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**The effects of CLIL on L1, L2, and subject content:
A quantitative and qualitative investigation**

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CHAPTER I:

INTRODUCTION

Helping students master several languages apart from their mother tongue (MT) has become an important need within the European continent, where, in the last decades, many changes related to economy, technology and politics have also been reflected in education. As Coyle, Hood and Marsh (2010, p. 2) document, “globalisation and the forces of economic and social convergence have had an important impact on who learns which language, at what stage in their development and in which way”. Linguistic diversity is now part of our DNA (Pascual Bajo, 2018, p. 3), although the coexistence of this variety of languages is not only an advantage, but also a challenge for Europe (Eurydice, 2017, p. 9).

Our society, characterised by the emergence of new technologies and the phenomenon of globalisation, has witnessed the emergence of Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL), considering it as an innovative form of education in response to the demands and expectations of the modern age. However, this “promising pedagogic approach which appeared on the European scene with the main objective of restructuring foreign language (FL) learning strategies” (Pascual Bajo, 2018, p. 4), cannot merely be seen as a convenient answer to the challenges posed by globalisation; rather, it is a solution which is timely and in harmony with broader social perspectives. (Coyle, Hood and Marsh, 2010, p. 5).

The generic term CLIL, coined by David Marsh in 1994, is used to describe a new language learning approach in which students are not only taught a foreign language but also the subject content related to a particular area of the curriculum. Following this idea, Mehisto, Marsh and Frigols (2008, p. 9) define CLIL as “a dual focused educational approach in which an additional language is used for the learning and teaching of both content and language”. In other words, the target language is used as a means to a particular end: the acquisition of knowledge and skills in a non-linguistic area (Pascual Bajo, 2018, p. 3).

Although CLIL has as its principal antecessors Canadian Immersion and Bilingual Programmes in North America, it is being used in Europe in order to increase cohesion

within the continent as well as competitiveness. Our country has also been taking advantage of this methodology, particularly since the European Commission's Eurobarometer (2006) situated Spain at "the bottom rung of the foreign language knowledge ladder" (Lasagabaster and Sierra, 2009, p. 7). These two authors also worryingly reveal that 54% of the Spanish citizens admit to being unable to speak any other language other than their mother tongue and just 18% can hold a conversation in another language.

This situation clashes directly with the principal aim pursued by the *White Paper on Teaching and Learning: Towards a Learning Society*, published in 1995. According to it, the foreign language proficiency of European citizens must be improved in order for them to meet the so-called "mother tongue + 2 objective" (Pérez Cañado, 2018a, p. 52), by means of which they should become proficient in their mother tongue and in two foreign languages at least (European Commission, 1995). Moreover, concrete policies have been set in place in Spain, as well as in each autonomous community in order to foster foreign language learning. The Spanish Organic Law of Education (2006) and the Organic Law for the Improvement of Quality Standards (2013) have as one of their main objectives to improve students' level of knowledge of a foreign language, as well as to increase international mobility and cooperate with Europe to attain it. As for the Andalusian Community, which is the one in which we are more interested, The Andalusian Plan for Promotion of Plurilingualism (APPP), approved in 2005, must be highlighted. This language policy claimed that "we all must consider the educational challenge of knowing other languages within the framework of a globalised world, as a fundamental tool that ensure the possibilities of success and sharing a better future". A re-visioning of this initial programme and a realignment of its core objectives has been favoured by the PEDLA (The Strategic Plan for the Development of Languages), a second policy which was published in February 2017, taking into account the more updated Andalusian linguistic scenario.

Hence, after almost two decades since the appearance of Content and Language Integrated Learning in Europe, this "major trend" (Fernández Sanjurjo, Fernández Costales and Arias Blanco, 2019, p. 661) has been implemented in all the educational settings throughout the continent (Huttner and Smith, 2014, p. 160) and, with the support of many European Union (EU) institutions, it has been embraced enthusiastically by all the stakeholders (Lasagabaster and Doiz, 2016, p. 1) "as a lever for change and success

in language learning” (Pérez Cañado and Ráez Padilla, 2015, p. 1), becoming “a well-established part of education systems across Europe” (Surmont, Struys, Van den Noort and Van de Craen, 2016, p. 320).

As a consequence of this widespread implementation of CLIL, the research into the effects this methodology is having on students and their skills has also increased. As Jäppinen (2005, p. 149) underscores, CLIL has become “an extremely prolific phenomenon”, making foreign language learning more naturalistic (Nieto Moreno de Diezmas, 2016, p. 81) and demonstrating that nowadays “multilingualism is the norm while monolingualism is the exception” (Ouazizi, 2016, p. 113). However, in spite of the great amount of publications on the effects of CLIL, some of the already existing studies present a series of methodological shortcomings which might endanger the validity of the results obtained (Bruton, 2011a, 2011b, 2013, 2015; Paran, 2013; Pérez Cañado, 2011, 2012). These lacunae, classified by Pérez Cañado and Ráez Padilla (2015) in terms of *variables, research design, and statistical methodology*, make us recognise that “we simply do not have enough evidence” (Paran, 2013, p. 331) and that there is still “a need for unbiased, unskewed and methodologically sound research to continue driving the CLIL agenda forward” (Pérez Cañado and Lancaster, 2017, p. 301).

In fact, our study is rooted in the necessity of analysing how CLIL is being put into practice, the real effects it is having on all the agents involved and how the different stakeholders are experiencing its implementation. Hence, this longitudinal mixed-methods study seeks to provide new data on the effects of CLIL implementation in the community of Andalusia, more concretely in the province of Jaén, where little solid empirical research on the topic has been carried out to date. In reporting on our investigation, the present dissertation is organised into six chapters. After this initial introduction, *Chapter II* starts with a brief commentary on bilingual education models preceding CLIL, focusing then on Canadian Immersion and United States bilingual education, which may be considered the direct predecessors of CLIL as we know it today.

In *Chapter III*, we will analyse Content and Language Integrated Learning as a whole, and its role within the European continent. An overview of the main research studies developed within European countries will be offered. These relevant investigations and their main results will be classified in groups according to geographical proximity: Northern, Central, Eastern, Southern and Western Europe. A special emphasis will be

placed on the Spanish country and, particularly, on the Andalusian community, where our research has been carried out.

Chapter IV provides the justification of the study, inextricably linked to the investigations canvassed in the previous section. A detailed description of the context where our study has been developed, our sample, the variables incorporated and the instruments used is also outlined along with the objectives, which constitute the prime focus of this Thesis. To this end, the first objective we pursue is to measure the satisfaction generated by a particular CLIL programme among its stakeholders (students, teachers and parents), and to identify its weaknesses, strengths, opportunities and threats at all curricular and organisational levels (competencies, methods, materials and resources, evaluation, teacher training, mobility programmes, workload and coordination and organisation). Our second goal is to evaluate the impact of CLIL on the development of students' English linguistic competence by assessing their attainment in grammar, vocabulary, reading and listening (receptive skills) and speaking (productive skill). Lastly, our third goal is to consider the impact of CLIL on the L1 (Spanish language) and the content subject taught through the FL (Science). In the last part of the chapter, a discussion of both the qualitative and the quantitative data collection processes will be offered together with the statistical measures employed to analyse the data.

The final results will be commented on in *Chapter V*. Outcomes are discussed in detail, resorting to the analyses mentioned above and making reference to the studies presented in previous chapters. The qualitative part of the study offers a global analysis of stakeholder perceptions through the interpretation of questionnaires and interview findings before focusing on the specific results derived from across- and within- cohorts. In turn, the quantitative part of the investigation is divided into three different subsections. The first one deals with the effects of CLIL on the FL, discussed from three angles: the FL competence differential between the cohorts, the effect of the intervening variables and the durability of effects of the CLIL programme on FL competence. Then, subsections 5.2.3. and 5.2.4. examine the impact of CLIL on students' grades in Spanish and Science, while in subsection 5.2.5. a detailed discriminant analysis is used to closely examine the competence differential by quantifying the effects of the variables involved.

Finally, *Chapter VI* is devoted to the recapitulation of the principal findings in relation to each of the questions articulated in the research design section. Moreover, the limitations of the study and some suggestions for future research are included. A list of

appendices including the different instruments used for the collection of data has been incorporated at the end. We hope the findings of our research, despite its limitations, can contribute to providing useful empirical evidence on the effects of CLIL in a monolingual setting like the Andalusian region and to validating the participants' views on the programme.

CHAPTER II: LITERATURE REVIEW

CLIL ORIGINS AND CHARACTERISATION

2.1. Origins of CLIL: Language teaching approaches preceding CLIL

This section will deal with the different methodologies influencing the birth of Content and Language Integrated Learning, conceived as an exceedingly flexible term which encompasses over a dozen educational approaches (Mehisto, Marsh and Frigols, 2008). In this respect, Ruiz de Zarobe and Jiménez Catalán (2009, p. vii) claim that CLIL arose as a generic “umbrella” term used to describe different features attributable to diverse variants of bilingual education (BE). But, what is bilingual education? In the following subsections the key issues concerning bilingualism will be highlighted to focus afterwards on bilingual education models in Canada and North America.

2.1.1. Bilingual education, bilingualism and plurilingualism

As Baker (1988, p. 1) claims, “a simple statement about bilingualism [...] is as impossible as is prescribing one single food for human survival”. As a result, deciding exactly who is or is not bilingual is also problematic (Mackey, 1962; Skutnabb-Kangas, 1981; Baker, 1985 as cited in Baker 1988, p. 2). However, some categorisation of bilingualism is often necessary and helpful to better understand it. This categorisation does not include simple definitions like Bloomfield’s (1933 as cited in Baker, 1988, p. 15), who describes bilingualism as “native-like control of two languages”. These kinds of definitions are considered by Baker as being “arbitrary and ambiguous” (1988, p. 15), apart from being “too restrictive and failing to reflect the reality of language life in bilinguals” (Baker, 2004, p. 82).

A more general and open definition of bilingualism is offered by Lam (2001, p. 93), who considers bilingualism as the “phenomenon of competence and communication in two languages”. However, as Pascual Bajo (2018, p. 58) wonders: “how can we delimit what *competence* means or involves?”. On her behalf, Navés (2009, p. 4) 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”. Nevertheless, despite the multiple attempts to generalise the term *bilingualism*, this type of education is attached to different specific contexts. Depending on the area where bilingualism is implemented, it would be put into practice differently. This can be seen when the National Association of Bilingual Education (2004 as cited in Navés 2009, p. 24) refers to bilingual education in the US as “approaches in the classroom that use the native language of English language learners for instruction”.

Apart from these characterisations, some key aspects can be identified when defining bilingualism. Thus, if bilingualism is considered as a continuum of abilities, two types of bilinguals are typically distinguished: *balanced bilinguals*, who have the same competence in both languages and *dominant bilinguals*, who are more skilled in one of the two languages. According to their use, *coordinated bilinguals* can use both languages in the same situations, whereas *compound bilinguals* associate each language to a different context. Moreover, there are *early and late bilinguals*, depending on when they learn each language, and *simultaneous or consecutive bilinguals*, if both languages are acquired at the same time or one after another. Sociocultural factors are also important: in the process of becoming a bilingual, if the individual develops negative attitudes towards his/her mother tongue, we may speak of a *subtractive bilingual*. If those attitudes are positive, he/she is considered an *additive bilingual* (Tejada Molina, Pérez Cañado and Luque Agulló, 2005).

Thus, in spite of the difficulties found when trying to define bilingualism, it is clear that there are many common factors influencing the process of becoming a bilingual. These factors encompass the quantity and quality of the input received, the interactional style, the societal attitudes developed towards each language and the sociocultural context (San Isidro and Lasagabaster, 2018; Jarvis, 2015). Moreover, as San Isidro and Lasagabaster (2008) underscore, the acquisition of vocabulary, grammar, phonology, reading and speaking is also influenced by transfer from the L1 to the additional language, something which already appeared in the research projects conducted by Proctor et al. (2006), Harrison and Kroll (2007), McWhinney (2002), Lindsey, Manis and Bailey (2003), and Nakamoto, Lindsey and Manis (2008).

In the same vein, terms such as plurilingualism and translanguaging have also been coined to refer to “the dynamic nature of bilingual and multilingual cognitive processing” (Cummins, 2007, p. 112), which means that “the notion of languages seen as

separate compartments in the learners' minds is undoubtedly outdated" (Pascual Bajo, 2018, p. 58). In this respect, Jarvis (2015) claims that plurilingual students tend to develop a superior metalinguistic awareness, which allows them employ all their prior knowledge about a language to select the most suitable learning strategies when learning another language. That way, plurilingual students make use of a wider range of linguistic structures to avoid communication breakdown.

Now that the concept of bilingualism has been explained, and taking all the aforementioned factors into account, we are ready to distinguish two important models within bilingual programmes, which were developed in a different setting with distinctive characteristics.

2.1.2. Bilingual education in Canada

Canada can be considered one of the pioneers in implementing bilingualism within schools in the form of immersion programmes, defined by Genesee (1994, p. 1) as "the most interesting and effective innovation in second language education during the last three decades".

Firstly developed in the 1970s to provide English-speaking students with the opportunity to learn French (Richards and Rodgers, 2001, p. 206), immersion programmes started in Quebec, and since then, French immersion has become available in all provinces. Most programmes were developed as a consequence of the parental dissatisfaction with the traditional core French programmes and the desire to encourage bilingualism among their children (Canadian Council on Learning, 2007, p. 3), something that was required for high societal positions (Järvinen, 2006, as cited in Pascual Bajo, 2018, p. 60).

In origin, the objectives of these immersion programmes were for students to become competent in French and English and to appreciate the culture of French-speaking Canadians as well as English-speaking citizens (Baker, 1988, p. 239). Hence, children would become bilingual and bicultural without loss of achievement. More specifically, Baker (1988, p. 96) reviewed the general aims and methods of immersion education, which can be summarised as follows:

- Immersion education is optional; not obligatory.
- Most school subjects (or all) are taught in the L2.
- Using the L1 is allowed for up to one year and a half in the classroom and is not discouraged in other school areas.
- Teachers appear to be unable to speak the L1, although they are really bilingual.
- The same syllabus is experienced by immersion and non-immersion students.
- Communication in the classroom must be meaningful and authentic, focusing on content with an apparently incidental L2 learning.
- Comprehension skills are highlighted before production skills.
- Pupils begin the immersion programme with the same lack of competency in the L2.

In the legislative framework, the Official Language Act supports the immersion movement as well, recognising that English and French have the same status as official languages in Canada. It was passed on the recommendation of the Royal Commission on Bilingualism and Biculturalism and came into force on 7th September, 1969. After being amended in 1988, it continues being the fundamental law of Canada's official bilingualism since it encourages "a more general climate of respect and support for Canada's official languages in other jurisdictions and in Canadian society as a whole" (Beaty, 1989 as cited in Burnaby, 2008, p. 333).

Despite these general characteristics, there are several types of immersion programmes which differ in terms of two different variables. The first one refers to the age at which students are exposed to French instruction and the second makes reference to the intensity of French instruction, that is to say, the degree of exposure to French within the class. Hence, we can find early, middle or late immersion and total or partial immersion (Canadian Council on Learning, 2007, p. 4).

As for the immersion programmes based on age, it is worth mentioning that early immersion begins at the start of schooling in Kindergarten or Grade 1, while delayed immersion does not begin until the middle years of elementary school and late immersion, after that (Canadian Council on Learning, 2007, p. 4).

Looking at French immersion programmes based on the intensity of second language instruction, in total French immersion, all classes are taught in French, usually for the first three years of the programme. On the other hand, in partial French immersion

programmes, a varying proportion of classes are taught in French. This proportion is normally the same throughout the whole programme.

In order to find out if these approaches were effective, Baker reviewed them in 1988, concluding that immersion programmes did not have a negative influence on L1 or on content subjects taught through a L2. He also claimed that, although immersion programmes will not result in native-like bilingualism, students enrolled in this kind of programmes develop higher skills in the L2 than pupils following “drip-fed” or “core” programmes (Baker, 1988, p. 103, 104). Hence, as Genesee (1994, p. 2) stated, “second language instruction that is integrated with instruction in academic or other content matter is a more effective approach to teaching second languages than methods that teach the second language in isolation”. This quotation serves to confirm Krashen’s *Input Hypothesis* (1985), considered the basis in the theoretical background of immersion, as it sees rich comprehensible input as “the main requirement for language acquisition to occur” (Pascual Bajo, 2018, p. 63).

Among the studies carried out in order to analyse how immersion programmes are panning out in Canada, we can emphasise the one developed by Navés (2009, p. 2), who characterises this practice as “most highly acclaimed and extremely efficient and effective”. However, this author also claims that there are some uncertainties concerning the amount and quality of content, as well as the languages (L1 and L2) learnt within class. In turn, Genesee also affirms the benefits that Canadian immersion programmes have provoked in students and he says that as students are engaged within a meaningful context, the communicative function of language learning is promoted, increasing student motivation as well.

Despite these important strengths found in the development of Canadian immersion programmes, some researchers have focused on their weaknesses. Järvinen (2006) affirms that there is a lacuna in production skills and states that the L2 level reached by students is far away from that of a native-like proficiency. Moreover, Swain supports this idea by outlining four weaknesses attributable to these immersion programmes. She finds that immersion programmes do not focus on form; they are functionally constrained; they focus on meaning and propose a selective listening; and there is a lack of production skills on the part of the learner (Swain, 1990, p. 34 as cited in Muñoz, 2007, p. 22). In the *Output Hypothesis*, Swain emphasises the weaknesses of this teaching methodology

which provides students with input but does not encourage them to develop their verbal production.

As a conclusion, in spite of these negative aspects, immersion bilingual education spread rapidly in Canada (Rebuffot, 1993 as cited in Baker, 1988, p. 240). Moreover, 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” (Madrid and Hughes, 2011, p. 362). Thus, immersion education is a key to maintaining Canada’s bilingualism (Baker, 1988, p. 239) and this Canadian immersion experience has been “extremely influential for the European CLIL approach” (Pascual Bajo, 2018, p. 60).

2.1.3. US bilingual education

Apart from Canadian immersion programmes, alternative forms of bilingual education arose in the United States of America. These forms, typically encompassed within the term Content-based instruction (CBI), can be defined as a methodology implying the total integration of language and content learning, leaving the traditional English teaching methods aside and promoting the learning of language through the study of subject matter instead of focusing on the teaching and learning of language itself (Stryker, 1997, p. 5). Another definition for CBI is offered by Krahne, who considers it as the teaching of content or information in the language being learned with little or no direct or explicit effort to teach the language itself separately from the content being taught (1987, p. 65 as cited in Richards and Rodgers, 2001, p. 204).

Hence, this approach to second language learning organises teaching around the content or information that students have to acquire, rather than around a linguistic or other type of syllabus (Richards and Rodgers, 2001, p. 204). The focus is on the meaning of the content that is being taught and the foreign language is used as the medium of instruction, as the vehicle through which subject matter content is learned (Tejada Molina, Pérez Cañado and Luque Agulló, 2005). It is also worth mentioning that CBI “is commonly perceived as a flexible operational framework for language instruction with heterogeneity of prototype models and applications options available for different contexts and pedagogical needs” (Dueñas, 2004, p. 75).

Looking not only at the features of CBI but also at the context where it was born and at the moment where it was developed, it is necessary to start mentioning that, although Canadian and US bilingual programmes are considered to be the pillars for future bilingual approaches such as CLIL and they are normally analysed together, their remit is conspicuously different. While Canadian immersion's main aim was to strengthen the national unity by promoting a bilingual country, in North America, bilingual education was born to transform a multilingual society into a monolingual one, since there was a complete shift to American Nationalism between the two World Wars (Sánchez Torres, 2014).

As Baker (2011) points out, attitudes towards linguistic minorities changed in the early 20th century and diversity was negatively seen in the United States. Among the factors he mentions to explain this discouragement, the greater number of immigrants enrolled in public schools could be considered one of the most important ones. Hence, the 1906 National Act required immigrants to speak English to be naturalised as US citizens and, in 1919, all public and private schools were ordered to give only instruction in English at Elementary Level (Pascual Bajo, 2018, p. 66). Moreover, as President Roosevelt himself said, “it would be not merely a misfortune but a crime to perpetuate differences of language in this country (...)” (1917, p. 73).

Some years later, with the Civil Rights Movement, different points of view started to arise again concerning, among other issues, linguistic minorities. As a result, in 1963, bilingual education was reestablished in the US with the creation of the first modern school implementing a Two-way or *Dual Language Immersion* programme in South Florida (cf. Section 2.1.3.1.1.3). Furthermore, in 1968, the Bilingual Education Act was passed. This national policy would support transitional bilingual education for 34 years (Crawford, 2002). However, minorities' language was regarded simply as a tool to guarantee the transition to majority language education.

In 1970, after a legal claim by some Chinese students at the San Francisco School District in which they upheld that non-English speaking students did not have the same opportunities as native speakers in monolingual English classes, the Lau Remedies were published, considering English submersion programmes unlawful and catering for the necessities of all the students who were not proficient enough in English. However, a step back was taken by bilingualism in the US in the 1980s, as some movements against minority language education became popular. Among these programmes, *English First*

or *US English* must be emphasised. As Baker (1988, p. 81) mentions, there was a widespread view that bilingual education encouraged “separatism, divisions in society and minority group political and economic self-interest”. Consequently, proposals for the revision and implementation of the Lau Remedies were not accepted and there were also important funding cuts.

