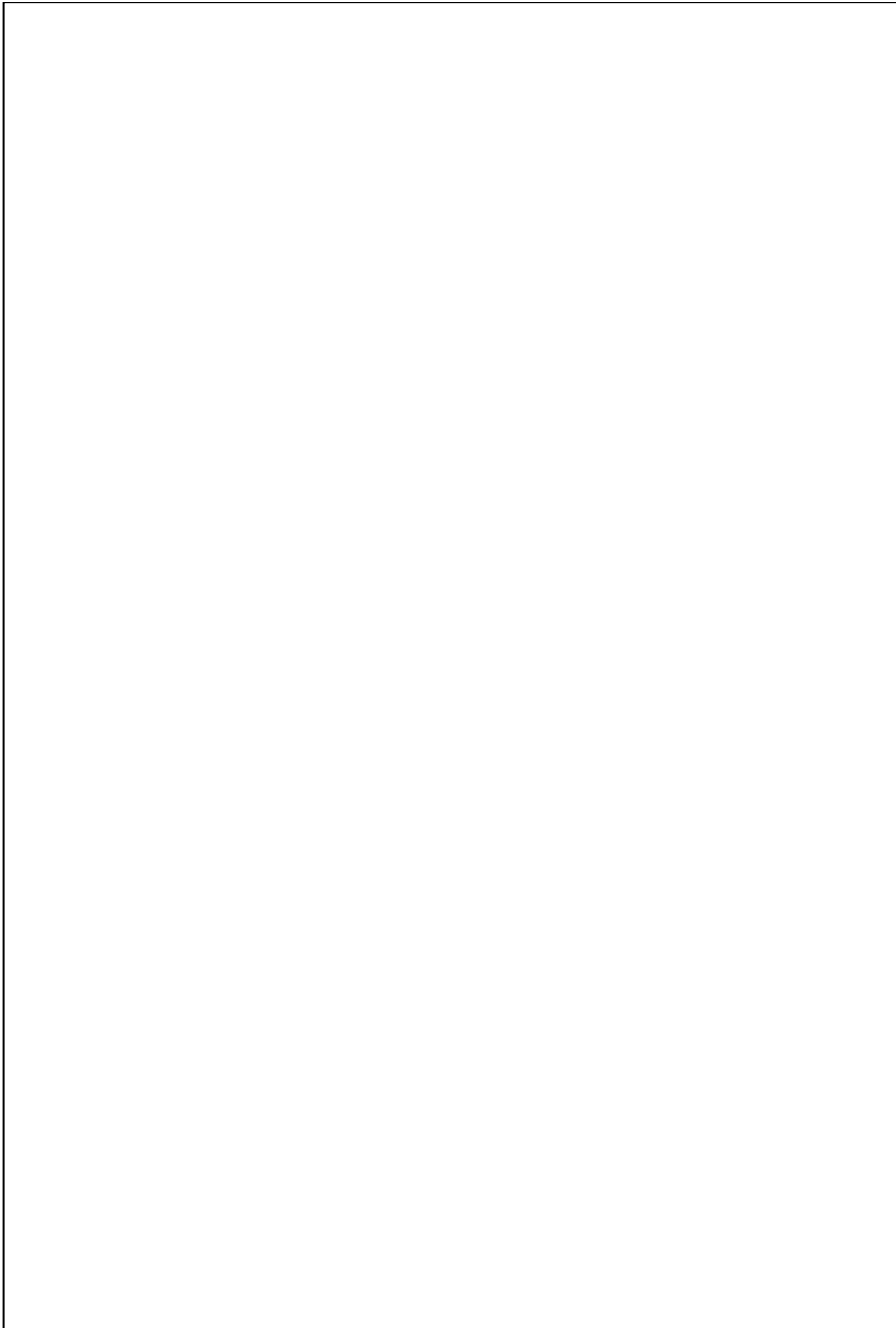
¿Ha participado su hijo/a en algún programa de intercambio? Si es así, ¿le resultó beneficioso?  
Si no es así, ¿cree que el resultaría beneficioso?

¿Le han animado sus profesores a que participe en ellos? ¿Y ustedes?

**7) MOTIVACIÓN Y CARGA DE TRABAJO**

¿Considera que participar en un programa bilingüe ha incrementado tu carga de trabajo de su hijo/a?

¿Ha merecido la pena? ¿Está más motivado?