Another legal change took place in the 1990s, when some laws supporting Bilingualism were passed: *Goal 2000, Educate America Act* and *Improving America Act* (1994). Thus, there was a greater economic support for Two-way programmes. Nevertheless, the situation of bilingual education in the US was not still solid in the country and many politicians, the media and the general public showed their discomfort and openly criticised it. In fact, when *Proposition 227* (1998) in California was passed, it almost became extinct. Bilingual education was then substituted by *Structured English Immersion* (SEI) (cf. Section 2.1.3.1.2.2) or *Sheltered English Programmes* (cf. Section 2.1.3.1.2.3) (Sánchez Torres, 2014).

The federal legislation No Child left Behind (NCLB) appeared in 2001, with the objective of using English as the main language for instruction, considering Limited English Proficient (LEP) students a competency of their state, district and school. As a result, the country witnessed a deeper deterioration of bilingualism, since educational systems did not contemplate the development or maintenance of the students’ home language.

Nowadays, the situation of bilingual education in the United States continues being weak, as foreign language instruction is still not compulsory. According to Pascual Bajo (2018, p. 68), “this country has been more concerned with the influx of non-English speaking immigrants and the assimilation of their children into an English-only educational system than with the promotion of true bilingualism”, that is to say, most bilingual education programmes in the US have aimed at dealing with the special needs of LEP students instead of promoting foreign language skills in the English natives. Therefore, it is evident that bilingualism has suffered from constant ups and downs throughout its history.

On the one hand, CBI has been greatly acclaimed by some researchers and numerous assets have been associated to it. Among them, we can emphasise that it can be applied in different teaching contexts as it promotes language development in a more natural way.

Moreover, it provides input that is just above the students' current level of competence within a meaningful context, which leads to deeper processing and to a better learning in general. Furthermore, it lends itself to the incorporation of a variety of thinking skills and learning strategies which favour language development (Crandall, 1994; Richards and Rodgers, 2001; Madrid Fernández and García Sánchez, 2001; Troncale, 2002; Kavaliauskiene, 2004 as cited in Tejada Molina, Pérez Cañado and Luque Agulló, 2005).

However, in spite of these assets, CBI also presents some problematic aspects or shortcomings, having to do with students' feeling confused, overwhelmed or even frustrated because of the great cognitive challenge posed by CBI. Apart from the problems related to students, in the case of teachers, they need not only to master the target language but also the subject matter content. Higher levels of collaboration and coordination between L1, content teachers and target language content-based programme teachers are essential. Little material adapted to the students' level is available on the market and, also, assessment is more difficult because subject matter and language skills must be taken into account (Richards and Rodgers, 2001; Amaya, 2001; Troncale, 2002; Alameda Hernández, 2002; Kavaliauskiene, 2004 as cited in Tejada Molina, Pérez Cañado and Luque Agulló, 2005).

After this general introductory information, and in order to better understand what CBI is and how bilingual education has developed in the United States in the last few decades, a comprehensive classification of CBI models is going to be presented below. As Lancaster (2015, p. 13) points out, this wide classification describes different methods ranging from those that are least supportive concerning the limited-English proficient learners' needs, to examples of CBI taking a more active role in helping English language learners with integration difficulties to maintain native language proficiency simultaneously.

2.1.3.1. CBI taxonomy

Since the appearance of Content-based instruction, professionals in different instructional settings have developed approaches to it which emphasise the multiple benefits of integrating language and content for second language students. These approaches vary depending on the context where they are implemented, the different

perspectives on how to integrate content and language, and other dissimilarities. In spite of these differences, all these methods are based on the idea of using “language as a medium of learning content, and content as a resource to learn language” (Stoller and Grabe, 1997a, p. 1).

The same idea was maintained by St. Augustine in the Middle Ages. Although it was in the United States where CBI was especially developed, St Augustine is already considered to be an early proponent of language teaching through focus on meaningful context (Tejada Molina, Pérez Cañado and Luque Agulló, 2005). He said “we cannot hope to learn words we do not know unless we have grasped their meaning; this is not achieved by listening to the words, but by getting to know the things signified” (St. Augustine, 60, p. XI as cited in Kelly, 1969, p. 36).

In the following sections, a detailed taxonomy of the most important approaches to Content-based instruction is going to be presented. Although authors such as Brinton, Snow and Wesche (1989 as cited in Dueñas, 2003, p. 4) distinguish between what they call “strong” and “weak” forms of CBI, depending on whether the focus is on proficiency in the second language or on mastery of the subject matter, the classification presented below will be based on the procedure followed in each method. That is to say, we will distinguish between models that use and promote two languages and programmes in which one single language is used. Finally, the so called “language-driven methods” will be mentioned, as well as the most recent approaches to CBI.

2.1.3.1.1. Educational models that use and promote two languages

These models are those including training in the native language of the students. The usage of this first language varies in different degrees, depending on the level of the students and the context in which the programme is being implemented. Cabazon, Lambert and Nicoladis (1998) mention three models in which attention is not only paid to the foreign language, but also to the native language of English language learners.

2.1.3.1.1.1. *Maintenance bilingual education*

As Baker (2011, p. 207) claims, “Maintenance bilingual education attempts to foster the minority language in the child, and the associated culture and identity”. Hence, the

main purpose of this model is to guarantee students obtain bilingual academic competence in English, instructing them in the native language and English, in a continuous process (Horwitz, 2005).

Otheguy and Otto (1980 as cited in Baker, 2011, p. 207) distinguish between Static Maintenance and Developmental Maintenance. On the one hand, Static Maintenance aims to maintain language skills at the level of the child entering a school, while Developmental Maintenance seeks to develop a student's home language skills to full proficiency and full biliteracy. This model is also known as Enrichment bilingual education for language minority children.

Whereas Static Maintenance tries to prevent home language loss without increasing skills in the first language, Developmental Maintenance or Enrichment bilingual education aims to extend the individual and group use of minority languages, leading to cultural pluralism and linguistic diversity (Baker, 2011, p. 207).

2.1.3.1.1.2. Transitional bilingual education

Transitional bilingual education has been a frequent type of bilingual education in the United States, whose main aim is “assimilationist” (Baker, 2011, p. 215). In this model students are allowed to use their home language and they are taught briefly through their native language until they are thought to be proficient enough in the second/foreign language to cope in mainstream education. Transition to English-only classrooms is expected to occur in a limited number of years, usually no more than three, with successful English acquisition as an ultimate goal (Horwitz, 2005).

2.1.3.1.1.3. Two-way /Dual language bilingual education

Dual language or Two-way bilingual education in the United States typically occurs when there is the same number of language minority and language majority students. Thus, all students are put together in class and both languages are used for instruction (Baker, 2011, p. 222). There have been different terms used to describe the schools following this model: Two-way schools, two-way immersion, two-way bilingual education, dual language education, bilingual immersion, double immersion and interlocking education.

Regardless of the term used, the result of this method has been the same, that is to say, due to no segregation, speakers of minority languages are not exposed to a disadvantage and native English speakers benefit from learning a foreign language as well. Cabazon, Lambert and Nicoladis (1998, p. 3) claim that “research on the most effective forms of bilingual education [...] suggests that Two-way programmes may be the best”.

2.1.3.1.2. Monolingual education in a second language

In this section, those models whose focus is on students’ achievement of competence only in English will be expounded on. In these educational programmes, no attention is paid to the native language of the students and the classes foster the usage of English as the only language to understand the content of the curriculum.

2.1.3.1.2.1. *Submersion*

Baker defines Submersion education as “a label to describe education for language minority children who are placed in mainstream education” (2011, p. 211). Thus, by using this term, we are referring to language learning programmes in which students whose proficiency in English is limited are placed in ordinary classrooms in which English is the only language of instruction. They are given no special attention and they are expected to compete with native English speakers.

This kind of programme is also called “sink or swim” method in which ELLs are subject to instruction organised for native-speaking students (Horwitz, 2005). Based on this nomenclature, Baker makes a parallelism with the class and a swimming pool and claims that “language minority students are thrown into the deep end and expected to learn to swim as quickly as possible without the help of floats or special swimming lessons. The language of the pool will be the majority language. [...] Students will sink, struggle or swim” (2011, p. 211).

2.1.3.1.2.2. *Structured Immersion Programmes (SEI)*

Baker, who coined this language learning model together with Adriana de Kanter in 1983, defines SEI programmes as those in which English is used and taught at a level

appropriate to the class of English learners (1998, p. 200). Both authors recommended that schools teaching English to students with limited proficiency try the impressive Canadian Immersion method of teaching second languages (Baker, 1998, p. 199).

Ramírez and other colleagues conducted an important study on SEI and concluded that this model also presented two basic components. On the one hand, teachers in SEI are expected to maximise instruction in English and, on the other, teachers use and teach English at a level that is suitable for all learners within the class (Ramírez, Yuen and Ramey, 1991 as cited in Baker, 1998, p. 200). Moreover, 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).

2.1.3.1.2.3. Sheltered English programmes

Sheltered English instruction, also known as SDAIE (Specially Designed Academic Instruction in English), is an instructional approach aimed at increasing language proficiency through content-based teaching. Thus, “a Sheltered content-based course is taught in a second language by a content specialist to a group of learners who have been segregated or ‘sheltered’ from native speakers” (Brinton, Snow and Wesche, 1989, p. 15 as cited in Dueñas, 2003, p. 6).

In Sheltered English classes, teachers use clear, direct, simple English and a wide range of scaffolding strategies to communicate meaningful input in the content area to students. English language learners, 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).

The classes are commonly directed by a content instructor, not a language teacher. However, this instructor must be familiarised with the language taught and sensitised to the student’s language needs and abilities. Gaffield-Vile (1996 as cited in Dueñas, 2003, p. 6) claims that the instructor may be a language teacher with subject-matter knowledge, or an instructor working collaboratively with a language specialist and a content specialist.

Finally, it is worth mentioning the existence of the so-called Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol (SIOP), outlined by Gerdes in 2009, as a measurement tool created mainly to help in lesson planning.

2.1.3.1.2.4. Segregationist education

Segregationist language education is “a form of ‘minority language only education’ (Mangubhai, 2002; Skutnabb-Kangas, 1981, p. 2000 as cited in Baker, 2011, p. 215). Although this kind of bilingual education is very rare to occur, it happens when minority language speakers are denied access to those programmes or schools attended by majority language speakers. These programmes include situations such as educating colonial people only in their native language, especially to maintain subservience and segregation.

2.1.3.1.3. Language-driven bilingual education

Within this section, our main focus of attention will be those bilingual methods with language-orientated objectives (Dueñas, 2004). Two different approaches to language learning are included in this group.

2.1.3.1.3.1. Theme-based models

Theme-based courses are one of the most common models in Content-based instruction thanks to their relative lack of complexity for implementation (Dueñas, 2003, p. 3). Since the main objective of this class is students’ language acquisition, (Brinton, 2003, p. 203), the class is directed by a language teacher and not a subject specialist, who is responsible for teaching content.

The course is organised around different topics associated with a relevant general theme or content area. These themes have to be chosen to be appropriate to students’ interests and needs, educational aims and institutional demands and expectations (Dueñas, 2003, p. 3, 4).

2.1.3.1.3.2. Adjunct courses

Adjunct courses are typically used in the university context, although there have also been some examples of this model in Secondary Education. Different from Theme-based

models, Adjunct courses constitute a more sophisticated pattern for the integration of language and content and they need some kind of assistance to be implemented (Dueñas, 2003, p. 5).

These courses are offered to students who are simultaneously enrolled in the regular content course but who need some additional aid. Hence, there are two teachers, a language teacher and a content teacher, who help students to cope with their academic objectives.

2.1.3.1.4. Other content-based ESL models

In this section, two content-based models are going to be outlined. These approaches are considered to be the most recent models in the educational context.

2.1.3.1.4.1. *Push-in*

Push-in ESL is a programme in which the mainstream and the English teacher work in a team within the same classroom. Both teachers will work collaboratively in order to plan the best way to teach students. Students will see the two educational figures having the same authority and providing their own specific knowledge and experience (Jiao, O'Brian and Reynolds, 2012).

2.1.3.1.4.2. *Pull-out*

Pull-out ESL is a model in which ESL students are present most of the day in mainstream education classrooms. They are taken out of their classes for one or two periods a day to receive ESL instruction in other classes with students of similar proficiency levels.

As Baker suggests, in Pull-out programmes “Language minority children in mainstream schools may be withdrawn for ‘compensatory’ lessons in the majority language. [...] Such ESL Pull-out programmes are provided as a way of keeping language minority children in mainstream schooling and are preferable to giving no English language support” (2011, p. 214).

Ovando, Collier and Combs (2003, p. 73 as cited in Baker, 2011, p. 214) underscore that this method is not always effective:

Problems with this model are lost time in students' access to the full curriculum, lack of curriculum articulation with grade-level (mainstream) classroom teachers, and no access to primary language schooling to keep up with grade-level academic work while learning English. The social assumption is that the language the child speaks is a problem to be remediated, and students often feel that they are stigmatised by attending what is perceived as a remedial class.

Jiao, O'Brian and Reynolds (2012) also carried out a study aimed at measuring the effectiveness of push-in and pull-out models. This qualitative and quantitative study revealed that these models contain significant flaws and proposed the need for a new model. The authors highlight the importance of teacher training in collaborative instruction and claim that measures should be taken to prepare mainstream education teachers with the skills to be able to dually teach the students (Jiao, O'Brian and Reynolds, 2012 as cited in Lancaster, 2015, p. 18).

Reynolds, Nolin Smith and Groshek (2012) also developed an investigation on CBI existing models. They concluded that students in push-in models feel at an advantage, as they have the opportunity to draw upon each other's strengths; the exposure to the foreign language is higher, and as a result of being in an integrative social environment, the results are generally better. In the case of pull-out results, learners seem to feel less embarrassed when they have to participate in the classroom, they are able to reach a higher level of concentration and smaller groups foster differentiation.

In the same study, other models were analysed, among which it is worth mentioning 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, leads to the undeniable conclusion that empirical studies in this field of research are seriously lacking (Reynolds, Nolin Smith and Groshek, 2012 as cited in Lancaster, 2015, p. 18).

2.1.4. European International Schools

After having classified the most important bilingual education approaches, we are going to make reference to another movement in Europe that has had an important

influence on Content and Language Integrated Learning. Thus, in the next section, the European Schools Movement will be examined.

With the term European International Schools, we refer to a diverse collection of schools in the European continent, whose principal objective is to make students functionally bilingual and often multilingual, with a sense of European multiculturalism and European identity (Baker, 2011, p. 248).

These schools offer up to eleven different language sections reflecting the first language of the students. Native speakers are in charge of teaching the second language, which is firstly taught as a subject before being used as a medium of instruction. They have had a very positive effect on students' second language learning. Housen and Baetens Beardmore's (1987, p. 85 as cited in Baker, 2011, p. 248) research in one European school showed that "this strong language commitment has no detrimental effects on academic achievement as can be gauged from results on the final European Baccalaureate examination, on which 90% of the students have been successful". In the same vein, Housen (2002, p. 6 as cited in Baker, 2011, p. 248) also suggested that European school students tend to "produce their own independent, grammatically accurate, and lexically precise sustained discourse in a L2, even in context where additional support for L2 learning is absent". However, the children attending this kind of education are more likely to come from literacy-oriented, middle-class bureaucrat homes. Parents are normally bilingual as well and they transmit a positive feeling about bilingualism and multiculturalism to their children.

2.1.5. Other approaches influencing CLIL

Apart from all the methods and approaches that have given way to CLIL, content-based education also draws on another clear-cut set of language teaching approaches or educational initiatives (Richards and Rodgers, 2001; Madrid Fernández and García Sánchez, 2001 as cited in Tejada Molina, Pérez Cañado and Luque Agulló, 2005). In the following sections, these models are going to be briefly glossed.

2.1.5.1. *Natural Methods Tradition*

Here we refer particularly to the *Direct Method*, where the second language is the only one used within the classroom, and the *Natural Approach*, which implicitly emphasises the same teaching and learning techniques as CBI does.

2.1.5.2. *Communicative language teaching*

This method has strongly influenced the birth of Content and Language Integrated Learning because of the usage of the same educational techniques within the classroom. Both methods' main objective is to reach an adequate level in the foreign language by learning it in a meaningful context.

2.1.5.3. *Language across the Curriculum (LAC)*

The term 'Language across the Curriculum' was firstly coined in the 1970s. Its principal aim was to facilitate the use of languages in different meaningful contexts and to motivate and reward students for using their multilingual skills in every class they take at each level in the university curriculum, thus preparing them for the cross-cultural and multilingual demands and opportunities of a global society (Consortium for Languages across the Curriculum, 1996 as cited in Straight, 1998).

2.1.5.4. *Language for specific purposes (LSP)*

LSP is a widely applied approach in second or foreign language teaching, whose main aim is to satisfy the specific needs of learners for whom that language is a tool in their education, training or job. As Tejada Molina, Pérez Cañado and Luque Agulló (2005, p. 199) define it, "this movement prepares learners to fulfill specific roles (e.g. engineer, chemist, nurse) and to acquire real-world skills through the medium of a second or foreign language".

2.1.5.5. Immigrant on-arrival Programmes and Programmes for students with limited English proficiency (SLEP)

Immigrant on-arrival programmes typically focus on the language newly arrived immigrants in a country need for survival. Such learners need to learn how to deal with different kinds of real-world content as a basis for social survival (Richards and Rodgers, 2001, p. 206).

Programmes for students with limited English proficiency (SLEP) are governmentally mandated programmes in order to help children whose parents might be served by the on-arrival programmes. Moreover, any school-age children whose language competence is not enough to participate fully in normal class instruction can benefit from these programmes.

2.1.5.6. Cognitive academic language learning approach (CALLA)

It was initially developed for L2 students in North American Secondary Education, combining emphasis on language development, content-area instruction and explicit strategy training. Its main objective is to prepare language minority students to handle advanced academic skills and content knowledge in mainstream classrooms (Stoller and Grabe, 1997b, p. 3).

2.2. Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL)

Framed against the backdrop of North American Immersion and bilingual education programmes, and of European International Schools, which are considered its main predecessors, Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) was born as “the European label for bilingual education” (Lorenzo, 2007, p. 28 as cited in Pérez Cañado, 2012, p. 318).

Currently, bilingualism and multilingualism are considered “part of a general revolution against monolingualism and what it stands for: social and political centralisation, social stratification and academic gate-keeping” (Jessner-Schmid and Kramsch, 2015, p. 10). Europe is no exception in this respect and the introduction of

CLIL is the clearest example of how European countries have used foreign languages to foster cultural and linguistic conformity.

In order to fully understand what CLIL is, in the following subsections, information about its main features will be provided. Thus, its origins, definition, rationale, characterisation, and assets and pitfalls will be described.

2.2.1. Origins

In response to the demands posed by forces such as globalisation, European integration, new technologies, the Knowledge Age and some socioeconomic changes from 1990 onwards (Marsh, 2002; Coyle, Hood and Marsh, 2010; Mehisto, Marsh and Frigols, 2008), CLIL emerges as “a timely solution in harmony with broader social perspectives” (Pérez Cañado, 2011, p. 389). This approach, which started out as a simple battle for language awareness, has gradually become the great venture it is nowadays (Coyle, Hood and Marsh, 2010).

CLIL emerged in the 1990s, making the decade be considered that of “teaching and learning through a foreign language” (Marsh, 2002, p. 54 as cited in Pérez Cañado, 2012, p. 315). After a long period of analysis and negotiation (Ruiz de Zarobe and Jiménez Catalán, 2009, p. vii), the term was firstly coined with the aim of encompassing all the methodologies including teaching subject matter in an additional language. Hence, as Coyle, Hood and Marsh (2010, p. 3) affirm, “the term Content and Language Integrated Learning was adopted [...] within the European context to describe and further design good practice as achieved in different types of school environment where teaching and learning take place in an additional language”. That is why some authors make reference to CLIL as being an *umbrella* term (Ruiz de Zarobe and Jiménez Catalán, 2009, p. vii; Mehisto, Marsh and Frigols, 2008, p. 12), referring to any classroom situation where content and language are taught simultaneously (Marsh, 2009).

However, CLIL cannot be considered a method replacing existing models such as Immersion, bilingual education or Content-based instruction. Rather, CLIL is considered “distinct from its predecessors” and “it merits attention in its own right, as it is no longer considered a mere offshoot of other types of bilingual programmes, but an increasingly acknowledged trend in foreign language teaching” (Pérez Cañado, 2012, p. 318, 319). In

this line, Lorenzo (2007, p. 27) claims that CLIL “is [...] not just a new expression of educational bilingualism; the time when it has appeared, the places where it has been adopted and the learning theory behind it, turns CLIL into a successful attempt at language and social change in 21st century Europe”.

As CLIL is considered to be a “European label for bilingual education” (Lorenzo, 2007, p. 28 as cited in Pérez Cañado, 2012, p. 318) and it is “deeply rooted in the linguistic needs of the EU” (Muñoz, 2007) and thus strongly European-oriented (Wolff, 2005 as cited in Pérez Cañado, 2012, p. 318), Marsh documents that “CLIL is a European solution to a European need” (2005, p. 5). According to Dalton-Puffer et al. (2014, p. 214) “CLIL is European in the sense that it has been energised by European Language Policy and ideology and has in turn energised implementation of these policies at local or regional levels”.

Since its appearance, CLIL usage has soared and it appears to continue accelerating as a “growth industry” (Marsh, 2002, p. 59). Many European countries have adopted CLIL as “the core instrument for achieving policy aims directed at creating a multilingual population in Europe” (Dalton-Puffer, 2008). In turn, Navés (2009, p. 5) claims 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”. In this way, CLIL seems to be “spreading fast and here to stay” (Deller, 2005, p. 29 as cited in Pérez Cañado, 2012, p. 316).