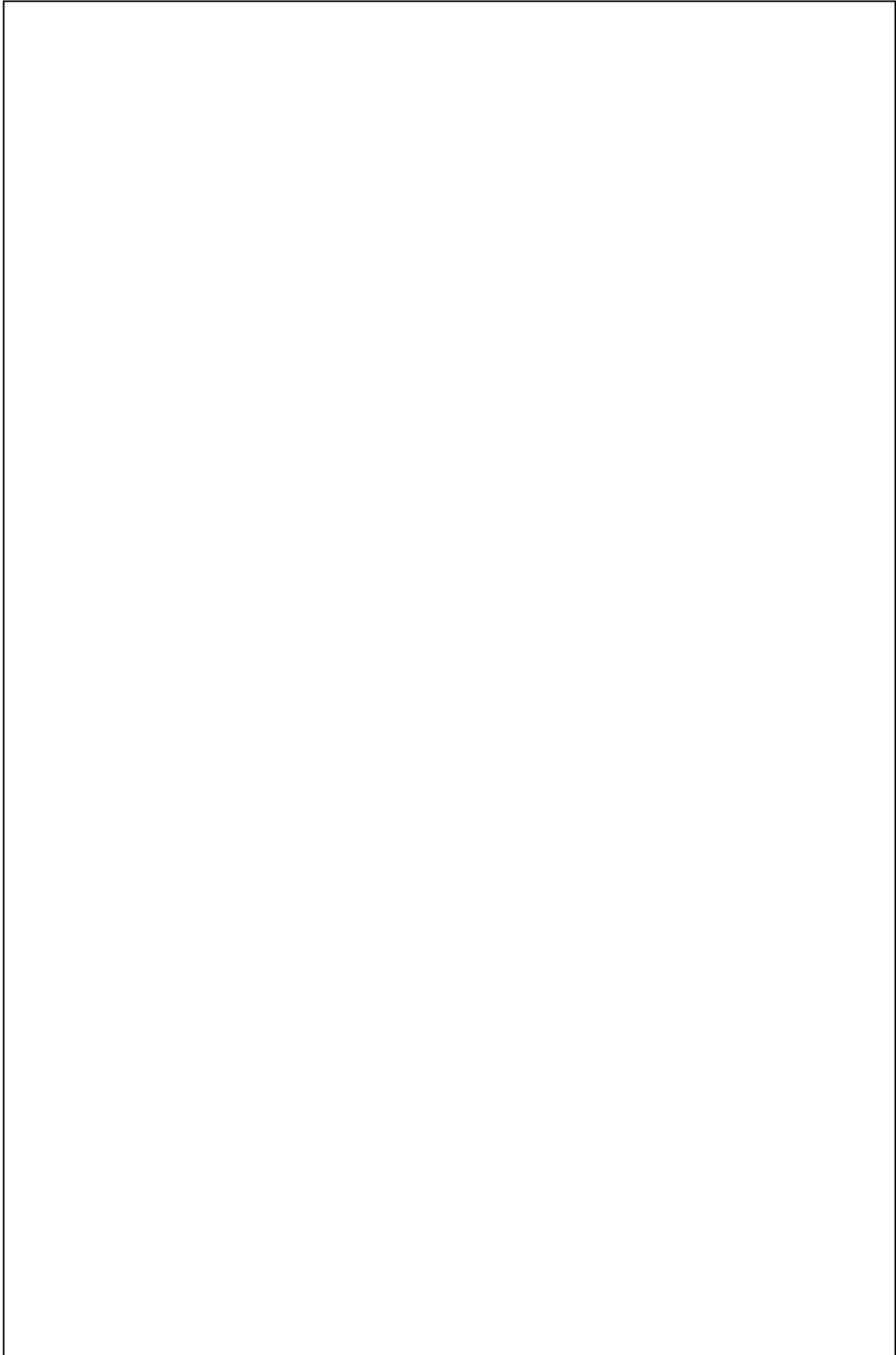
A large, empty rectangular box with a thin black border, intended for the respondent to provide their answers to the questions above. The box is oriented vertically and occupies most of the lower half of the page.

**8) CONOCIMIENTO DE LOS PROGRAMAS BILINGÜES**

¿Conoce usted el funcionamiento del programa bilingüe en el centro de su hijo/a?

¿Conoce usted las características del AICLE?

¿Está familiarizado/a con el Plan de Fomento del Plurilingüismo?



**9) VALORACIÓN GLOBAL**

¿Cuáles considera que son las principales dificultades de participar en un programa bilingüe?

¿Y las principales ventajas?

¿Cómo lo valora de modo global?