2.2.2. Definition

As we can infer from the section devoted to the origins of CLIL, this teaching methodology is a kind of “bilingual education at a time when teaching through one single language is seen as a second rate education” (Lorenzo 2007, p. 35). However, it is very difficult to provide a single definition for this teaching approach. That is why, in the following subsections, CLIL will be categorised in terms of five different variables, each of which helps us to better understand what CLIL really is.

2.2.2.1. *Dual focus: Content and language*

CLIL is mainly defined as a dual-focused approach (Mehisto, Marsh and Frigols, 2008, p. 9; Marsh and Langé, 2000, p. 6; Coyle, Hood and Marsh, 2010, p. 1; Ruiz de Zarobe and Jiménez Catalán, 2009, p. vii) in which explicit attention is given to both content and language (Baker, 2011, p. 245).

According to Mehisto, Marsh and Frigols (2008, p. 11), “the CLIL strategy involves using a language that is not a student’s native language as a medium of instruction and learning for Primary, Secondary and/or Vocational-level subjects such as Maths, Science, Art or business”. Although CLIL is considered to be content-driven (Coyle, Hood and Marsh, 2010, p. 1), the essence of CLIL is integration. Thus, language learning is included in content classes and content from subjects is used in language-learning classes. This means that, in the class, there are two main objectives: one related to the subject and one linked to the language (Marsh and Langé, 2000, p. 6). The consequence of such practice is that “students are likely to learn more if they are not simply learning language for language’s sake, but using language to accomplish complete tasks and learn new content” (Mehisto, Marsh and Frigols, 2008, p. 11).

Pavón Vázquez and Ellison (2013, p. 73) claim that “the dual focus on content and language in the CLIL classroom makes learning and teaching more demanding. Thus, CLIL forces both students and teachers to be more cognitively engaged”. Considering all these data, CLIL was born as and continues being “a powerful educational tool” (Lancaster, 2015, p. 26). However, recent research findings have shown that some flaws appear in the integration of content and language. According to Mehisto (2008, p. 99 as cited in Bruton, 2013, p. 589), “the dual focus on content and language, which is the essence of CLIL, is likely not to be applied in a systematic manner by teachers”.

In the same vein, Brüning and Purrmann (2014, p. 334) claim that “many programmes focus too much on language and language teaching rather than on content or the integration of both” and Paran (2013, p. 329) feels that it is essential to understand the complexities of achieving the integration implicit in the acronym CLIL.

Hüttner and Smit (2014, p. 166) affirm that more work is necessary to completely understand the relationship between content and language in order to provide a coherent pedagogic provision. Cenoz (2015, p. 22) strengthens this sentiment by claiming that

“developing integration in CBI/CLIL programmes is certainly needed at different levels in order to share good practices in educational research”, since “there is not yet any guidance or pedagogical tools for teachers to implement integrated assessment methods” (Meyer et al., 2015, p. 45). Moreover, it is worth mentioning that Llinares (2015, p. 59) is also in agreement with Meyer et al. (2015) in that “more attention should be paid by researchers and practitioners to the actual concept of integration, *what* it entails and *how* it can be materialised in the classroom”.

In spite of these flaws, the main infrastructure of CLIL is made up of both content and language, which, in Llinares’ words, are “[...] interconnected as two sides of the same coin” (2015, p. 69). Thus, “richer learning experiences” will take place as a result of such integration (Meyer et al. 2015, p. 53).

2.2.2.2. *Innovative teaching methodology*

As Coyle, Hood and Marsh (2010, p. 1) underscore, CLIL is not a new form of language education, nor a new form of subject education. Rather, CLIL constitutes a fusion of both. In this integrated world, integrated learning is increasingly seen as a modern form of educational delivery designed to even better equip the learner with knowledge and skills suitable for the global age (Mehisto, Marsh and Frigols, 2008, p. 10-11).

The pupils we find now in classrooms are generally known as the Cyber Generation and they are used to living surrounded by new technologies, following the immediacy of the “learn as you use, use as you learn” motto (Pascual Bajo, 2018, p. 88). Bearing this situation in mind, CLIL has emerged as one innovative methodology to cater to this new age (Mehisto, Marsh and Frigols, 2008, p. 11). In turn, Van de Craen et al. claim that CLIL is not a mere language learning approach, as “it has implications for the learning process as a whole and is as such an innovative way of looking at education” (2007, p. 74).

Lastly, Lorenzo offers an interesting reflection on the value of CLIL as an innovative initiative in Europe. In his opinion, “CLIL brings authenticity by using languages for the instrumental uses they are most appreciated for in an academic context: learning subject area content” (2007, p. 35). Moreover, CLIL is considered to emphasise

the values of tongues as a means to succeed in intercultural communication and to develop multiple identities. More information about CLIL methodology and how it is being implemented will be offered in section 2.2.5.5.

2.2.2.3. Communication and naturalness

Since CLIL maintains some similarities with Communicative Language Learning, Graddol (2006, p. 86 as cited in Coyle, Hood and Marsh, 2010, p. 5) described it as “the ultimate communicative methodology”. However, this author points out that CLIL has a higher level of authenticity of purpose and naturalness. This can be seen because much CLIL classroom practice involves the learners being active participants in developing their potential for acquiring knowledge and skills (Coyle, Hood and Marsh, 2010, p. 5).

CLIL offers a natural situation for language development, making students use another language naturally, in such a way that they focus on the learning topic rather than on the language itself (Marsh and Langé, 2000, p. 3-6). Moreover, Coyle (2006, p. 11) affirms that the “CLIL environment demands a level of talking and interaction that is different to that of the traditional language classroom”, while Lasagabaster and Sierra (2010 as cited in Bruton, 2013, p. 590) claim “the communicative approach is fundamental to all immersion programmes”. This indicates that communication in CLIL cannot be seen simply as an advantage within its methodological structure, but as a necessity.

As Furlong (2005, p. 27) claims, students participating in traditional FL programmes sometimes find learning difficult and fruitless since “the cognitive effort associated with the subject language is perceived to be too costly and does not yield the expected returns in terms of meaningful application opportunities”. That does not happen with CLIL, where authentic communication is fostered in a specific learning environment which is connected with the reality of the world outside (Wolff, 2005, p. 15).

To sum up, CLIL has been contended to provide a more significant and holistic learning experience as it “involves use of language-sensitive methodology which simultaneously develops message, medium and socially-oriented communication” (Marsh, 2006, p. 33).

2.2.2.4. Cognition and culture

As Coyle (2002, p. 45 as cited in Coyle, Hood and Marsh, 2010, p. 6) affirms, “what separates CLIL from some established approaches such as Content-based language learning, or forms of bilingual education, is the planned pedagogic integration of contextualised content, cognition, communication and culture into teaching and learning practice”.

In a CLIL classroom, students are exposed not only to the language and content, but also to different cultures. Teachers try to promote students’ self-awareness and otherness. As Coyle underscores, “studying through a foreign language is fundamental to fostering international understanding. *Otherness* is a vital concept and holds the key for discovering self” (2005, p. 4). Thus, CLIL has as one of its principal aims to “inculcate a positive attitude to other languages and cultures”, apart from improving students’ competence in the target language (Pavlović and Marković, 2012, p. 85).

In line with this issue, Piquer Vives and Lorenzo Galés (2015) interviewed Coyle and reported on the scholar’s current mind-set. From this interview, it transpired that Coyle’s 4Cs framework (content, cognition, communication and culture) is still a well-established model around the world and it exists as a “wake-up call and a reminder not to focus only on language or only on content”. As for cognition, it is put forward to represent the negotiation of meaning, and culture has recently emerged to advocate not only societal cultures but also learning cultures such as “literacies and collaborative problem solving” (Piquer Vives and Lorenzo Galés, 2015 as cited in Lancaster, 2015, p. 30).

More recently, Marsh et al. (2020) have reflected on the impact of bilingual education and language learning on mind and brain. They speak about the bilingual advantage, focusing on the cognitive benefits that speaking more than one language has for students. Hence, these benefits, associated with an increased use of the brain, lead to higher mental flexibility and enhanced creativity, which is “key to the development of fluid intelligence” (2020, p. 8). In the same vein, the authors recognise that bilingual education fosters critical thinking, that is, bilingual students are able to analyse, evaluate and revise things from different points of view, being more aware of the different realities existing in the world (Marsh et al. 2020, p. 9).

2.2.2.5. Vehicular language learning

In CLIL, language acts as the vehicle through which content is taught and learnt. Although various vehicular languages are used in CLIL classrooms, English has become the most popular one (Eurydice, 2017). As Coyle, Hood and Marsh claim (2010, p. 9), “whilst it must be stressed that CLIL is not synonymous with English language learning and teaching, the potentially huge global demand for learning English means that it is a popular vehicular language in non-Anglophone areas”. This situation, that is, the dominance of English as the vehicular language in CLIL has led to a plea for CEIL (Content and English Integrated Learning), explaining why English is the preferred language in a global context (Dalton-Puffer, 2011, as cited Hüttner and Smit, 2014).

Although offering a single definition for CLIL is almost impossible because of the numerous features that it involves, this section is going to finish with the description offered by Coyle, Holmes and King (2009, p. 6), who claim that “Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) describes a pedagogic approach in which language and subject area content are learnt in combination. The generic term CLIL describes any learning activity where language is used as a tool to develop new learning from a subject area or theme”.

2.2.3. CLIL vs. Immersion

In order to complete this definition of CLIL, it becomes incumbent on us to report on the current controversy affecting the relationship of CLIL with immersion. Many scholars have examined how strong the link between these two concepts actually is. As we have already seen (cf. section 2.1.2), CLIL was born as a descendent of immersion programmes within a European framework. Consequently, some researchers have claimed that “[...] CLIL is European in the sense that it has been energised by European language policy and ideology and has in turn energised implementation of these policies at local or regional levels” (Dalton-Puffer et al., 2014, p. 214). In the following paragraphs, the differences and similarities that have been considered between these two approaches will be examined.

We must start by underscoring the disorientation caused by the various interpretations of CLIL. As Marsh (2002, p. 15) pointed out, CLIL is “an umbrella term”, which causes confusion among researchers. Cenoz, Genesee and Gorter (2013, p. 244) call for “a clearer and more fine-tuned definition of CLIL that is pedagogically useful”. The authors also uphold that Marsh’s definition is very flexible, which makes “CLIL very broad, but arguably overly inclusive and at the expense of precision” (2013, p. 245). This has been corroborated by Alejo González and Piquer-Píriz (2010, p. 220 as cited in Cenoz, Genesee and Gorter, 2013, p. 246), who highlight that it is “difficult to pin down the exact limits of the reality this term refers to”.

Due to the fact that CLIL exists as such a general term, its benefits can be obscured (Cenoz, Genesee and Gorter, 2013). That is why “a clear cut distinction is needed” (Lasagabaster and Sierra, 2013, p. 369) to make it possible for CLIL to “evolve in Europe in a pedagogically coherent fashion and for research to play a critical role in its evolution” (Cenoz, Genesee and Gorter, 2013, p. 247). After canvassing the features of both CLIL and immersion, we are able to detect some common and contrasting elements, which will be presented below, trying to evince how they can be distinguished.

Although “the terms CLIL and immersion are often used indiscriminately” (Lasagabaster and Sierra, 2010, p. 367) and “immersion programmes are considered to be the “historical precursor of CLIL” (2010, p. 368), authors such as Gallardo del Puerto, Gómez Lacabex and García Lecumberri (2009, p. 65) claim that “immersion programmes bear little resemblance to the study of English through CLIL in Europe, particularly in terms of the sociolinguistic context in which the L2 is learned and the authenticity of the input”. These differences focus on the language used and the levels involved; the balance between content and language; the role of the teacher; age of entry, materials, objectives and research carried out (Cenoz, Genesee and Gorter, 2013; Dalton-Puffer et al., 2014; Lasagabaster and Sierra, 2010; Paran, 2013; Somers and Surmont, 2012).

Another difference detected by Lasagabaster and Sierra (2010) refers to CLIL’s objective to teach content through a FL, as opposed to the local, regional or minority language used in immersion programmes. However, the CLIL definition offered by the Eurydice shows a clear contradiction in this respect as it says that “CLIL [...] describes 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 other

than language lessons themselves” (Eurydice, 2006, p. 8; Cenoz, Genesee and Gorter, 2013).

Following this opposition, Somers and Surmont (2012) offer some examples in which CLIL adopts a second, heritage or community language as the medium of instruction, as well as some instances of French immersion programmes existing in English language contexts, where little contact with French outside the school existed. This evidence shows that a language of any status can be applied in both CLIL and immersion (Lasagabaster, 2009, p. 33).

As for the balance between content and language in both methodologies, different opinions have arisen among researchers. On the one hand, Cenoz, Genesee and Gorter (2013) give us the impression that CLIL is content-driven, while immersion techniques are more focused on language goals. Nevertheless, academics involved in immersion proclaim that these programmes are, in fact, content-driven, in conjunction with CLIL (Coyle, Hood and Marsh, 2010; Genesee, 2004; Marsh, 2002; Met, 1998 as cited in Cenoz, Genesee and Gorter, 2013).

A contrasting perspective appeared implying that CLIL deserves to be highlighted for the successful integration of content and language, something which is intrinsic to the approach (Lancaster, 2015, p. 34). On the contrary, it is recognised that this aspect should be improved in immersion. However, according to several researchers, there is no real evidence that CLIL is the most successful methodology (Genesee and Lindholm-Leary, 2013; Lyster, 2007; Swain, 1996 as cited in Cenoz, Genesee and Gorter, 2013).

Related to teachers, it is worth mentioning that in immersion, most of them are native speakers, while in CLIL linguistically trained non-native speakers predominate. The main reason for this is that the former are widely available in certain places, rather than a matter of preference. Moreover, we must claim that native teachers are not necessarily the optimum teachers, as success has more to do with the background and professional training of the individual (Somers and Surmont, 2012).

As far as the age of entry is concerned, Cenoz, Genesee and Gorter (2013) associate immersion to early ages and relate CLIL to older students. This affirmation is questioned by Dalton-Puffer et al. (2014) and Somers and Surmont (2012), who claim that CLIL is being implemented in Primary schools all over Europe, considering Spain a prime example. The fact that CLIL has been adopted by 695 Primary schools in contrast

to 531 Secondary schools in Andalusia ratifies this assertion (Consejería de Educación. Junta de Andalucía. Year 2021/22).

Immersion is also supposed to integrate FL learners with native speakers in bilingual regions at the outset of the initiative in order to guarantee a future native proficiency. CLIL, on the other hand, was born to stimulate the use of new language learning techniques in Europe. Thus, students would be more skilled when looking for a job, travelling or simply making friends. Therefore, CLIL comprises a wider range of objectives including a lower competence level in comparison to immersion (Cenoz, Genesee and Gorter, 2013; Lasagabaster and Sierra, 2010). However, this interpretation is “difficult to substantiate”, according to Cenoz, Genesee and Gorter (2013, p. 248), as there is no solid evidence to confirm that immersion students are more likely to be intrinsically motivated to reach the high acquisition threshold. In this respect, it is worth mentioning that some European countries demand high language learning goals, while certain immersion programmes are satisfied achieving functional proficiency as opposed to a native-like aptitude (Lancaster, 2015, p. 36).

Related to the addressees of the programmes, Cenoz, Genesee and Gorter (2013) show evidence that CLIL is perceived as the most egalitarian option, following Wolff's claim (2002, p. 48) that “CLIL is not an elitist approach to language learning, it functions in all learning contexts and with all learners”. On the contrary, Bruton maintains that, nowadays, parents with a higher socioeconomic status want to secure a place in the bilingual classroom for their children, which makes CLIL a “disguised streaming” (Bruton, 2013, p. 593). As for immersion, supporters claim that it is open to students from different backgrounds (Caldas and Boudreaux, 1999; Genesee, 2007; Holobow, Genesee and Lambert, 1991 as cited in Cenoz, Genesee and Gorter, 2013), although it has always been connected to the elite. As a conclusion, these researchers say that “it would appear that there are no grounds for claiming that CLIL is typically and uniquely less elitist than immersion” (Cenoz, Genesee and Gorter, 2013, p. 250).

To conclude this section, we can highlight the fact that immersion and CLIL have remarkable differences, giving rise to the need of further research in order to devise specific goals for each methodology (Lasagabaster and Sierra, 2010). As a response to this affirmation, Somers and Surmont (2012) criticise these authors because they consider they are not contributing to the clarification of the existing less than clear outlook. On their behalf, Cenoz, Genesee and Gorter (2013) reach the conclusion that CBI (a term that

subsumes all types of immersion) and CLIL are synonymous terms and the latter can be seen as “an adapted version of a kind of partial immersion programme” (Várkuti, 2010, p. 68). Similarly, Dalton-Puffer et al. (2014) consider CLIL and immersion as lexical variants, but since CLIL is a “highly variable” (2014, p. 215) European language policy, it is impossible to describe it in terms of CBI. On the other hand, Cenoz (2015, p. 21, 22) states that “there are no differences between CBI and CLIL regarding their essential features. Instead, there are accidental differences linked to specific educational contexts in which the programmes take place; but these are not unique for CBI or CLIL”. This also accords with Paran’s (2013) view, who claims that the distinction between both methodologies is contextual and non-defining.

2.2.4. Rationale

Before deepening into the concrete characteristics of CLIL (cf. Section 2.2.5) and after trying to define it (cf. Section 2.2.2), differentiating it from immersion programmes (cf. Section 2.2.3), let us explain why Content and Language Integrated Learning emerged on the European scene.

During the 1950s, Europe was attending to a discussion on economic unity which also involved focus on language policies, and the need for a greater level of multilingualism. After determining what languages were official in the continent, as well as making considerable efforts to provide language education for more young people, in 1978, the European Commission made a proposal to the member states that encouraged teaching in school through the medium of more than one language. This was a landmark point which acted as a catalyst for the development of CLIL across the continent (Coyle, Hood and Marsh, 2010, p. 8).

In spite of these attempts, in 1984, the European Parliament found some weaknesses in language education. This sense of dissatisfaction about some of the ways that language teaching has developed since the 1980s had to do especially with those methods separating form from meaning (Coyle, Holmes and King, 2009, p. 4). Wolff (2005) explains how a plea was made in order to find an effective solution to overcome the shortcomings related to motivation, enthusiasm and interest in traditional FL teaching and content teaching.

Additionally, the Education Council accepted that there was a need to give greater impetus to FL teaching and learning. From that year on, there were many studies whose main aim was to find alternative paths in language education (Wolff, 2005; Coyle, Hood and Marsh, 2010). All this led to the development of practical educational solutions such as CLIL. As a consequence, from 1990 onwards, CLIL became increasingly prioritised within the European Union as a major educational initiative (Eurydice, 2006 as cited in Coyle, Hood and Marsh, 2010, p. 8), culminating in the 2005 European Council recommendations that CLIL should be adopted throughout the whole continent.

In general, as Brewster claims, “one common reason for CLIL was the drive for *internationalisation*, considered to be in accordance with the spirit of the times and both an opportunity for and consequence of change” (2004, p. 26). Following this idea, Lorenzo (2007, p. 29, 30) highlights three motives behind the birth of CLIL which have to do with the European language learning philosophy. The first motive refers to Europe’s aspiration for every individual to possess the ability to communicate in at least two foreign languages apart from their mother tongue. The second reason relates to the promotion of intercultural competence among citizens to foster mobility within the continent and, finally, the third factor deals with an overall improvement in language learning to be able to obtain benefits.

More concretely, according to Coyle, Hood and Marsh (2010, p. 8), the widespread start-up of CLIL has been caused mainly by four proactive forces. The aforementioned authors claim that the current interest and the rapid development of CLIL are due to families’ wishes of their children to have some competence in at least one foreign language; governments’ effort to improve language education for socioeconomic advantage; the European Commission’s wish to lay the foundation for greater inclusion and economic strength; and, finally, language experts’ work on integrating language education with that of other subjects.

Finally, it is worth mentioning that, to accomplish the goals behind all these pillars, numerous educational approaches to foster language learning have been assumed throughout recent decades. Madrid and Hughes (2011, p. 11) claim that “in order to meet new demands for plurilingual competence and to foster bilingualism and plurilingualism among citizens, almost every country in the world has adopted a wide range of initiatives [...]”. According to Pérez Cañado and Ráez Padilla (2015, p. 1), within the European

scenario “CLIL 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”.

2.2.5. Characterisation

After having expounded on the bases of CLIL and the motivation behind its appearance, in this section of the dissertation, the most important traits of this teaching approach will be outlined.

Dealing with the characteristics of CLIL is not an easy task, due mainly to the fact that “CLIL implementation in Europe is highly variegated” (Pérez Cañado, 2012, p. 319). Thus, it can be said that “what characterises CLIL more than anything is the remarkable variety of practices that can be found under its umbrella” (Dalton-Puffer, Nikula and Smit, 2010, p. 2). As Coyle, Hood and Marsh put it, “one size does not fit all” (2010, p. 14). This assertion is related to the idea that the term CLIL covers a dozen or more educational approaches, which vary considerably depending on the educational and linguistic background of each specific country (Mehisto, Marsh and Frigols, 2008, p. 12; Wolff, 2002, p. 48). In the same sense, Dalton-Puffer (2008, p. 2) claims:

Even now that the term CLIL has established itself in the European discourse about educational practices where a foreign language is used to teach majority language students, the actual practices and models referred to cover a wide range of curricular realities. It is thus unsurprising that a multitude of national and regional labels for CLIL type programmes remain in use, often reflecting subtly different context-dependent approaches to the matter.

The conclusion of such statements is that there is no single model for CLIL. Coyle (2007 as cited in Pérez Cañado, 2012, p. 319) documents the existence of 216 types of CLIL programmes based on such variables as compulsory status, intensity, age of onset, starting linguistic level or duration. Hence, in order to fully understand the different scenarios in which CLIL can be implemented, the following section will deal with the most significant variables affecting CLIL’s start-up.

2.2.5.1. Context

Owing to the fact that CLIL covers a vast scope of potential learning scenarios and it is still far from being a consolidated educational model (Dalton-Puffer, Nikula and Smit, 2010, p. 23), its implementation is different in each European country. As Wolff (2005, p. 11) claims “CLIL as an educational concept is not homogeneous; a rather large number of different variants can be distinguished”. These differences are noticeable in terms of some variables that are going to be discussed as follows:

1. *Integration of Content and Language:*

According to Coyle, Hood and Marsh (2010, p. 14), the ways in which content and language are integrated influence decision-making on how each is handled within the model. Moreover, the same authors indicate that each individual institution decides to which extent content and language will be joined. Although CLIL tends to be a content-driven methodology in which “it is the curriculum of the content-subject that is delivered in the foreign language while language goals may be high but remain implicit” (Dalton-Puffer, Nikula and Smit, 2010, p. 2), Stoller (2004, p. 261) distinguishes between language-driven and content-driven programmes.

2. *Curriculum Subjects:*

Depending on the community in which CLIL is being implemented, the content subjects to be taught in the vehicular language vary. Although a great variety of subjects can be part of the curriculum of CLIL (from Mathematics to Geography, including Arts, Citizenship, Music, or Physical Education, among many others), Wolff (2005) believes that subjects related to humanities are more adequate because they encourage intercultural skills.

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

In turn, Marsh considers that CLIL has traditionally chosen those subjects which are “less academic”, even though there is a current trend which “argues that subjects, or themes within subjects, should link into the true contexts of the world in terms of language and non-language topics” (2012, p. 161). What it seems clear is that “certain subjects

and/or themes within subjects which are more conducive to successful impact than others” (Marsh, 2012, p. 205).

3. *Languages available in CLIL:*

When deciding what languages are going to be used in CLIL, some factors must be taken into account. Among them, Pavesi et al. (2001, p. 115, 116) consider it essential to pay special attention to the geopolitical situation of the country or region where CLIL is going to be implemented. It is advisable to use a language spoken in a nearby region, the similarities between the vehicular language and the mother tongue of the students, the subjects to be taught in the foreign language, and the local resources.

Bearing in mind these variables, the language used as the medium of content teaching can be chosen. Thus, in Europe there are numerous alternatives to be put into practice, including regional or minority languages as options to teach content (Pérez Cañado, 2012).

However, the English language has received so much attention because of its importance as an international communication language. In this respect, Coyle, Hood and Marsh (2010, p. 9) point out that although there has been a great interest in learning content subjects through English, it must be stressed that CLIL is not synonymous with English language learning. In the same vein, according to the Eurydice (2017), despite being the most commonly adopted vehicular language in Europe, CLIL is not restricted to English learning, since other important European languages such as French, German, Spanish or Italian are being incorporated to bilingual sections.

4. *Level of the students:*

Before classifying students in terms of their educational level (Primary, Secondary or Tertiary Education), it is worth mentioning that “CLIL is not an elitist programme” (Pavesi et al., 2001, p. 117). As Marsh (2000, p. 9) claims “CLIL provides all youngsters, regardless of social and economic positioning, the opportunity to acquire and learn additional languages in a meaningful way”. Thus, in principle, all students can benefit from CLIL, independently of their cognitive abilities (Pavesi et al., 2001, p. 117).

Taking this idea as background, teachers use different techniques to foster L2 learning, depending on the educational level in which students are situated. Described by Wolff as a typologically induced variant (2005), we must distinguish three different levels:

- Primary Education: As Pavesi et al. suggest (2001, p. 89), in Primary school, children must be given opportunities to promote holistic ways of learning and to learn from practical experiences. Thus, one of the most predominant approaches is a combination of additive and maintenance BE, by means of which learners maintain their family language while they acquire a higher language competence in the society where they live.
- Secondary and Tertiary Education: In these levels, students are typically more exposed to the target language and they are given the necessary strategies and tools to cope with the needs of their future in a foreign language.

5. *Exposure to the target language:*

According to Dalton-Puffer, Nikula and Smit (2010, p. 2), the fundamental variable in CLIL seems to be a quantitative one, captured in the question “how much foreign language exposure do students get?”. Taking into account that the primary goal of CLIL is for students to achieve an adequate level of competence in an L2, research on second language acquisition has shown that considerable exposure to naturally-occurring language is necessary to achieve it. Thus, Pavesi et al. (2001, p. 78) point out that “learners need to have access to spontaneous speech, preferably in an interactive context where they can obtain plenty of information on the structure and the functioning of the foreign language”.

Hence, CLIL programmes may be short-term or long-term, ranging from a sequence of lessons spanning a few weeks to entire school-years to entire school-careers (Dalton-Puffer, Nikula and Smit, 2010, p. 2). Moreover, within the time assigned, the intensity of foreign language employment may vary considerably. Coyle, Hood and Marsh (2010, p. 15) distinguish between partial and extensive instruction. In partial instruction, less than 5% of the curriculum is taught in the target language, whereas 50% or more is taught in extensive instruction.

Moreover, as the language used in CLIL may present different degrees of exposure in the European countries, when research results are interpreted, extramural exposure outside the classroom must be also considered (Paran, 2013 as cited in Lancaster, 2015, p. 43).

6. *Assessment procedures:*

Due to the fact that CLIL has a dual focus, assessment should include evaluation of language competences and evaluation of content knowledge and, thus, “account for the goals and objectives of two different subjects, including knowledge, competences, skills, attitudes, and behaviour, for both language and content” (Massler, 2010, p. 115 as cited in Sávic, 2012, p. 41).

In the same vein, Coyle, Hood and Marsh (2010, p. 15) point out that evaluation in CLIL needs to be addressed in terms of formative or summative and, more importantly, focusing mainly on content and language or on language only, mainly because this decision will influence model design. What is clear is that “effective assessment contributes to success in CLIL and to effectiveness of a CLIL lesson” (Sávic, 2012, p. 41) (cf. Section 2.2.5.5).

7. *Governmental support*

Researchers like Marsh (2012, p. 174) emphasise the fact that “the driving force for CLIL/EMILE is often at the grassroots and with socioeconomic stakeholders”. In the same vein, Dalton-Puffer (2008, p. 1) claims that “countless initiatives of individual teachers or schools have generally been the actual starting point for implementing CLIL in concrete local educational contexts, initiatives to which regional or national authorities have frequently been slow to answer”. Hence, we get to the conclusion that governmental support is a very important aspect influencing CLIL success.

As Coyle, Hood and Marsh (2010) recognise, it is necessary to establish identical objectives envisaged by both top-down and bottom-up initiatives. Moreover, admission criteria and to what degree the community is decentralised are other concerns that have to be taken into account (Pérez Cañado, 2012). According to Marsh “a country where autonomy is low and curricula are heavily centralised would hardly be able to introduce CLIL as a bottom-up movement” (2012, p. 210 as cited in Pascual Bajo, 2018, p. 102).

2.2.5.2. *Class requirements*

2.2.5.2.1. *The role of materials*

In all educational contexts, learning materials can be defined as information and knowledge that are represented in a great variety of media and formats and which support

the attainment of intended learning outcomes. Moreover, all learning materials are meant to support students and teachers without restricting them (Mehisto, 2012, p. 15-16).

More specifically, in the CLIL context, materials are said to support the creation of enriched learning environments where students can simultaneously learn both content and language. Mehisto (2012) proposes ten criteria for the development of quality CLIL materials, each of which seeks to maintain a dual focus on content and language:

1. *Quality CLIL materials make the learning intentions and process visible to students:* Setting clear instructional goals for students and providing feedback on how they are progressing have a powerful effect on student learning, as well as on improving cognition and student achievement (Marzano, 1998, p.127; Hattie, 2009, p. 246, and 2012, p. 47-49 as cited in Mehisto, 2012, p. 17).
2. *Quality CLIL materials systematically foster academic language proficiency:* For students to develop academic language proficiency, a systematic effort is required by educators and students across grade levels (Cloud, Genesee and Hamayan, 2000, p. 14 as cited in Mehisto, 2012, p. 18).
3. *Quality CLIL materials foster learning skills development and learner autonomy:* Students need to be supported in becoming autonomous learners within the field of language learning. Thus, the teacher acts as a mediator who gradually yields control over the language learning process to intrinsically motivated learners (Arnau, 1998, p. 95; Holec, 1981; Kohonen, 2009; Little, 2008 as cited in Mehisto, 2012, p. 19).
4. *Quality CLIL materials include self-, peer and other types of formative assessment:* As assessment is pivotal for learning, materials should include reflection on and assessment of multiple aspects, such as the achievement of the content and language goals, achievement of learning skills goals, use of language for various purposes and ability to work with authentic materials (Mehisto, 2012, p. 20).
5. *Quality CLIL materials help create a safe learning environment:* Materials provide appropriate navigation support such as advance organisers. Moreover, materials should avoid sarcasm and ridicule, be respectful of diversity and foster inclusion (Mehisto, 2012, p. 20).
6. *Quality CLIL materials foster cooperative learning:* In a CLIL context, learning materials should provide some of the guidelines to foster cooperative work and to encourage positive interdependence, face-to-face interaction, individual and group

accountability, interpersonal and small-group skills, and group processing (Johnson, Johnson and Holubec, 1998 as cited in Mehisto, 2012, p. 21).

7. *Quality CLIL materials seek ways of incorporating authentic language and authentic language use:* Learning materials in a CLIL context tend to incorporate language from the media and language used in everyday speech in different social and work contexts. Therefore, materials can encourage discussion and they also make cultural connections and help build students' knowledge about diverse people and cultures (Mehisto, 2012, p. 22).
8. *Quality CLIL materials foster critical thinking:* CLIL materials focus on making students apply, analyse, evaluate and create something based on the information given in the materials (Mehisto, 2012, p. 23).
9. *Quality CLIL materials foster cognitive fluency through scaffolding of content, language and learning skills development, helping students to reach well beyond what they could do on their own:* As Gibbons (2002, p. 8 as cited in Mehisto, 2012, p. 24) claims, "Scaffolding leads learners to reach beyond what they are able to achieve alone, to participate in new situations and to tackle new tasks".
10. *Quality CLIL materials help to make learning meaningful:* Materials help explain the relevance of intended learning, while they try to connect this intended learning with students' interests, their lives and their communities (Mehisto, 2012, p. 25).

Following these ideas, Pérez Torres (2009) expounds on different aspects which need to be fulfilled in order to obtain adequate CLIL materials. For this author, when dealing with the creation of new materials, it is compulsory to conjugate linguistic and non-linguistic objectives because the language is used for learning content as well as for communication. Moreover, these materials must include language to be practised from the content; that is to say, they will not include information about L2 grammar or structures. Thus, the subject content will determine the type of language that is going to be used in class. Additionally, integrating the L2 means integrating skills; that is, materials should include activities and tasks related to speaking, listening, reading and writing. All these activities will be easier at the beginning and more difficult at the end, which means that materials in a CLIL context are designed following a task-based perspective.

However, in spite of the many advantages presented by the use of adequate materials and the numerous efforts that have been made lately to design CLIL materials, many authors (Ludbrook, 2005, p. 21; Meyer, 2010, p. 11) claim that an initial problem in the implementation of CLIL is the lack of suitable teaching materials (cf. Section 2.2.5.8).

2.2.5.2.2. Information and Communication Technology availability

As mentioned in previous sections, the new generations of students can be described as “digital natives” (Pascual Bajo, 2018, p. 106), since they are constantly surrounded by computers, smartphones, tablets and consoles with which they are also continually interacting. Bearing this situation in mind, information and communication technologies (ICTs) acquire a particular importance within CLIL materials, as CLIL incorporates some new teaching strategies within its methodology that require the assistance of technology. Thus, ICTs have a vital role to play in CLIL. By using this kind of technology, the levels of motivation in students are enhanced; students become active participants within the classroom and express themselves without restriction. Moreover, ICTs offer opportunities to foster authentic language use, increase language input and output, make students collaborate and socialise and develop students’ language and cultural awareness (Peterson, 1997; Singhal, 1997; Slaouti, 1997; Somekh and Davis, 1997 as cited in Vlachos, 2009, p. 192).

Moreover, according to UNESCO (2016) “fostering the use of ICTs in education can facilitate universal access to education, bridge learning divides, support the development of teachers, enhance the quality and relevance of learning, strengthen inclusion, and improve education administration and governance”. The same idea was defended by Custodio Espinar (2012, p. 1), who claims that “for bilingual education scenarios, ICT is an ideal platform for developing interactive strategies and methodologies that help to promote independent learning, peer interaction and language use for real communicative purposes”. In classrooms where students can work with interactive whiteboards, computers with Internet connection and some other technological resources, teachers must be ready to develop new learning strategies that take into account these technologies. As a consequence, in a CLIL context, the teacher is no longer the main source of knowledge. The Internet has become an important source

of updated knowledge, making students develop their digital literacy and fostering cooperative learning (Saumell, 2012, p. 2).

All these advantages have been confirmed in a recent investigation carried out by Nieto Moreno de Diezmas (2018), who has proved that CLIL contributes to the acquisition of the digital competence. In her research, developed at Primary Education level, it was found that the CLIL group performed significantly better than the non-CLIL group in two dimensions of digital competence, namely, communicating and participating in collaborative networks and searching, collecting and processing digital information.

However, teachers claim that there are still some problems they have to face when combining CLIL and ICTs. These difficulties have to do with organisational, pedagogical, technical and financial issues which can be challenging for them during that process (Wojtowicz et al., 2009, p. 2). Furthermore, there is a clear lack of resources designed according to specific CLIL requirements (Wojtowicz et al., 2009, p. 6). Some scholars such as Scott and Beadle (2014, p. 1) consider there is still not a generalised use of ICTs and on-line learning materials in education and they describe in their report for the European Commission how Member States have identified certain problems in this respect. Among them, the low quality of the existing on-line teaching materials and the lack of adequate training for teachers must be foregrounded.

2.2.5.3. *The role of language*

It is evident that language is one of the most important elements within the CLIL classroom. It plays an essential role in the CLIL context and the way in which it is employed in class will determine students' success. This is why Deller (2005, p. 29) claims that "in the CLIL classroom, the language really is a tool rather than an end in itself". Thus, Lorenzo, Trujillo and Vez (2011, p. 152) point out that "the content of different school subjects takes shape through the language in the teacher's discourse or in the interaction between partners as well as in the materials used in class". The language, will act, then, as the means by which content is put into circulation (Freeman, 2004, p. 172 as cited in Lorenzo, Trujillo and Vez, 2011, p. 152). According to Harrop (2012, p. 57), "in CLIL, content is not taught *in* the foreign language, but *with* and *through* the foreign language". Hence, in CLIL we create a situation in which the attention of the

student is on some form of learning activity which is not the language itself. The student is provided with the opportunity to learn to think in the language, not just learn about the language itself (Marsh, 2000, p. 8).

In relation to these ideas, it is worth mentioning that integration also includes and incorporates L1 development (Lorenzo and Moore, 2010, p. 34 as cited in Dalton-Puffer, Nikula and Smit, 2010): “Integrating content and language learning should not mean that the focus on learning another language results in your child’s first language being neglected” (Marsh, 2000, p. 11). What is more, as Deller (2005) claims, “if there are deficiencies in the L1, the L2 level and cognitive process will be restricted”. Thus, “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” (Madrid and Hughes, 2011, p. 25). In the same vein, a study carried out by Gierlinger (2015, p. 17) revealed “a clear potential of code switching as a pedagogical and learning support tool”, as it can be considered to be scaffolding in CLIL lessons and it assists in the learning of new content. This researcher (2015, p. 17) also says that the L1 provides “an effective and cognitive benefit for the communication and learning processes in CLIL”.

Apart from the importance attached to the use of L1, Cummins’ theories of Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS) and Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP) (1979) have received special attention lately. While BICS imply skills for every-day and social situations, CALP involves more formal language. According to Madrid and Hughes (2011, p. 22) “[...] in order for bilingual teaching to be effective, students would ideally have appropriate levels in both areas”. Similarly, Pavón Vázquez and Ellison (2013, p. 72) highlight “the ability to use languages 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 makes students apply them appropriately”.

Since CLIL is spreading rapidly, more research has been carried out. Thus, we find novel viewpoints, some of which could be considered as contrasting. In this respect, it is worth mentioning that BICS and CALPS are no longer seen as separate entities, since language is defined by means of the situation and the function for which it is used (Meyer et al., 2015).

Another aspect worthy of mentioning in relation to the use of language within the CLIL scenario is the learning of vocabulary and discourse. According to Heras and Lasagabaster (2015, p. 75), in a CLIL classroom “students have 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”. Following the same idea, Pérez Cañado (2013, p. 17) claims “dual focused education [...] provides opportunities to study content through different perspectives, accessing specific terminology in the target language”.

In any case, CLIL introduces a renewed conception of language based on the following idea:

Language is much more than some communicative skills; it acts in the mental processes and it is used in their execution. Moreover, language is a tool used for conceptualising and linking information and it holds mental activities and accuracy in the cognitive processes especially valid for academic writing. Language intervenes in the resolution of cognitively complex tasks which lack of contextualisation. And finally, language helps to structure the discourse and to make discursive functions (Vollmer, 2006, p. 180 as cited in Lorenzo, Trujillo and Vez, 2011, p. 163).

2.2.5.4. *Participants*

In this section, the three most important stakeholders involved in the CLIL process are going to be examined. Firstly, special attention will be paid to the figure of the teacher, emphasising the different roles that (s)he has to adopt within the CLIL classroom. Then, how students participate and interact within the CLIL environment will be covered and, finally, the importance of families throughout the CLIL experience will be pointed out.

2.2.5.4.1. *The role of the teacher*

It is obvious that some aspects of the teaching practice have great influence on effective learning within the classroom and on the students' results. That is why the figure of the teacher is pivotal for attaining positive results, not only in content learning but also in language learning. As Marsh (2006, p. 33) highlights, “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”. Thus, the key for the improvement of the educational system is the teaching staff itself since “the quality of an educational system cannot be higher than the quality of its teachers and the work they

develop” (Schleicher, 2009, p. 6 as cited in Lorenzo, Trujillo and Vez, 2011, p. 195). Bearing all this in mind, Massler, Ioannou-Georgiou and Steiert (2010, p. 67) go further and say that the responsibilities of CLIL teachers are considerably more demanding than those of their non-CLIL colleagues, mainly because, apart from the general skills required for any good teacher, they must be able to foster mastery of the subject content and L2 development at the same time (Massler, Ioannou-Georgiou and Steiert, 2010 as cited in Pascual Bajo, 2018, p. 111, 112).

In all educational contexts, and mainly in the CLIL environment, collaboration between teachers is quite significant. As Pascual Bajo (2018, p. 113) mentions, “no teacher is an island”. Hence, language teachers and content teachers have to find the way to work together in schools, offering their respective competences. In this sense, each teacher will have influence on the materials used in class, the planning of sessions and the assessment of students (Lorenzo, Trujillo and Vez, 2011, p. 198). With a view to avoiding negative outcomes in the CLIL environment, Muñoz (2007, p. 24) underscores that “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”. As Pavón Vázquez and Ellison (2013, p. 70) claim, teachers do not have to develop a “native-like competence”, but they “should acquire a sound knowledge of how the language works”. This can be achieved by means of teamwork of all the teaching figures involved in CLIL. In this respect, it is especially important that “both content teacher and FL teacher work together towards a common goal: content and language integrated learning” (Pavón Vázquez and Ellison, 2013, p. 76).

Apart from the collaboration between content and language teachers needed in CLIL, Met (1994, p. 11 as cited in Genesee, 1994) distinguishes two different roles fulfilled by teachers within the classroom. On the one hand, the teacher acts as *monitor*, whose main task is to implement the lesson designed during the planning phase, concomitantly with monitoring the lessons and the students while teaching it. And on the other hand, the teacher acts as a *model* for students who are being educated in a second language. These students see the teacher as a model of linguistically and culturally appropriate behaviours.

However, some problems in CLIL teacher training have arisen in recent studies (Cabezas Cabello, 2010; Navés, 2009; Pérez Cañado, 2012; Rubio Mostacero, 2009; Durán Martínez and Beltrán Llavador, 2017; Durán Martínez, Beltrán Llavador and Martínez Abad, 2016; Pladevall-Ballester, 2015; Pérez Cañado, 2016a), which seem to confirm that “teacher training has been disregarded to a large extent” (Wolff, 2011, p. 1). Thus, according to Pérez Cañado and Ráez Padilla (2015, p. 7) “the key to any future vision for bilingual education is teacher development” as “CLIL is demanding for teachers in terms of adjusting practice and developing competences” (Pavón Vázquez and Ellison, 2013, p. 69). In this sense, some of the most important needs to be taken into account within teachers’ training are the upgrade of the linguistic proficiency of CLIL teachers (Blanca Pérez, 2009; Fernández César, Aguirre Pérez and Harris, 2009; García Mayo, 2009; Lasagabaster and Ruiz de Zarobe, 2010; Navés and Victori, 2010 as cited in Pérez Cañado, 2011, p. 394). Moreover, CLIL teachers should possess up-to-date teaching techniques including the necessary handling of ICTs (Deller, 2005) and it is essential to decode specific needs in practical terms on the basis of necessary skills for integrating content and language in a single lesson (Brüning and Purman, 2014 as cited in Lancaster, 2015, p. 48).

2.2.5.4.2. The role of students

The students are major stakeholders in any CLIL programme. Thus, together with teachers, they are the most important agents within the learning process. In contrast to other students, CLIL learners should adopt an active role within the classroom. As Coyle (2006, p. 10) claims, “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”. Following this idea, Wolff (2011, p. 2) also points out that CLIL shares the principle that it is possible to make students independent and responsible learners who are able to organise their own learning.

Nevertheless, students can find some difficulties in their CLIL experience. As Deller (2005, p. 2) points out, “if it is a subject for which they have very little understanding, liking or empathy, and [...] if they are being taught in a language they find difficult, then learning anything is going to be a miracle”. In this sense, this author advocates for the use of activities and processes that make the lessons more active and interesting.

In contrast to these difficulties that students may find in the CLIL class, Coyle (2006, p. 1) affirms that CLIL represents a “more holistic educational experience for the learner”. Hence, many advantages are related to CLIL practice in the students’ learning process. These advantages will be developed in detail in section 2.2.5.7.

2.2.5.4.3. The role of parents

As in the case of education in general, parents need to be involved in the CLIL process, offering support to their children. This support will consist in taking an active interest throughout the whole process of CLIL (Marsh, 2000, p. 12). The school and the teachers should see the families as allies (Collados Zorraquino and Morales Gómez, 2001 as cited in Lorenzo, Trujillo and Vez, 2011, p. 201), since “parents who feel welcome in schools are a powerful resource that can better their children’s education” (Montemayor, 2004, p. 1). In this sense, families, as well as teachers, play a fundamental role in the personal, social and linguistic growth of students (Bernstein, 1993 as cited in Lorenzo, Trujillo and Vez, 2011, p. 201). As a consequence, it is safe to affirm that when the student lives in a family environment in which (s)he is completely ready to take advantage of the teachers’ instruction, the efficiency of the teacher increases, together with his/her learning (Redding, 2000, p. 5). This correlation between academic achievement and parental involvement was demonstrated by Jeynes (2005, 2012), who also made some recommendations for schools to enhance the efficacy of parental involvement programmes. Among them, this author emphasises the fact that advice should be offered to parents on essential factors such as setting high expectations, encouraging their engagement in checking homework, and on adopting parenting styles associated with student achievement (Jeynes, 2012 as cited in Pascual Bajo, 2018, p. 115).

Nevertheless, in this active participation, parents sometimes, especially at the beginning, feel frustrated or worried about how their children are going to be taught. It is normal that initially, parents feel anxious about the idea of their children being taught within a new learning approach in which a foreign language, completely different from the one they use in their ordinary lives, is used. But as time goes by, they realise that involving their children in CLIL has numerous benefits. Thus, “parents report that their children are finding learning a language very easy!” (Coyle, Holmes and King, 2009, p. 15). The same idea is defended by Massler (2012, p. 40), who carried out a study in six German Primary schools and assessed all stakeholders’ perspectives, concluding that

most parents are really convinced of the value of studying a content subject module through an additional language. Similar results have recently been obtained by Ráez Padilla (2018), who has also provided evidence that parents evaluate positively their children's FL development, participation and motivation towards the CLIL subject. This positive opinion and satisfaction was also reflected when dealing with aspects such as the methodologies and types of assessment used, homework, mobility and school-home communication.

2.2.5.5. Methodology and evaluation

Since CLIL is based on teaching techniques in which the learner is the main focus of attention, promoting students' involvement within the classroom becomes a must. Thus, students become active participants within the learning process and they normally communicate more than the teacher (Mehisto, Marsh and Frigols, 2008, p. 29). As Meyer (2010, p. 13) points out, "embracing the CLIL approach does not automatically lead to successful teaching and learning. To truly realise the added value of CLIL, teachers need to embrace a new paradigm of teaching and learning". CLIL classrooms need a higher level of talking and interaction, completely different to that of the traditional language environment (Coyle 2006, p. 11), which is achieved when the content is constantly and meaningfully contextualised in lessons. Hence, an important change must occur from instruction to participative lessons; teaching the same content in the same way but with another language would not be effective (Pavón Vázquez and Ellison, 2013, p. 72).

CLIL tends to be a flexible teaching practice which tries to facilitate content and context understanding. That is the reason why teachers "work to create a climate that fosters continuous language growth" (Mehisto, Marsh and Frigols, 2008, p. 30). They must work to create a safe and enriching learning environment in which learners can broaden their mind and can learn to think in the target language (Juan Rubio and García Conesa, 2012, p. 3). To achieve this objective, teachers use different strategies, mainly based on the use of authentic materials. As Coyle, Holmes and King (2009, p. 20) claim, "CLIL methodology encourages teachers and learners to engage with a wide range of media". These materials include current resources from the media and ICTs (cf. Section 2.2.5.2.2). Moreover, in this environment where autonomous and interactive learning is

fostered, students are asked to work in pairs, or in groups, favouring peer- cooperative work.

As a consequence, in order to fully develop adequate CLIL practice, another core feature within CLIL methodology is the need for cooperation between all the participants. Teachers, students and parents must be involved in the learning process. In this respect, Mehisto, Marsh and Frigols (2008, p. 30) defend the necessity of planning courses and lessons in coordination with CLIL and non-CLIL teachers. Additionally, these authors claim that involving parents, the local community and authorities in learning about CLIL is compulsory to obtain positive results. In the same way, Meyer (2010) puts forward several quality principles and strategies to plan and teach with a multiple focus. In his CLIL-Pyramid, which is a tool for planning lessons and creating quality materials, he incorporates six principles and strategies based on the 4Cs Framework, coined by Coyle in 1999. Below is an overview of the aforementioned principles (Meyer, 2010, p. 13-25):

1. *Rich input*: Materials must be authentic, meaningful and challenging, always focused on global problems and connected to students' everyday lives and interests. Moreover, interactive materials such as webquests, video-clips or podcasts should be used in order to foster motivation and creative thinking.
2. *Scaffolding*: In Meyer's own words, "to make sure that students successfully deal with authentic materials and that as much input as possible can become intake, it is essential for students to receive ample support" (2010, p. 15). Thus, scaffolding will help learners understand the language and the content, reducing then, the cognitive and the linguistic load. This extra support will help them complete a given task as learners will be also provided with specific vocabulary that enable them to express their own thoughts. Moreover, students need to be taught how to learn efficiently, as they will be responsible for their own learning. In this way, learning skills and strategies must be practised continually and become an integral part of every lesson since they are considered the pillars of CLIL learning.
3. *Rich interaction and pushed output*: Task-based language teaching (TBLT) ought to be an integral part of CLIL, mainly because tasks allow students to interact and produce output. Long's Interaction Hypothesis gives special importance to interaction since it favours language acquisition. He also suggests that the feedback students receive while they are taking part in a conversation promotes interlanguage, "connecting input, internal learner capacities, particularly selective

attention, and output in productive ways” (Long, 1996, p. 452). On the contrary, Swain considers that “students should be pushed to make use of their own resources and have their linguistic skills stretched to their fullest. Hence, they would reflect on their output and would try to find ways of changing it in order to enhance comprehensibility, appropriateness and accuracy” (Swain, 1993, p. 160). The fact of using a language with real communicative purposes in meaningful social situations makes language acquisition more successful. That is precisely the main objective of TBLT: “bringing authenticity into the classroom” (Pascual Bajo, 2018, p. 118).

4. *Adding the intercultural dimension*: One of the main goals in language education is to prepare our students to succeed in a globalised world and enable them to work in teams across national and cultural borders. Hence, intercultural communicative competence (Camerer, 2007) has become the ultimate educational objective, making students aware of the hidden cultural codes and the appropriate linguistic and non-linguistic means and strategies to address them.
5. *Higher order thinking skills (HOTS)*: Thinking skills (HOTS) seem to be essential to succeed in the Information Age in which we are living; however, nowadays, there is still a generalised preference for teaching factual knowledge, that is, the lowest level of thinking. In this respect, it is worth mentioning the comparative study carried out in 2008 by Vollmer, from which he concluded that CLIL students presented major deficits in using academic language, both in the foreign language and in their mother tongue. From these data, two main conclusions regarding CLIL can be drawn. The first one would be that effective teaching implies creating environments where students are engaged, challenged, and saturated with different kinds of thinking, without being overwhelmed (Zwiers, 2006). The second one would be that the ability to express complex thoughts appropriately does not appear automatically but needs systematic instruction, both in the L1 and L2. According to Zwiers (2006), academic discourse functions can be easily incorporated into our teaching routine and be fostered through different activities.
6. *Sustainable learning*: This concept means ensuring that what is taught in class will become deeply rooted in our students’ long-term memory. Thus, passive knowledge would be turned into active knowledge. To do that, the CLIL teacher has to connect with the student’s experiences and interests; promote cooperative

student-centered activities; provide clear structures, making learning transparent; and foster autonomous learning.

In addition to all the features that have been pinpointed previously, it is worth mentioning that CLIL methodology is based on some premises pursued also by the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR). Hence, Lorenzo (2007) claims that these analogous intentions are the increase of the communicative competence, the incorporation of task-based approaches into teaching, students concentrating on text production, and the exploitation of a systemic-functional approach, in which meaning is the focal point rather than a system of rules.

In that way, the 4Cs model mentioned previously (Coyle, 1999) is fulfilled: students are taught about *Content* while they maintain some *Communication* with other participants during the learning process. Moreover, they learn to think in a foreign language and they get engaged in associated *Cognitive processing*. Besides, learners acquire a deep intercultural awareness through the teaching of *Culture*.

As for assessment and evaluation, Coyle, Holmes and King (2009, p. 20) affirm that “usually the methods used to assess learning outcomes in CLIL tend to depend exclusively on local decisions within schools”. These authors also recognise that the kinds of assessment vary according to who is teaching the course and how CLIL contributes to the curriculum overall. Hence, teachers distinguish several forms of evaluating students’ achievements. They try to combine formal and informal assessment, where formal assessment includes tests and exams to evaluate learners’ knowledge or ability, and informal assessment refers to a collection of information by means of observation, students’ participation and discussion within the classroom (Rowntree, 1981, p. 94 as cited in Hönig, 2009, p. 7).

The difference between CLIL evaluation and other types of assessment rests on the problem of integrating the evaluation of students’ achievement in the subject-matter and in language. According to Vollmer (2001, p. 207 as cited in Hönig, 2009, p. 26), teachers try to concentrate on the evaluation of content while neglecting the target language. In contrast, the CLIL Compendium (2002) recommends the inclusion of language in assessment. In this respect, caused mainly by the numerous problems found in CLIL assessment, some authors (Ernst, 1995; Schmid-Schönbein and Sigismund, 1998 as cited in Hönig, 2009, p. 4) criticise the lack of publications and research on this issue. Thus,

Vollmer argues that assessment in CLIL is almost an unexplored field and claims that “we know next to nothing about assessment in bilingual lessons” (2001, p. 207 as cited in Hönig, 2009, p. 4).

This complicated situation of assessment in CLIL is also discussed by Otto (2018), who claims that the dual nature of CLIL make teachers commonly doubt on what to focus when evaluating: content, language, or both (Otto, 2018, p. 310). Several factors such as the CLIL model, the subject taught and the teacher’s skills, affect the choice of the most suitable form of assessment. In spite of the lack of standard assessment criteria, this author distinguishes between two different approaches to language evaluation: discrete and integrated assessment. While the former considers language and content separately, in the latter, language and content are assessed simultaneously, that is, language is used as the instrument through which learners can show their knowledge and skills in relation to both content and language (Marsh, Marshland, and Stenberg, 2001, p. 12 as cited in Otto, 2018, p. 312). Regardless of the choice, language issues must always be treated in a functional way, emphasising “the role of language in the construction of academic discourse” (Otto, 2018, p. 320).

2.2.5.6. Objectives

Although some of the main goals pursued by CLIL can be easily inferred from the previous sections, we are going to deepen into three objectives which must always be borne in mind when implementing a CLIL programme. Firstly, it is important to highlight that in CLIL “content goals are supported by language goals” (Mehisto, Marsh and Frigols, 2008, p. 11). Hence, apart from achieving an adequate level of knowledge in the subject-matter, students are expected to increase their language competence (Dalton-Puffer, 2007; Jarvinen, 2006; Mehisto, Marsh and Frigols, 2008). Directly related to this goal, CLIL also seeks students to improve in oral communication skills (Coyle, 2006; Dalton-Puffer, 2007), and it pursues the attainment of a grade-appropriate functional proficiency in listening, speaking, reading and writing in the CLIL language (Mehisto, Marsh and Frigols, 2008, p. 12).

Another CLIL objective is that students can understand and appreciate other cultures associated with the CLIL language and with the student’s first language

(Mehisto, Marsh and Frigols, 2008, p. 12). In that way, students will develop some feelings of self-awareness and respect, they will identify more clearly their purpose of learning and their motivation will be increased. As a consequence, intercultural competence and linguistic tolerance will be developed as well (Coyle, 2006; Dalton-Puffer, 2007).

Finally, it is worth mentioning that another important goal in CLIL is the achievement of the cognitive and social skills and habits required for success in an ever-changing world (Mehisto, Marsh and Frigols, 2008, p. 12). Since language occupies the main role in personal relations, the ability to manage in difficult communicative situations constitutes one of the basic skills that all our students must control (Lorenzo, 2019, p. 2). Thus, Coyle, Hood and Marsh (2010) claim that, among CLIL's objectives, advances in cognition and encouragement of thinking skills are also contemplated.

2.2.5.7. Assets

The assets or advantages CLIL presents in contrast to traditional teaching practices, which are directly linked to the objectives mentioned above (cf. Section 2.2.5.6), will be dealt with in this section.

Firstly, it is obvious that the most general advantage in CLIL is that students involved in this teaching practice are extensively prepared and skilled to cope with their future studies and their future working life. Thus, CLIL affords a unique opportunity to prepare learners for global citizenship. As Marsh (2000, p. 10) documents: "CLIL offers one additional means by which to give our youngsters the opportunities to develop their capacity to use language and to reap the benefits in their present and future lives". In the same vein, Harrop (2012, p. 67) affirms,

CLIL certainly has the potential to lead to greater intercultural awareness than traditional content or language teaching. [...]. Its integration of context, language and cognition creates the perfect environment to encourage reflection and self-awareness, while allowing learners to re-appropriate the language as a learning tool in their own context [...]. With the growing need for a genuinely global sense of citizenship, this dimension of CLIL programmes is probably its most valuable asset and one that cannot afford to come second to the more practical aims of enhancing linguistic proficiency.

This advantage is mainly caused by the natural environment teachers try to construct in order for students to learn in a meaningful context. That is, with the creation of such an authentic and meaningful communicative context, the approach offers a naturalistic environment where the FL can be more readily acquired while the focus is on meaning (Lightbrown and Spada, 2006). Students are, then, directly exposed to real communication, which will help them to obtain efficient functional language proficiency (Várkuti, 2010).

In addition to the upgrade of linguistic and communicative competence (Coyle, Hood and Marsh, 2010; Dalton-Puffer, 2007), students acquire a profound knowledge of the subject-matter. As they study content by using a language different from their mother tongue, they also develop a more sophisticated cognitive and mental agility. In this sense, Coyle (1997¹ as cited in Marsh, 2002, p. 69) claims: “We have evidence that it develops their analytic, reflective, and hypothesising skills and all that encourages them to become much greater risk-takers in terms of their linguistic self-confidence”. Hence, students are provided with opportunities to study content through different perspectives (Marsh, 2002, p. 68). Additionally, CLIL will encourage them to recognise different ways of interpreting the world (Vázquez, 2007). Marsh (2000, p. 10) also speaks about 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”.

Taking all this background into account, students’ motivation in CLIL is higher than in any other traditional teaching method. Learners are aware of their progress and they become more self-confident and motivated. In this sense, Hüttner and Rieder-Bünemann (2007, p. 26) affirm that “a higher level of motivation might be assumed to exist in the CLIL group children”. Furthermore, Marsh, Marsland and Stenberg claim “CLIL is about using languages to learn. [...] It is about installing a ‘hunger to learn’ in the student. It gives opportunity for him/her to think about and develop how (s)he communicates in general, even in the first language” (2001 as cited in Rodríguez Bonces, 2012, p. 187). In the same vein, Ramírez Verdugo (2010, p. 18) explains that “CLIL is content-oriented and it highlights communication-focused language learning”, which, together with the enhanced chances for classroom interaction, promote “individual

¹ Quotation from InterTalk, 1997. University of Jyväskylä, Finland

learning strategies and interactive methodologies and lead to increased learner motivation, bringing additional benefits for learning”.

However, it is not only among CLIL students that motivation increases. As Coyle (2006, p. 11) claims, “one of the most powerful findings of CLIL groups centres on increased motivation in both learners and teachers”. Hence, teachers’ motivation is also higher due to the fact that they have the opportunity to update their knowledge and skills, taking part in what is called life-long learning. Moreover, collaboration between teachers in CLIL is a key point to foster educators’ motivation as well. By working collaboratively, teachers can witness their improvements within the classroom, making students benefit from a higher quality teaching (Marsh, 2002).

2.2.5.8. Pitfalls

Apart from the benefits that CLIL programmes present, the stakeholders involved in the CLIL process have to face some problems. As Mehisto says: “CLIL is such a complex task that it can malfunction” (2008, p. 108 as cited in Bruton, 2013, p. 588). Thus, some of the most significant deficits found in this teaching approach will be covered in this section.

To start with, it is worth mentioning that at the beginning, CLIL was painted as the most positive methodology and it was “embraced quickly and enthusiastically by all stakeholders: parents, students, language/educational policy-makers all over the world, but especially in Europe” (Lasagabaster and Doiz, 2016, p. 110). However, with the appearance of the so-called “pendulum effect” in the CLIL scenario (Pérez Cañado, 2016d), the general opinion on the approach has completely changed. According to this author, CLIL initially had an exponential uptake, but in the past five years “the pendulum has swung to the other extreme (Pérez Cañado, 2016d, p. 3). In this respect, other researchers like Paran (2013), Bruton (2011b, 2013, 2015), Cabezas Cabello (2010) or Cenoz, Genesee and Gorter (2013), have started to question several aspects of CLIL related to its characterisation, investigation and implementation (Pascual Bajo, 2018, p. 124).

In the last few years, CLIL has been criticised for its “convenient vagueness” (Bruton, 2013, p. 588) and its “ill-defined nature” (Paran, 2013, p. 318), since it is

terminologically unclear. As Pérez Cañado (2016c, p. 5) explains: “the prevalent tendency was to distill the core features which differentiate CLIL from other types of immersion approaches and which make it a FL teaching trend in its own right”. Nevertheless, many authors such as Somers and Surmont (2012), Cenoz, Genesee and Gorter (2013), Hüttner and Smit (2014), Cenoz (2015), and Cenoz and Ruiz de Zarobe (2015) consider this practice to be too reductionist and they propose a more inclusive posture of the approach, avoiding giving “a detailed, theoretically “tight” definition of what is (not) CLIL” (Hüttner and Smit, 2014, p. 164) (cf. Section 2.2.3.).

Other problems have to do with important structural difficulties in CLIL implementation. In Mehisto’s words (2008 as cited in Harrop, 2012, p. 58): “from a lack of sustainable teacher supply and insufficient pre- or in-service training, to the difficulties in sourcing teaching materials and overcoming parental reluctance, the road to CLIL is not straightforward, even for the most committed”. It is then confirmed that CLIL disadvantages are more closely linked to the teaching staff than to students (Pérez Cañado, 2012); that is to say, assets are chiefly allied to students, whereas teachers face pitfalls.

On the one hand, when dealing with students, the general disadvantage they have to confront is the lack of adaptation to the new teaching methodology. Students may feel frustrated in the learning environment, especially if they do not attain the right level of foreign language. This would result in discouragement in general, curbing learning processes.

On the other hand, as regards teachers, there is a shortage of teacher training, lack of necessary materials to use within the classroom and ignorance of the precise methods to assess students. To all this, we must add the increased workload for teachers as another common obstacle on the road to good CLIL practice (Mehisto, Marsh and Frigols, 2008, p. 20).

As for the deficits in teacher training, Mehisto, Marsh and Frigols (2008, p. 21) acknowledge that “teacher training institutions in many countries do not yet specifically prepare teachers for CLIL”. These authors also affirm that “not all teachers are prepared to focus on content and language goals” (2008, p. 21). In the same vein, it is also important to mention that prospective teachers are not always skilled enough to cope with a CLIL classroom. As Lorenzo (2008 as cited in Harrop, 2012, p. 64) claims, “often CLIL

teachers lack a sufficiently wide repertoire to put academic content into an interlanguage that is understandable, stretching and sound from a content perspective”. Moreover, some teachers believe that increased exposure to the target language can have a detrimental effect on the L1 or content subject knowledge, and some of them are not able to adapt CLIL teaching strategies to all types of learners.

More recently, Pérez Cañado (2016a) carried out a European macro-study on the training needs of in-service teachers. Her main aim was to find out which necessities are the most important for the teacher cohort, taking into consideration the process of adaptation they have to undergone to achieve a successful CLIL teaching. After analysing the data obtained from the questionnaires administered, it was concluded that a considerable amount of instructors did not feel well-prepared to successfully teach through the CLIL methodology. One of the possible causes for this is the quick expansion of CLIL throughout all educational levels, which results in teacher training institutions being unable to cope with the rising demand, leaving the specific training needs aside. Moreover, the subjects which schools offer to be taught through CLIL depend on many occasions on the availability of teachers. As a result, a shortage of instructors may cause inconsistencies or even discontinuity of CLIL programmes. Although some measures have already been taken to deal with this issue, “these actions have been insufficient to prepare practitioners to step up confidently to the CLIL challenge” (Pérez Cañado and Ráez Padilla, 2015, p. 7).

In spite of being encouraging, CLIL has proved to be overwhelming for many teachers, who sometimes feel frustrated as they are not well prepared to devote the time and energy demanded by this approach. They are often asked to upgrade their competence in the foreign language, they need to spend more time preparing lessons, they have to design and develop their own CLIL resources and they need to cooperate with colleagues in order to reach success. That is why many teachers are, of late, feeling reluctant to take part in a bilingual section, as they lack of suitable training and do not feel secure on how to teach. As Järvinen points out (2006, p. 2), some teachers simply change the language of instruction without making a complete shift of the teaching strategies. The same idea is supported by Pavón Vázquez and Ellison (2013, p. 70), who explain that many content teachers “are not aware of the methodological changes required in the bilingual classes”.

This lack of training and information may lead stakeholders to not understand the general concept of CLIL, which can also accrue in negative attitudes towards

bilingualism. As Mehisto, Marsh and Frigols (2008, p. 20) point out, there are many instructors nowadays who think that pupils “studying a second language cannot possibly learn the same amount of content as studying in the first language”. This thought is also shared by those people who are not familiarised with the approach or who do not understand the concept of transversality, for whom the educational subjects must be studied separately as independent entities.

Elitism has also been another label attached to CLIL throughout the years, as this methodology is thought to be suitable only for gifted students. Some publications have supported this tendency claiming that there is a “disguised selectivity in the approach” (Pascual Bajo, 2018, p. 126). In this sense, Bruton (2013, p. 594) upholds that “structural selectivity of CLIL appears to have a greater impact on student achievement than CLIL itself has on student achievement”. Paran (2013, p. 326) also claims that “the issue of self-selection is likely to mean higher initial competence as well as higher motivation”.

Another shortcoming affects methodological practices. These involve the necessity of teachers to be familiar with new technologies and innovative advances in education, together with the lack of CLIL materials. As regards teaching instruments in CLIL, it is worth mentioning that teachers are sometimes forced to create their own. They do not possess suitable materials to use within the classroom and they cannot follow a specific lesson plan.

In the case of assessment and evaluation (cf. Section 2.2.5.5.), we have already mentioned that the problem lies in the establishment of adequate criteria and on the use of suitable evaluation instruments. Again, teachers can make wrong decisions on what should be assessed and how it should be evaluated.

As a conclusion, what is clear is that, in order to achieve successful results in CLIL classrooms and in order to avoid the aforementioned pitfalls, clearer CLIL guidelines have to be developed. The present study will attempt to contribute to pushing CLIL implementation forward and to shedding light on the aspects which seem to be more problematic. Thus, as Lasagabaster (2008, p. 40) said: “neither optimistic nor alarming viewpoints should be accepted unless they are supported by empirical evidence. Therefore, the more research data there is available, the more theoretically sound the decisions made will be”.

CHAPTER III:

CLIL RESEARCH AND IMPLEMENTATION

3.1. CLIL in Europe

3.1.1. Introduction

Having expounded on the antecessors of CLIL, its main characteristics, and its principal goals, and having delved deeper into its assets and pitfalls, in this section the evolution of CLIL within the European scenario will be traced. Moreover, the main studies carried out in the different European countries will be commented on, focusing on their principal findings.

As Mehisto, Marsh and Frigols (2008, p. 10) document, “in Europe today, there is a desire to improve language learning opportunities for all young people in order to increase European cohesion and competitiveness”. That is why CLIL is being implemented in almost all the educational systems of Europe (Wolff, 2002 as cited in Pérez Cañado, 2012, p. 319). According to Fortanet Gómez and Ruiz Garrido (2009, p. 53), most EU countries offer some CLIL provision, either within mainstream Primary, Secondary or Tertiary Education or as part of experimental project or pilot studies. As a consequence, Lorenzo (2007, p. 29) states that “as an offshoot of bilingual education, CLIL brought better language education to the European arena”. This “explosion of interest” (Coyle, 2006, p. 2) in CLIL has resulted in this method having “an exponential uptake across Europe over the past two decades, gradually becoming an established teaching approach” (Järvinen, 2006 as cited in Pérez Cañado, 2012, p. 316).

Since the early 1990s, European Union language policies have shown a growing need to adopt an educational model considering the diversity of European programmes and ensuring that everyone can become proficient in several languages (Ruiz de Zarobe and Jiménez Catalán, 2009, p. xi). In this sense, Dalton-Puffer and Nikula (2006 as cited in Pérez Cañado, 2012, p. 315) affirm that “from 2003 onwards, a truly international research scene focusing on CLIL has started to evolve”. However, in spite of these policies and investigations, Wolff (2005) considers that research on CLIL is still in its

early stages. As Paran (2013, p. 317) affirms “the supporters and promoters of CLIL position it as a near panacea and attribute to it a large number of benefits, not all of which are supported by research”. Likewise, Tudor (2008, p. 55 as cited in Pérez Cañado, 2012, p. 316) points out that “the significant expansion of CLIL in recent years has not been supported by a comparable level of research”. Thus, we must interpret all the positive affirmations about its implementation cautiously (Lancaster, 2015, p. 65).

3.1.2. CLIL research in Europe

CLIL practice has spread rapidly in the past ten years, currently spanning the continent from North to South, and from East to West (Pérez Cañado, 2012 p. 319). In this section, an analysis of how CLIL is being implemented in every country within the European continent will be presented and the most important studies carried out in countries where CLIL provision exists will be summarised. Following Pérez Cañado’s classification, the countries will be grouped according to geographical proximity.

To start with, we will analyse the research developed in **Northern Europe** (Finland, Sweden, Norway and Estonia) since in these countries, the investigations have primarily focused on the effects of CLIL on foreign language and mother tongue competence, on subject matter learning, and on stakeholder perspectives (Pérez Cañado, 2012, p. 320). Thus, the first country to be examined will be *Finland*, because it offers ample research on CLIL, providing us with sound findings in the form of longitudinal, quantitative, qualitative and descriptive research (Lancaster, 2015, p. 70). Research shows a clear improvement in L2 skills, whereas the L1 is not negatively affected. Among the pitfalls which have been discovered, the most common ones are the deficit of adequate materials and scarce teacher training.

David Marsh is the most important scholar working in Finland. Although he is not renowned for his research, he has become a major contributor to the European CLIL scene by leading the creation of various networks of CLIL practitioners and scholars across the continent, organising conferences and seminars, conceiving the CLIL Consortium, creating CLIL resources and widely theorising on the approach (Fortanet Gómez and Ruiz Garrido, 2009 as cited in Pascual Bajo, p. 132).

Other authors such as Romu and Sjöberg-Heino (1999) and Södegard (2006) also contribute to the analysis of Finnish CLIL making an evaluation of CLIL programmes from a qualitative point of view, probing the students' points of view at Primary level. The results of their research show positive attitudes, satisfaction and increased confidence on the part of pupils (Romu and Sjöberg-Heino, 1999; Södegard, 2006 as cited in Pérez Cañado, 2012, p. 321).

Moreover, Bergroth (2006), Järvinen (1999, 2005) and Merisuo-Storm (2006) all favourably defend the implementation of CLIL. The first researcher conducted a study with Secondary Education students focusing not only on the L2 but also on the mother tongue, L3 development and on content knowledge. CLIL was revealed to have no negative effect on L1 and subject learning. Moreover, the bilingual cohort superseded the EFL stream in L2 and L3 skills. In the case of Järvinen (1999, 2005), the syntax acquired by English Medium Instruction (EMI) students was evaluated together with the syntax learned by monolingual students, concluding that there are statistically significant differences in favour of the bilingual cohorts. However, the homogeneity of the groups was not guaranteed. In turn, Merisuo-Storm (2006, 2007) evaluated the effects of CLIL on literacy skills development. This longitudinal study revealed attitudes towards reading and writing are not influenced, but students enrolled in a CLIL programme have a more positive attitude towards FL learning. It was also shown that CLIL has no detrimental effect on L1 learning. One year earlier, Jäppinen (2005) studied thinking and learning processes in Mathematics and Science teaching through a FL, obtaining favourable results for thinking and content learning in those subjects. Thus, it was evinced that CLIL environments are initially more challenging, but they create favourable conditions for successful subject matter acquisition (Ruiz de Zarobe, 2015, p. 54).

One year later, Seikkula-Leino (2007) conducted a research project to analyse the effects of CLIL on the L1 and the students' self-concept and motivation to learn. 217 students learning Mathematics through CLIL and 101 learners following a traditional EFL programme took part in the project. No statistically significant differences were found regarding the students' performance in their mother tongue or the content subject. Nevertheless, the number of overachievers in the CLIL group was found to be lower. Thus, the author pointed out that "learning in CLIL can be so challenging that the maximal outcome of content learning is not always reached" (Seikkula-Leino, 2007, p. 338). As for the motivation among students and their self-esteem, no statistically

significant differences were found either between cohorts. However, CLIL students consider themselves weaker FL learners despite having a stronger motivation towards the FL and learning in general.

Last but not least, one of the most recent research projects carried out in Finland is the one developed by Nikula, Skinnari and Märd-Miettinen (2022). As part of the broader ADiBE project (Attention to Diversity in Bilingual Education), these authors interviewed CLIL teachers and pupils in order to analyse how diversity is addressed in the classroom in terms of learning paces, learning styles and expectations. Both stakeholders agreed that “equality” is guaranteed, as it is a prevalent ethos of Finnish education. Thus, all students are given the same tasks, the same teaching and they are assessed according to the same criteria (Nikula, Skinnari and Märd-Miettinen, 2022, p. 11). However, the principle of “equity” was not similarly highlighted. In this respect, CLIL classes seem to be less heterogeneous than mainstream classrooms, since they tend to comprise the higher achievers. However, students criticised being treated as a homogeneous group, and asked for a more personalised support on the part of their educators.

In the case of *Sweden*, Airey (2004) comments on the scarcity of CLIL research and reports a lack of significant differences between monolingual classes and CLIL regarding FL competence. On the contrary, some differences appeared in a study carried out by Sylvén (2004) in Secondary Education, where the acquisition of vocabulary by both CLIL and traditional groups was tested throughout two years, concluding that the bilingual groups clearly outperformed their non-CLIL peers. This increased external exposure to reading in the FL can be one of the main causes which explain the superior results obtained by the CLIL cohort. However, the necessary intervening variables were not factored in and discriminant analysis were not performed in the study. Hence, as Pérez Cañado (2012, p. 322) affirms, “Sylvén’s claim remains empirically unsubstantiated”. Another study was carried out by the same researcher in 2006. This time, Sylvén (2006) stresses the importance of making students aware of the positive effects of extra-curricular English exposure on language proficiency and tries to involve parents and teachers in this process. This study was then completed with the collaboration of Sundqvist, concluding that “extramural English activities must be acknowledged in the research as well as in education” (Sundqvist and Sylvén, 2012 as cited in Pérez Cañado, 2012, p. 322).

More recently, Sundqvist and Sylvén (2015) have delved deeper into the topic, trying to establish a connection between formal language learning within CLIL classrooms and informal exposure to the L2 outside the school. The investigation was carried out over the course of a semester with 102 non-CLIL learners belonging to Secondary Education, and different instruments such as a FL diary recording and vocabulary tests were used to collect the data. As a conclusion, it was proved that L2 learning is positively influenced by extramural exposure, where both language and content are learnt naturally in a more informal context. Playing computer games, watching TV and listening to music seemed to be the most popular activities among pupils, whose motivation towards FL learning was also fostered. Moreover, it was statistically confirmed that those learners who devote more time to extramural activities in English tend to obtain higher marks in the language, since “the greater exposure to a language, the easier it is learned” (Sundqvist and Sylvén, 2015, p. 49). Despite these positive results, further investigations on the influence of extramural exposure on FL learning are necessary as it is still a terrain few people have walked through.

The same topic was addressed by these researchers one year later, when they published a book about the impact of extramural exposure on English teaching and learning, combining theory and practice. Based on the results of previous studies, Sundqvist and Sylvén (2016) concluded that both teachers and learners should benefit from these extramural activities: the former ought to take advantage of them as tools for language learning at all educational levels, and the latter should use them to develop their FL skills.

Finally, it is worth mentioning the work carried out by other authors such as Igawa and Yagi (2011), who investigated the 9-year English education system in Sweden’s compulsory Primary schools and explored the diverse perspectives that are supposed to impact English education in Sweden, namely, (1) the linguistic affinities between the L1 (Swedish) and the target language (TL: English), (2) the country’s historical compatibilities with the Anglo-American culture and its current assimilation, (3) the language policies passed after Sweden became a member of the European Union in 1995, and (4) the recommended language teaching approach: CLIL (2011, p. 99). As a result, these authors concluded that Swedish students can benefit from the linguistic affinities existing between their L1 and English, and their motivation has been increased because of the higher influence of Anglo-American culture. The same happens when speaking

about students' instrumental motivation, which is stimulated by Sweden's EU membership. Finally, CLIL is found to be a powerful tool to promote multilingualism in Europe (Igawa and Yagi, 2011, p. 116).

Together with Sweden, the situation of *Norway* is discussed because both countries lean towards conducting more research at Tertiary level (Pérez Cañado, 2012, p. 322). To start with, Hellekjaer (2004) studied the FL proficiency that pupils had acquired by the end of upper Secondary Education and whether they were sufficiently prepared to face CLIL courses in higher education. After sitting the IELTS Reading for Academic Purposes Test, it was shown that three quarters of the CLIL cohort obtained satisfactory results, while only one third of EFL students did so. Thus, Hellekjaer (2004) ended his study by praising CLIL as a solution to the problems which traditional FL teaching had often presented. Moreover, this author acknowledged the necessity of developing similar studies taking into account not only reading, but all the skills.

Also at Tertiary level, Airey and Linder (2006) in Sweden, and Hellekjaer (2010) in Norway coincided in finding problems with lecture comprehension in English-medium instruction. Although both studies evaluated the students' comprehension level in CLIL university lectures taught through English, the research carried out in Norway worked with a much larger sample than the Swedish investigation. As a result, some solutions were proposed, including increased attention to curriculum planning and improvement of teacher lecturing techniques (Airey and Linder, 2006; Hellekjaer, 2010 as cited in Pérez Cañado, 2012, p. 322).

Moving on to *Estonia*, a great deal of qualitative research has been carried out. Questionnaires, interviews and class observation were used in the study developed by Mehisto and Asser (2007) to analyse stakeholder perspectives in CLIL programmes. A great success of CLIL practice was revealed and satisfaction, commitment and engagement were registered for all the stakeholders. The only negative aspect was related to teachers and parents, who asked for more support and cooperation among themselves.

As for **Central European** countries (The Netherlands, Germany, Switzerland and Austria), it is worth mentioning that all of them have actively participated in investigating how CLIL is developing.

The Netherlands is an example of remarkable CLIL investigation. In addition to the Maastricht-based research group led by Wilkinson, focusing mainly on higher

education, some other scholars such as Admiraal, Westhoff and De Graaff deserve to be mentioned because of their solid studies into the topic. On their behalf, Admiraal, Westhoff and De Bot (2006) are worthy of mention due to their longitudinal study developed with Secondary Education students who had received four years of CLIL education through English in five Dutch schools. They measured vocabulary knowledge, reading comprehension level and oral proficiency, taking into account students' gender, home language, motivation and entry ability level as identification variables. As a result, they found that higher scores were obtained for the oral and reading parts of the investigation whereas no differences appeared when dealing with vocabulary. No negative effects were either found for subject matter learning or the L1. Nevertheless, the study lacks statistical analyses that would allow the outcomes to be attributed to CLIL instruction (Admiraal, Westhoff and De Bot, 2006, p. 91 as cited in Pérez Cañado, 2012, p. 324).

Moreover, in 2007, De Graaff, Koopman and Westhoff complement their previous study with a qualitative investigation aimed at identifying effective L2 pedagogy in CLIL settings using an originally designed observation tool. They created what they called “SLA-penta-pie”, which was used for analysing effective language teaching, relating it to five basic assumptions: the teacher facilitates the exposure to input at a challenging level, paying attention not only to meaning but also to form. (S)he also gives opportunities for output production and strategy use. After observing and analysing nine lessons across six different CLIL subjects using this instrument, they concluded that the whole range of teaching performance indicators could be observed in Dutch teaching practice (Pérez Cañado, 2012, p. 324).

Close to the Netherlands, in a Dutch-speaking part of Belgium, an investigation on the effects of CLIL on subject content learning was developed by Surmont et al. (2016). A total of 170 students belonging to first year of CSE participated in the study, taking three mathematical tests: one at the beginning of the school year, one after three months and the last one ten months later. The first test did not yield significant differences among students, while in the second exam CLIL students presented a superior mathematical performance, which indicates that CLIL fosters not only language learning but also content acquisition.

In *Germany*, Wolff (2002 as cited in Pérez Cañado, 2012, p. 324) points to the necessity for more investigation, particularly in terms of language outcomes, since

research in this country is not as abundant as in The Netherlands. Nevertheless, despite this lack of research, by 2007 there were 827 bilingual programmes functioning throughout 16 federal states, some of which dated back to the 1960s.

In this country, some important studies have been conducted in the field of CLIL. One of the earliest investigations was developed by Wode (1999), who noted that CLIL students produce as good as or better results in subject matter development. Furthermore, CLIL pupils have a higher target language level. Two decades later, one of the most remarkable researchers in the country, Zydatiņ (2007), led an investigation with 180 16-years old students in Berlin, testing grammatical, lexical and communicative competences, as well as subject-matter literacy. This study, apart from corroborating Wode's findings, showed that students participating in CLIL had a higher level of lexical and grammatical knowledge.

More recently, two other content-oriented investigations have been carried out in Germany, calling into question the superiority of CLIL. On the one hand, in 2016, Piesche et al. developed a project investigating the impact of CLIL instruction on students' content learning in Physics. A randomly chosen number of 722 students in Secondary Education were asked to study a unit in the Physics subject taught either in their L1 or in English and their L1, and completed a content test which incorporated some intervening variables such as students' demographic background, general cognitive ability, physics pre-knowledge, English ability, motivation and instructional quality. After evaluating them at three points in time, it was discovered that the monolingual participants performed slightly better than the bilingual pupils at the post-test phase and at follow-up six weeks later. This means that the learning benefits of non-CLIL students were greater than the ones obtained by CLIL participants.

On the other hand, Dallinger et al. (2016) conducted an evaluation of FL skills and subject content knowledge of CLIL and non-CLIL Secondary students. Among the variables included in the research we can mention pupils' general abilities, prior achievement, motivation, demographics and quality of instruction, and teacher characteristics. A general English test was used to assess attainment and a specifically designed History test was also administered. Significant differences were found between the CLIL and monolingual groups, which were at first attributed to the selection processes present in CLIL programmes. Thus, CLIL students presented better prior achievement and motivation in the FL, as well as higher socioeconomic status (SES) and superior

cognitive abilities. Although CLIL students showed better listening comprehension skills, no significant differences were detected when dealing with general English skills and subject content knowledge in the History subject. As a conclusion, the researchers suggest that CLIL groups need a greater amount of instruction to reach the same level of content knowledge than non-CLIL classrooms. Hence, the suitability of CLIL programmes is called into question.

One year later, Rumlich (2017) carried out a quasi-experimental longitudinal study to examine the EFL proficiency of 1,000 students enrolled in high-intensity CLIL programmes in German Secondary schools. The investigation, which incorporated important variables such as prior knowledge, interest in the EFL subject, EFL self-concept, verbal intelligence and exposure to the target language, concluded that CLIL instruction was not the reason behind most of the beneficial results found, with the exception of the improved self-concept of pupils. In his own words: “the observable differences with regard to general EFL proficiency cannot be attributed to CLIL, however. Rather, they are a direct consequence of CLIL related-selection, preparation, and class composition intended to help students master the challenges of CLIL” (Rumlich, 2017, p. 128).

To conclude the focus on Germany, the research conducted by Siepmann, Rumlich, Matz and Römhild (2021) must be foregrounded. Using the ADiBE instruments (cf. Pérez Cañado, Rascón Moreno and Cueva López, 2021), this mixed-methods investigation aimed to analyse students’ and teachers’ perspectives on differentiation and diversity in CLIL classrooms in North Rhine-Westphalia, Germany. A total of 31 teachers and 595 students participated and shared their experiences concerning methods, materials, groupings and techniques to cater to diversity and foster the academic success of all learners. The results showed that differentiation and diverse support is usually offered by teachers, who are no longer seen as the centre of the class. However, some disagreement arose with respect to teachers’ adequate knowledge on how to cater for diversity. Moreover, a significant lack of suitable materials that are useful for all learning needs was acknowledged by both stakeholders, who also offered a negative outlook on assessment. Hence, the authors underline that further research is needed in this respect, and particular attention should be given to heterogeneity in CLIL classrooms.

Switzerland’s studies focus on the effects of CLIL on oral competence. In this sense, 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 Primary school. The results showed that the decision of introducing English at Secondary level was positive, making CLIL students able to outperform the non-immersion stream. Yet, the outcomes for language production and interaction were more inconclusive.

A similar analysis of spoken proficiency was carried out by Gassner and Maillat (2006) with a late immersion programme in a high school in Geneva. They investigated and analysed pragmatic and discursive competence, pragmatic effect and the teaching environment. By means of audio and video recordings, together with student interviews, they revealed contradictory outcomes in comparison to Stotz and Meuter's (2003).

Other researchers such as Serra (2007) and Stehler (2006 as cited in Pérez Cañado, 2012, p. 325) concluded that CLIL students outperformed their non-CLIL counterparts in subject content knowledge, whereas the latter found no significant differences between experimental and control groups. Thus, Stehler reached the conclusion that CLIL has neither a positive nor a negative influence on the acquisition of knowledge.

Researchers in *Austria* have focused their interest on narrative competence and lexical proficiency. However, Pérez Cañado (2012, p. 325) highlights some flaws in these studies, having to do with the homogeneity of the experimental and control groups, and the scarcity of statistically significant differences between the groups considered.

On the one hand, Ackerl (2007) conducted a study analysing a total of ten essays in the Austrian university entrance exam and reached the conclusion that CLIL learners produced more complex sentences with a greater variety of tenses and more diversified vocabulary than non-CLIL pupils, although they did not make fewer mistakes. These results coincide to some extent with those obtained by Hüttner and Rieder-Bünemann (2007, 2010), who found that CLIL pupils presented more advanced skills in linguistic cohesion and thematic coherence through the narrative. Furthermore, the outcomes obtained by Seregély (2008) and Jexenflicker and Dalton-Puffer (2010) as cited in Pérez Cañado (2012), are congruent with Ackerl's (2007) results. They concluded that CLIL has a beneficial effect on students since bilingual students have better language ability and they present better written skills.

More recently, Bauer-Marschallinger et al. (2021) published another study on CLIL development in the Austrian context. By means of the questionnaires and the

interview guides created for the ADiBE project (cf. Pérez Cañado, Rascón Moreno and Cueva López, 2021), this research aimed at exploring “teachers’ and students’ self-reported experiences in Austrian CLIL classrooms with regard to the phenomenon of diversity and the pedagogical practices addressing it” (Bauer-Marschallinger et al., 2021, p. 1).

Three Secondary Viennese schools with two classes each participated in the study, with a total of 132 students answering the questionnaires. The group interviews were carried out in each of the participating classes and eight teachers from the same centres were also interviewed. Teachers from the same schools and from other institutions were also asked to answer the questionnaires. A distinction was made in the investigation between pupils following two different schooling programmes: AHS and HTL. The former includes more academic training while the latter refers to higher technical colleges where students develop more practical activities.

Generally speaking, the outcomes showed that, although learners initially rejected the idea of having different ability levels, they acknowledged that the existing weaknesses and strengths could complement each other. In turn, teachers seemed to be more aware of the differences in language and content skills. Thus, CLIL classes were reported to be less diverse in terms of academic abilities than mainstream classes. As for the language support received during the CLIL lessons, students were much more optimistic than teachers, although educators were found to be more positive when referring to content support, since they claimed to design their lessons and materials to cater for different learner types. The L1 (German) was used for content scaffolding. According to teachers, the use of the L1 was not directly related to the individual learner differences but to the difficulty of the content taught, something that students positively valued, as the use of L1 in class guarantees their complete understanding of new content.

Greater teacher optimism arose when asked about cooperative learning. In this respect, pair work, group work and peer help were mentioned as common practices to balance out different learning paces and ability levels. More specifically, the AHS interviewees were more convinced that their lessons were learner-oriented than the HTL ones. Hence, AHS participants claimed to make a more frequent use of action-based worksheets, gamification, task-based learning and competence-based learning. HTL teachers, on their part, also considered to implement a student-centred methodology, but with them acting as a guide. These pupils, then, did not perceive CLIL classes as more

focused on the learner, and they would appreciate more independent and group work in bilingual classes.

As a conclusion, despite the study's limitations, this first endeavour to analyse "diversity in Austrian CLIL practices" (Bauer-Marschallinger et al., 2021, p. 11) shows there are different perceptions on the part of teachers and students. That is why the authors make a plea for a greater explicitness by both stakeholders: teachers must make their pedagogies more visible to students, who must also transmit their own perspectives on how classes are developed.

In **Eastern Europe**, cases such as the *Czech Republic*, *Poland*, *Hungary* and *Greece* will be examined. These countries have based their research on identifying the most outstanding models being applied in CLIL education across each country (Pérez Cañado, 2012, p. 325). Thus, Novotná and Hofmannová (2007) in the *Czech Republic* tried to contribute to these studies by publishing a descriptive account of CLIL from a Czech perspective. The current situation is outlined, the country's specific CLIL goals are established, teachers' situation is considered and curriculum and methodological aspects are expounded on.

In *Poland*, Luczywek (2009) is worthy of mention, together with Czura, Papaja and Urbaniak (2009), who reported on the outcomes of a qualitative project (known as the Profile Project), whose main aim was to probe bilingual scheme results throughout the country. They used classroom observation and interviews with students and staff. They concluded that, despite the assets associated to CLIL, stakeholders called for greater networking with schools abroad, increased teamwork, external support and enhanced teacher training. Problems with materials were also documented.

Kovács (2005) and Bognár (1999) are the most outstanding researchers within the *Hungarian* scenario. The latter carried out another qualitative appraisal of CLIL programmes, in which she tried to support CLIL implementation in this country, revealing satisfying results on the completion of five-year programmes. Bognár equally documented that 65%-100% of CLIL students are accepted by higher education institutions, and prestigious universities also recognise the value of bilingual projects and CLIL experiences (Pérez Cañado, 2012, p. 326).

In *Greece*, little research has been developed since CLIL has been recently implemented in the country. Mattheoudakis, Alexiou and Laskaridou (2014) assessed

“Greece’s first official attempt to introduce CLIL in state Primary Education” (p. 1). The study worked with a small sample of Primary students who had taken part in a CLIL programme for one year. After this year of CLIL instruction, their English language competence and their content knowledge in Geography were examined using different research tools, concretely, three Geography tests and an English language test focused on receptive skills. The results indicated that both CLIL and non-CLIL students achieve similar scores in the subject content, with bilingual learners obtaining better results in two out of the three tests used. This confirmed that the use of English as the medium of instruction does not exert a detrimental effect on content learning. As for language performance, the results of the English tests, which were administered twice, evinced that both CLIL and non-CLIL pupils improved their scores in the second test. However, the difference between language test 1 and 2 in the CLIL group was higher, which indicated higher language gains for the CLIL cohort. All these outcomes support the extension and continuation of CLIL programmes to other Primary schools in Greece.

Within **Southern European** countries, the case of *Italy* will be expounded on. In this country, Coonan (2007) and Infante, Benvenuto and Lastrucci (2008; 2009) as cited in Pérez Cañado (2012, p. 326), have carried out research on CLIL by using qualitative methods in the form of questionnaires and interviews. All of them coincide in the positive effects of CLIL on the way students learn content, their motivation, and their degree of attention in class. As Lancaster (2015, p. 69) points out: CLIL is considered “a dynamic procedure”. Furthermore, the interviewees consider that CLIL increases cognitive complexity and students’ engagement within the classroom. Some weaknesses were also detected pertaining to the increased workload and the lack of materials. Although CLIL has suffered a slow evolution in Italy due to the country’s decentralised system (Lancaster, 2015, p. 70), another important study has been recently conducted in the country by Yen-Ling Teresa Ting (2022). The study, which is another contribution to the ADiBE project, worked with 129 students enrolled in the international stream. Their contributions were collected in a database where aspects related to language competence, personal growth and general satisfaction, methods, materials, classroom management and scheduling were included. Students felt aware of the multiple benefits studying through a FL has and thought the extra workload was worthwhile. However, they considered the challenge of receiving bilingual instruction would be more manageable if the lessons were

more student-centred, incorporating more inclusive pedagogies (Teresa Ting, 2022, p. 12).

To finish, the special situation of the *United Kingdom* (UK) will be now described. We have situated this country in the last position because of its atypical standpoint concerning languages; that is to say, it has a peculiar situation with respect to CLIL. In this particular scenario, one of the most important figures is Do Coyle, who complains about the lack of substantial empirical research (Pérez Cañado, 2012, p. 322). Hence, in spite of being the country where the most widely adopted language used in CLIL (English) is spoken, language learning in the UK seems to be “in crisis” (Coyle, 2009, p. 17 as cited in Pérez Cañado, 2012, p. 323). In this sense, Ullmann (1999, p. 96) claims that “though interest in bilingual education is increasing across Europe, bilingual sections are rare to find at the best of times and are almost unheard of in the United Kingdom”. Moreover, as a result of leaving the European Union after the “Brexit” referendum in 2016, there has been a complete shift in the attitudes towards multiculturalism or multilingualism, with an unclear future for both teachers and learners.

In spite of this apparent disinterest in foreign languages, CLIL in the UK is also being investigated. In this sense, it is worth mentioning the work of Ullmann (1999) and Wiesemes (2009), who evaluated CLIL provision by means of interviews and classroom observation. The first author interviewed pupils involved in a French CLIL programme at Hockerill State Comprehensive School, and she concluded that CLIL was extremely positive: students presented higher levels of concentration and they had a greater knowledge of the subject matter with a preference to take the exams in the foreign language.

In turn, Wiesemes (2009) supports these effects of CLIL in his evaluation of the Content and Language Integrated Project (CLIP). As Pérez Cañado (2012, p. 323) claims, “using interviews and observation, the author concludes that CLIL comes across as an example of good teaching and learning practices”. However, this study presents some methodological flaws that could fail to substantiate the outcomes obtained. Hence, Pérez Cañado (2012, p. 323) suggests a quantitative control/experimental group design with cohort matching as a methodological improvement.

After summarising the most outstanding research carried out in Europe hitherto, we can conclude that most of the studies show positive results regarding CLIL. It is

evident that CLIL programmes have widely expanded for the past two decades throughout the continent, giving birth to numerous debates and many pieces of literature dealing with it. Hence, the majority of the investigations developed report the success of CLIL in several or most of the aspects after scrutiny (Pérez Cañado, 2012, p. 329). Nevertheless, these studies also present some deficiencies in terms of their homogeneity, the use of adequate variables and valid statistical analyses, which should be rectified (Pérez Cañado, 2012). Apart from these studies, there is no doubt that the necessity of new investigations on CLIL is increasing. As Coyle, Hood and Marsh (2010, p. 149) affirm, “what is certain is that despite the recent surge in evaluative reports, there is much, much more still to investigate”. Likewise, these authors pinpoint many other research topics to address in the near future and they claim “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” (Coyle, Hood and Marsh, 2010, p. 165).

In the next section, the particular case of Spain will be explained.

3.2. CLIL in Spain

3.2.1. Introduction

There is no doubt that Spain is a special country regarding CLIL due to its great diversity. Although “Spain is rapidly becoming one of the European leaders in CLIL practice and research” (Coyle, 2010, p. viii), no single model of this teaching approach exists within the peninsula. This fact is mainly caused by the existence of a decentralised education system, which makes impossible the evolution of well-defined guiding principles for the implementation of CLIL. As every autonomous community has been transferred educational powers, regional authorities are now endorsing plurilingual policies on their own (Fortanet Gómez and Ruiz Garrido, 2009; Fernández Fontecha, 2009 as cited in Pérez Cañado, 2012, p. 327). However, it has been recognised that CLIL is “a field of major growth in Spanish education” (Brüning and Purrmann, 2014, p. 324).

Another factor affecting the implementation of CLIL in the Spanish scenario is its cultural and linguistic diversity. Spain comprises 17 autonomous regions, plus the autonomous cities of Ceuta and Melilla. All of them are guided by a common legislative

framework composed by the Spanish Constitution (1978), The Organic Act on the Right of Education (LODE, 1985), the Organic Law of Education (3rd May, 2006) and the Organic Law for the Improvement of Educational Quality (LOMCE, 2013). However, as has been previously mentioned, every community regulates the adaptation of this law to their territories (Ruiz de Zarobe and Lasagabaster, 2010, p. ix). Thus, in each community, different models of bilingual education have arisen, and they vary significantly from one region to another (Ruiz de Zarobe and Lasagabaster, 2010, p. x).

As a consequence, “drawing an uncomplicated, homogeneous picture of CLIL policy in Spain is an impossibility” (Lasagabaster and Ruiz de Zarobe, 2010, p. 284). As Pérez Cañado (2012, p. 327) affirms, “discrepancies abound and [...] the only trait common to the entire national panorama seems to be that English holds the hegemonic position and that CLIL is no longer an elitist approach in our country”. Nevertheless, other factors such as the number of subjects taught through CLIL, the language level established for students and teachers to take part in a CLIL programme and the amount of language exposure depend on autonomous initiatives and individual school policies. Hence, we are in front of “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, 2011, p. 391).

In spite of these differences, CLIL has undergone a rapid development in our country due to the Spanish government’s desire to foster multilingualism and people’s growing awareness of the need to learn foreign languages, in concordance with European policies. In this respect, Phil Ball already announced at the 2012 CLIL conference in Prague that “CLIL is alive and prospering in Spain” (Brüning and Purmann, 2014, p. 324). Spanish educators have worked to adapt Spanish educational models to the European CLIL scheme and this has appeared in the form of AICLE (Aprendizaje Integrado de Contenidos y Lenguas Extranjeras):

A teaching 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) (Navés and Muñoz, 1999 as cited in Muñoz, 2007, p. 17-18).

In order to fully understand how CLIL is developing within the Spanish country, a distinction between monolingual communities and bilingual regions must be made. On

the one hand, when speaking about *monolingual communities*, we are referring to regions in which Spanish is the official language and education is partly carried out in Spanish and also in one or two foreign languages. On the other hand, *bilingual communities* refer to regions where Spanish is the official language together with another co-official regional language, both of which are obligatory at all educational levels. In these communities, classes are taught in both co-official languages, plus in one or two foreign languages, when CLIL provision exists (Ruiz de Zarobe and Lasagabaster, 2010, p. x).

The prevailing bilingual communities in Spain comprise *The Basque Autonomous Community (BAC)*, *Catalonia*, *Valencia*, *The Balearic Islands* and *Galicia*. *Madrid*, *Extremadura*, *Castilla-La Mancha*, *La Rioja* and *Andalusia* are the predominant monolingual communities which have adopted a CLIL approach.

In the following section, a research background within bilingual communities will be presented. Monolingual communities' situation regarding CLIL research will be expounded on subsequently.

3.2.2. Research in bilingual communities

These communities have been applying a dual-focused education for the last 40 years, something which has helped to pave the way for the CLIL approach. This kind of education developed with co-official languages and foreign languages, which occupied the third place in children's linguistic education. All these programmes obtained very positive results in terms of students' language acquisition.

As Ruiz de Zarobe and Lasagabaster (2010, p. x) claim, "in bilingual communities CLIL has evolved as the best approach to incorporate foreign languages in a system where already two languages need to be accommodated in the curriculum". Nevertheless, although CLIL is consolidating as a trend in these autonomous education systems, they have not implemented the programme in the same way. For example, the Basque Country, Catalonia, the Valencian Community or Galicia are all bilingual communities fostering multilingualism, but following different approaches and models (Ruiz de Zarobe and Lasagabaster, 2010, p. xi).

This will be the objective of the subsequent sections: to explain how CLIL is being implemented in each particular region and what types of research are being conducted in all of them.

3.2.2.1. *The Basque Autonomous Community (BAC)*

This autonomous community is prominently positioned within the Spanish CLIL scenario because of its long and rooted tradition in bilingual teaching and research (Pérez Cañado, 2012, p. 327). Studies here were firstly focused on the region's immersion programmes although a great interest in CLIL started to emerge only a few years ago, as the approach introducing a third language into the curriculum.

At the end of Compulsory Secondary Education (CSE), reaching an adequate Basque competence became a clear goal in the community after the publication of *The Basic Law for the Normalisation of the Use of Basque* in 1982. Nevertheless, apart from Basque and Spanish, the curriculum included a first foreign language, which was normally English. This foreign language was obligatory for all students and was usually taught three hours per week (Ruiz de Zarobe and Jiménez Catalán, 2009, p. 13). In 2003, the *Plurilingual Experience* started within 12 schools of the BAC with the desire of making students communicatively competent in the FL in a bilingual context.

Despite the difficulties found in such a diverse environment, a substantial number of studies have been carried out focusing on various aspects of FL competence, Spanish and Basque competence, content learning and language attitudes (Ruiz de Zarobe and Jiménez Catalán, 2009; Lasagabaster and Ruiz de Zarobe, 2010). Among the investigations which have focused on the linguistic outcomes of CLIL programmes, special attention should be paid to those by Ruiz de Zarobe (2008), who compared longitudinally the oral and written competence of 89 students in their 3rd and 4th year of Secondary Education and at post-compulsory level. The participants were divided into three groups depending on the English programme they followed. Thus, there was a non-CLIL group which followed an EFL programme and did not attend any extra-curricular English lessons, and two CLIL groups, which received EFL instruction plus one or two CLIL subjects, respectively. The results were extremely positive, revealing that CLIL students obtained better outcomes than those peers studying within another kind of

programme. The results of this study provide further evidence on the differences between skills and abilities depending on the approach, also revealed by previous research on CLIL (Jiménez Catalán, Ruiz de Zarobe and Cenoz, 2006; Ruiz de Zarobe, 2007; Ruiz de Zarobe and Jiménez Catalán, 2009 as cited in Ruiz de Zarobe and Lasagabaster, 2010, p. 17).

Similar to the previous study is the one carried out by Lasagabaster in 2008. This researcher compared CLIL and traditional foreign language students. The 198 Secondary students who took part in the investigation were enrolled in four different schools and they had started to learn English at the age of eight. Three groups of students were considered in the investigation: an EFL group in the 4th year of CSE, a CLIL group in the 4th year of CSE and a younger CLIL group in the 3rd year of CSE. Students were tested on the four skills (listening, speaking, grammar and writing). As a result, CLIL students in their 4th year of Secondary Education were clearly shown to outstrip their non-CLIL counterparts. Moreover, a comparison between the third year of Secondary Education students and the older students was made, revealing that the younger CLIL students outperformed the mainstream group on all the skills except for listening. As a conclusion, “the CLIL approach had a clear impact on all language skills and the grammar test analysed in this study when students enrolled in the same grade were compared” (Lasagabaster, 2008 as cited in Ruiz de Zarobe and Lasagabaster, 2010, p. 19).

As for the research about how CLIL students learn subject content, research groups such as The Basque Institute for Evaluation and Research in Education (ISEI-IVEI) and the *Ikastolen Elkartea* network are worthy of mention. The former conducted a longitudinal study in Secondary Education in six out of twelve schools involved in the plurilingual experience, from different territories and settings (Grisaleña, Campo and Alonso, 2009 as cited in Lasagabaster and Ruiz de Zarobe, 2010). Their main goal was to analyse the validity of the CLIL programme and the possibility of using it in other Secondary schools. Furthermore, they wanted to confirm that the programme was able to offer an additional increase in linguistic ability in the foreign language and that content learning was not diminished when taught through a foreign language. The results were also positive. Thus, the ISEI-IVEI concluded that “the plurilingual experience increases the rate of learning the vehicular language, in this case English, and improves the linguistic and communicative competence of the third language. Apart from that, learning

through English does not create any obstacles in content learning” (ISEI-IVEI, 2007 as cited in Ruiz de Zarobe and Lasagabaster, 2010, p. 21).

In turn, the study carried out by the *Ikastolen Elkartea*, which is a network of private schools in which Basque is the means of instruction and Spanish is only taught as a subject, demonstrated that teaching Social Sciences through English does not impede students from explaining in Basque the contents they have previously learnt in the foreign language (Ikastolen Elkarteko Eleanitz-Ingelesa Taldea, 2003 as cited in Ruiz de Zarobe and Lasagabaster, 2010, p. 21). The study worked with a total of 476 students in their third year of Compulsory Secondary Education, divided into experimental and control groups, who completed a Social Science Test in Basque. CLIL students were taught Social Sciences in English, although the level of exposure to the language varied. Moreover, CLIL teachers had different qualifications and extra methodological support. That is the reason why the experimental and the control groups cannot be really compared (Ruiz de Zarobe and Lasagabaster, 2010).

Optimistic results have also been obtained when analysing the acquisition of vocabulary among CLIL and non-CLIL students. In this respect, Jiménez Catalán and Ruiz de Zarobe (2009) focused on receptive vocabulary and compared female students from CLIL and non-CLIL groups in schools situated in Bilbao and La Rioja. The results showed significant differences in favour of the learners who took part in a CLIL programme. However, the authors emphasise the fact that extramural exposure was not considered in the study, so that further investigation is needed in this particular area.

Another author examining vocabulary acquisition is Agustín Llach (2009), who analysed the role of the L1 in writing production, detecting different types of language transfer in letter and composition writing. In the same vein, Ojeda Alba (2009) carried out a comparison of general vocabulary use. Both researchers worked with CLIL students coming from BAC and non-CLIL pupils in the monolingual community of La Rioja. The outcomes of the first study evinced that non-CLIL learners manifest a higher number of L1-orientated lexical mistakes, whereas the second study is more abstract, concluding that CLIL learners had more developed linguistic skills although non-CLIL students demonstrated greater lexical richness in some cases.

In addition to examining and evaluating vocabulary acquisition, some other investigations have been developed in the BAC, this time dealing with English

pronunciation. In this sense, Gallardo del Puerto, Gómez Lacabex and García Lecumberri (2009) compared the degree of foreign accent (FA) of CLIL and non-CLIL learners and analysed its communicative effects. After a one-year intervention programme, the researchers concluded that CLIL students were more intelligible and less irritating in oral expression than EFL pupils'. However, CLIL pupils' pronunciation in the FL was found not to be more accurate than EFL students', something which, according to the scholars, can be attributable to the unreliable input students receive from the non-native EFL or content subject teachers.

In line with the previous study, Villarreal Olaizola and García Mayo (2009) examined morphological features drawing upon the omission rate of verbal inflectional morphemes in obligatory contexts. Thus, the variable use of copula and auxiliary *be* (i.e. suppletive inflection), and the 3rd person singular morpheme *-s* and past tense morpheme *-ed* (i.e. affixal inflection) were analysed. A total of 56 students in the last year of CSE following a CLIL programme and a mainstream EFL programme participated in the project. The outcomes revealed that the EFL pupils omitted *-s* and *-ed* more frequently than the CLIL group, where students demonstrated a more accurate oral production. In a subsequent study, these researchers compared the use of these same morphological features between CLIL and non-CLIL learners from Compulsory and non-compulsory Secondary Education. Once again, the findings showed EFL learners omitted suppletive inflections more frequently, although the differences in accuracy disappeared once the CLIL programme was discontinued (García Mayo and Villarreal Olaizola, 2011). Despite its relevance, this study has been criticised because of its cross-sectional nature and the lack of consensus on initial scores when comparing the CLIL and the EFL groups.

The same methodology has been used to analyse English syntax, that is, a narration of a story has been again employed to measure morphosyntactic aspects in the FL. As no significant differences were detected, the researchers Martínez Adrián and Gutiérrez Mangado (2009) claim the necessity of new investigations in this respect in order to discover if it is CLIL or simply increased amounts of exposure which causes success in students.

One year earlier, in 2008, another important investigation was carried out by Alonso, Grisaleña and Campo, whose main interest was to analyse the effectiveness of the Plurilingual Experience in the community. Thus, they aimed at evaluating the impact that CLIL has on FL proficiency and on subject matter mastery. A total of 229 students,

including seven small control groups, were tested in their first and third year of CSE and in the first grade of Baccalaureate. This longitudinal study combined qualitative and quantitative data, obtained from questionnaires and interviews, and the scores from the English tests by Cambridge ESOL, respectively. A questionnaire was also administered to teachers in order to enquire about the level of knowledge pupils acquired in the subjects taught through English. As a result, most of the teachers claimed that CLIL learners presented superior or at least equal levels of subject content knowledge to those by non-bilingual students. Moreover, the experimental (CLIL) group outperformed the control group in the English language mastery at both CSE and non-compulsory levels.

Despite these extremely positive results, the researchers affirm that outcomes may have been affected by prior selection and by the high motivation shown by CLIL pupils and their families (Alonso, Grisaleña and Campo, 2008). Nevertheless, this study is particularly significant as it uses data triangulation and factors in the variables of gender, student motivation and academic achievement. As Pérez Cañado claims (2015a, p. 4), the studies carried out by Lasagabaster (2008) and Alonso, Grisaleña and Campo (2008) are “the sole two studies in the entire Spanish panorama that work in these aspects of validity and reliability”.

Apart from studying CLIL consequences on FL competence and content learning, another investigation focused on analysing CLIL effects on the learning of Basque and Spanish. To this end, Egiguren (2006 as cited in Ruiz de Zarobe and Lasagabaster 2010, p. 22) compared the early implementation of an EFL approach with CLIL groups in the BAC and examined whether the type of approach caused any effect on the normal development of Spanish and Basque. This research project, together with the one carried out by the aforementioned authors Grisaleña, Campo and Alonso (2009), concluded that CLIL, as a learning approach, does not obstruct or impede the progress of the two official languages present in the curriculum.

As far as studies having to do with language attitudes within CLIL are concerned, the investigation conducted by Lasagabaster (2009 as cited in Lasagabaster and Ruiz de Zarobe, 2010) must be mentioned since it studies multilingualism as a whole. The results obtained indicated that the implementation of CLIL had a positive effect on language attitudes towards trilingualism. Moreover, these results indicate that CLIL may be a very useful approach to keep students interested in the learning of languages. In the same sense, Lasagabaster and Sierra (2009 as cited in Lasagabaster and Ruiz de Zarobe, 2010)

examined language attitudes by means of traditional questionnaires in which they analysed students' attitudes towards the three languages independently. They concluded that language environment and methodology were important factors to determine students' attitudes not only towards English, but also towards Spanish and Basque. Finally, these authors also claim that CLIL may be a very useful approach to keep students interested in the learning of English as a foreign language.

To end this section, the most contemporary study will be mentioned. This study was developed in 2015 by Heras and Lasagabaster, who delved deeper into affective factors in CLIL teaching and learning to evaluate attitudes of male and female students and gender differences within CLIL and non-CLIL groups after the application of some vocabulary tests. By using pre-, post- and delayed-post tests, the authors revealed that CLIL influences receptive skills to a greater extent compared to production of language. Since “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” (Heras and Lasagabaster, 2015, p. 76), they considered it had to be examined from a CLIL perspective.

Based on Dörnyei's (2009) L2 motivation self-system, it was found that females showed a more intrinsically developed behaviour in CLIL while males tended to be more extrinsic. This might have been affected by the subject matter chosen, boys usually present a more positive attitude towards Physical Education (PE). No gender differences appeared in the CLIL group in terms of vocabulary acquisition, which proves that “the real communication and meaningful learning inherent in CLIL cause a blurring effect between genders” (Lancaster, 2015, p. 82). Although further longitudinal studies are called for, CLIL is revealed to be having a positive effect on language attitudes towards trilingualism.

3.2.2.2. *Catalonia*

Catalonia is, together with the BAC, the other major exponent of CLIL implementation and research in a multilingual setting (Pérez Cañado, 2012, p. 328). Although there has been less research than in the BAC and the introduction of CLIL has not been as systematic as the aforementioned Basque schemes (Navés and Victori, 2010

as cited in Pascual Bajo, 2018, p. 156), remarkable researchers such as Navés, Muñoz and Pérez Vidal have contributed to studying how CLIL is functioning in this autonomous community.

Firstly, it is important to know that while Catalonia has been implementing immersion programmes for the teaching and learning of Catalan and Spanish, immersion experiences integrating content subjects and foreign languages have recently been introduced. However, an increasing interest in CLIL is steadily growing within the educational system (Navés and Victori, 2010). Such a great interest in this new teaching approach leads to a large amount of studies focused on the analysis of students' oral and written output resulting from class interaction or written production.

Some years ago, CLIL experts at the Autonomous Community of Barcelona had the chance to interview Do Coyle after she was invited to present a lecture on the latest CLIL developments in the region. This author declared that “in general, all the regions of Spain, including Catalonia, have been some of the leaders in developing classroom pedagogies in CLIL settings” (Piquer Vives and Lorenzo Galés, 2015, p. 91) and emphasised the need for English teachers to spread their wide knowledge to subject content instructors in order to secure suitable, prosperous programmes.

One of the first studies carried out in the community was conducted by Navés, who put the first CLIL pioneer projects in motion between 1994 and 1998 (Navés and Victori, 2010). This work propelled CLIL implementation forward, something which caused the creation of new projects such as the CLIL Innovation Project (1999), the Orator Project (1999-2005), and the Experimental Foreign Language Plan (2005-2008). Hence, CLIL was conceived as a part of integrated school projects which would benefit FL learners' competence. Since then, the number of schools implementing CLIL programmes has grown significantly and the levels of collaboration between the administration professionals of Secondary and Tertiary Education have also been increased. The only deficiencies found, which had to do with insufficient teacher training and the unstable circumstances in CLIL regulation, have also been improved, as the local government has invested in teacher education, something which had been “mainly provided by external university consultants from the UK” (Navés and Victori, 2010, p. 32) before 2008. This is confirmed by the *Llicències d'estudis* or grants for paid leave, whose objective is to offer teachers at Primary and Secondary Education levels the

opportunity to learn more about the elaboration of CLIL materials and/ or about research projects carried out under the supervision of university professors.

Escobar and Nussbaum (2008 as cited in Navés and Victori, 2010) developed a study in which they centered on the role and features of interactive tasks in a CLIL Science class, with students in the 3rd year of Secondary Education. The results showed that students reinterpreted the tasks and displayed a variety of complex collaborative strategies to adapt to particular communicative and learning needs. In the same sense, Moore and Dooly (2010 as cited in Navés and Victori, 2010) explored how university students used multilingual resources in trilingual sequences of a CLIL Science lesson to engage in talk-in interaction and how they categorised languages in these interactions. Moore (2009 as cited in Navés and Victori, 2010) also studied some students enrolled in a Psychology course taught in English. This research shows how code-switching acts as a resource which is employed for managing the given class activity and helps to create a favorable framework for constructing both target language and subject knowledge. The specific circumstances under which code-switching occurs were investigated by Gallart (2009 as cited in Navés and Victori, 2010).

Parallel to these studies, other researchers focused on the comparison between interactional activities within a regular ELT class and those carried out with CLIL. For example, Marsol (2008 as cited in Navés and Victori, 2010) studied the particular interactional features and general discourse patterns that differentiate a CLIL Primary school session from a traditional ELT class. This author concluded that the major differences between the two types of contexts are found in the type of exchanges, questions and corrections. In turn, Barrull's study (2009 as cited in Navés and Victori, 2010) focused on oral interaction among Secondary students.

Among the studies having to do with the learning of subject content in the CLIL classroom, the one carried out by Codó et al. (2007 as cited in Navés and Victori, 2010) must be emphasised. By using the SOLO (Structure of Observed Learning Outcomes), these authors compared the responses provided by two groups of university students. Learners' knowledge and understanding of course content were assessed, revealing that while CLIL was not an obstacle to content learning, its possible benefits could not be proved either.

Victori and Vallbona (2008 as cited in Navés and Victori, 2010) sought to analyse the impact of CLIL on language proficiency by studying semi-private Primary and Secondary schools which were implementing this language teaching methodology in grades 3 to 6. After their comparison between CLIL and non-CLIL students' productive and receptive skills, the results were inconclusive. They showed that CLIL students were more skilled at writing, but negative outcomes transpired for teacher training, language proficiency, as well as time and resources. Similar to this study, Coral (2009) and Roquet (2008) as cited in Navés and Victori (2010), focused on the analysis of CLIL in different contexts. While the former studied the advantages of students taking a Physical Education course through English, the latter traced the implementation of a CLIL programme in Science with several groups of CSE students. After collecting her data by means of questionnaires, group discussion, a listening test and a lexical test, Coral's outcomes revealed better results in listening comprehension, which the researcher attributes to the great influence of Total Physical Response Method, apart from other teaching practices which seem to foster the improvement of this receptive skill (Coral, 2009).

Similarly, Pérez Vidal and Roquet (2015) contemplated the effects of CLIL on receptive and productive skills, revealing inconsistent findings primarily related to productive vocabulary, cohesion and coherence and pronunciation. They devised a research plan aimed at evaluating linguistic progress in CLIL programmes compared to non-CLIL mainstream education in Barcelona, testing students on reading, writing, listening and grammar. Taking into account Tedick and Wesley's (2015) conclusions, the researchers worked on the prediction that CLIL fosters receptive skills more than productive skills. As a conclusion, this study revealed significant results which coincide with other studies: positive outcomes appeared when dealing with CLIL effects on receptive skills; however, inconsistent findings were shown regarding listening skills, lexical gains, cohesion, coherence and pronunciation, which made it impossible to confirm the superiority of CLIL. Progress was clearly seen in all aspects studied, except for fluency. Accuracy was significantly higher in the CLIL group, a fact that coincides to some extent with some previous studies on writing skills (Jexenflicker and Dalton-Puffer, 2010).

In a more recent study conducted by Pladevall-Ballester and Vallbona (2016), the superiority of CLIL has still not been proved. These researchers carried out a longitudinal investigation in which they analysed students' receptive skills in a minimal CLIL input

context at Primary school level. A total of 287 pupils belonging to four different state-funded private schools participated in the project. Two academic years were necessary to complete the study, in which learners were administered a language test at four different times. It is important to mention that the amount of exposure to the target language was kept constant to guarantee comparability between the groups. The outcomes obtained proved that both CLIL and non-CLIL pupils had made a great improvement in their reading and listening skills from the first to the last test. However, the EFL group was found to outperform the CLIL cohort in terms of their listening skills. No significant differences were detected between cohorts for reading. The authors attribute these results to the fact that CLIL was implemented for the first time in these schools, so students and teachers needed a period of adaptation to get used to the new methodology. Taking these circumstances into consideration, according to the researchers “findings seem to suggest that more promising CLIL learning outcomes might only be observable in the long run with more intensive exposure” (Pladevall-Ballester and Vallbona, 2016, p. 37).

Some examples of qualitative research can also be found in the Catalan region. Hence, Feixas et al. (2009 as cited in Navés and Victori, 2010) carried out another type of investigation, focusing on the opinions expressed by university students and teachers after having taken part in a CLIL programme. As a result, the authors documented a higher level of motivation in CLIL contexts, but they also presented a negative outlook on students’ proficiency.

A similar investigation was developed by Pladevall-Ballester in 2015, this time focusing on the stakeholders’ perspectives on CLIL implementation at Primary level. By means of opinion-based questionnaires and interviews, the researcher analysed students’, teachers’ and parents’ perceptions on CLIL in five different schools in Catalonia one year after its implementation. Results evinced that students, except for low achievers, were satisfied with their belonging to a CLIL programme, as they felt able to use English meaningfully and to understand concepts in a FL. On their behalf, parents’ perceptions were somehow contradictory: they were too enthusiastic about the programme, which was considered as the only solution to increase their children’s low level in the FL, but they also feared possible negative effects of CLIL on their children’s L1 or content learning. The most realistic results were obtained in the teacher cohort, since mixed opinions transpired when dealing with their general satisfaction with the programme and

their frustrations, mainly related to the excessive workload and the lack of adequate support.

Finally, the research developed by the GRAL research team, which started to investigate the effects of age of onset in FL acquisition, deserves special attention. Here, Muñoz (2006) claimed that starting FL learning at an earlier age did not cause a significant improvement in students' competence levels. In the same line, Navés (2006 as cited in Navés and Victori, 2010) reached parallel conclusions, which provoked congruent reactions to further investigate CLIL programmes as an alternative method of instruction. Both authors found that the younger cohort did not obtain better results than the late starters, something which seem to be totally contrary to the typical results obtained in naturalistic settings. As a conclusion, it was said that “increased exposure within a tradition EFL programme may not translate in a significant improvement of language skills” (Navés, 2006 as cited in Pascual Bajo, 2018, p. 158).

Other two investigations by the GRAL group (Navés and Victori, 2010, p. 30-54) are worthy of mention. These outcome-oriented projects were aimed at analysing general language competence and the writing skills of 837 and 695 students respectively. CLIL and non-CLIL pupils from Primary and Secondary Education classes took different tests, which resulted in CLIL learners outperforming their EFL counterparts in all four years examined. More varied results were obtained in the second study. In this case, the CLIL cohort was better at fluency, accuracy and syntactic and lexical complexity. However, the number of hours of the groups' CLIL instruction was not kept constant, something which is clearly seen as a negative aspect (Navés and Victori, 2010).

Summing up, Catalonia seems to be a clear example of correct CLIL implementation, as it can offer all the necessary conditions for it. Nonetheless, and as seen previously, all the outcomes obtained have not been satisfactory. The lack of continuity and stability of the CLIL programmes have sometimes obstructed CLIL success (Navés and Victori, 2010). That is why further research is required in the CLIL context.

3.2.2.3. Valencia and the Balearic Islands

These territories are going to be canvassed together due to the fact that CLIL implementation there is related to their adoption of Catalan and Valencian as second official languages (Pérez Vidal and Juan Garau, 2010). In the last few years, the government in these regions has been implementing European multilingual policies while observing and analysing the already existing decrees which regulate the use of Balearic Catalan and Valencian.

In the Balearic Islands, since 2004/2005, *European Sections* have been spreading throughout schools. An external technical committee evaluates the different programmes in order to determine if their benefits outnumber their pitfalls. Moreover, teacher training is given great importance in order to avoid non-quality teaching.

As for Valencia, immersion programmes were put into practice by means of the *Linguistic Immersion Programme* in the 1990s. It was adapted to Primary Education students who were taught Spanish as their first language. Thus, they were asked to attain competence in both languages. Later, the *Basic Programme* introduced Valencian into the curriculum as an obligatory subject to foster a multilingual environment. Finally, the *Enriched bilingual education programme (PEBE plan: Programa d'Educació Bilingüe Enriquit)* has employed English as a teaching medium to broaden the scope of plurilingualism. As a result, schools attached to this programme have experienced an exponential growth in the last few years.

Further regulations and experimental programmes in 2008 and 2009 have also fostered plurilingualism in Primary and Infant Education (Pérez-Vidal and Juan Garau, 2010), giving rise to a new model of Valencian CLIL in Primary schools, where there are 1.5 hours of CLIL instruction per week in the first and second cycle, and one hour per week in the third cycle. As for the balance between content and language, it is worth saying language receives more attention in the first cycle while a greater focus on content exists in the third cycle.

Regarding teacher training, no specific CLIL education is usually offered at universities, although, perhaps in the future, instructors can opt for a combined specialisation (Frigols Martín, 2008). The PALE programme (Plan de Apoyo al Aprendizaje de las Lenguas) was put into practice in 2007 with the main objective of

supporting and encouraging foreign language learning by means of methodology courses both nationally and in the UK. Moreover, the Lifelong Learning Programme (LLP) encourages CLIL teachers to participate in language training courses abroad (Frigols Martín, 2008). On some occasions, the selection of subjects taught through the FL in schools depends on the availability of teachers; that is to say, schools will choose the areas to be taught via CLIL basing their decisions on the actual characteristics of their staff.

Nevertheless, a new Decree of Plurilingualism (Decree 9/2017, 27th January) was passed in 2017, aimed at changing the present situation. This new regulation, which is being implemented at the Primary stage from the year 2018 and is expected to reach Baccalaureate by the year 2023, incorporates new options and levels of CLIL provision, leaving aside the traditional selection between Spanish and Valencian streams. Hence, there are three languages of instruction from which students can now choose: Spanish, Valencian and English (Pascual Bajo, 2018, p. 167).

Regarding research on the community, the linguistic benefits of CLIL have been investigated by the SALA-COLE, a conjoint venture between Pompeu Fabra University and the University of the Balearic Islands. The aim of the SALA-COLE project is to measure the effects on the acquisition of L3 English by Catalan/Spanish bilinguals of two learning contexts. With data from Secondary Education in the Balearic Islands, Juan Garau, Marcos Llinàs and Salazar Noguera, (2008 as cited in Pérez Vidal and Juan Garau, 2010) and Salazar Noguera and Juan Garau (2008 as cited in Pérez Vidal and Juan Garau, 2010), concluded that content-based approaches are very positively assessed by teachers and learners, although they are not widely extended yet. Thus, Pérez Vidal and Juan Garau (2020, p. 132) make a plea for more “top-down foreign language multilingual policies”.

Some other studies have been recently conducted in the Balearic Community with participants from the COLE project. One of these studies was carried out by Prieto Arranz et al. (2015), who attempted to confirm the encouraging effect that CLIL has on the receptive skills, a field in which little research has been developed. The participants of the investigation, who came from six public Secondary schools belonging to the SALA-COLE project, were divided into two groups according to the methodology through which they were being taught. Thus, 50 pupils learning Science through English made up the CLIL cohort, while 37 learners followed the traditional EFL programme (non-CLIL group). In order to guarantee the comparability of both cohorts, the sociolinguistic

background of students and the extramural exposure to the FL were taken into consideration for the selection of pupils. Two different tests focused on oral and written comprehension (listening and reading) were used to measure the receptive skills of the cohorts. After eliminating the outliers from the sample to further guarantee the comparability of the groups, it was revealed that all stakeholders obtained linguistic gains, with CLIL students outstripping their non-CLIL peers, although not on all the tests.

Vis-à-vis the productive skills, two important investigations must be mentioned. The first one, carried out by Gené Gil, Juan Garau and Salazar Noguera (2015), evaluated the impact of CLIL on FL writing development from a longitudinal perspective. The sample of the study consisted of 30 CLIL students and 15 non-CLIL learners from three public Secondary schools in the Balearic Islands. All students, who were asked to complete a composition exercise over four data collection times, received three hours of EFL instruction per week, with the bilingual group having another three hours of bilingual instruction weekly. Within-group and across-group analyses were carried out; complexity, accuracy and fluency (CAF) were measured by means of different quantitative procedures; and a comparison among learners was made according to their hours of FL exposure. As a result, the researchers concluded that time is the key for a more accurate production in the foreign language, since the writings of both cohorts improved over time. However, bilingual pupils were found to use more complex structures and a higher level of fluency in their compositions within the three-year span considered. Moreover, participants' written performance was assessed, maintaining the time of exposure constant, revealing that the CLIL group normally outperforms the mainstream cohort on all items. Hence, the effectiveness of the CLIL approach was confirmed despite the fact that not all the differences detected were always statistically significant.

The second study that should be mentioned here also focuses on productive skills, specifically on students' oral production. This research, carried out by Rallo-Fabra and Jacob in 2015, worked with a total sample of 43 students from state-run Secondary schools in Majorca, who were divided into two different groups: 22 students following the EFL approach and another group of 21 pupils studying through CLIL. The researchers' main objective was to analyse and evaluate the effects that CLIL has on students' oral skills at two points in time: at the beginning and after two years into the programme. By using two different tasks that had been previously employed with a

smaller sample, the researchers paid special attention to students' fluency and the number of vowel errors in English. The results obtained showed that the pupils' pronunciation of English vowels was unaffected by CLIL and that there was no a significant improvement over the two years considered. Moreover, CLIL students' pronunciation was not better than their EFL peers' and no significant differences were detected in fluency either. In conclusion, Rallo-Fabra and Jacob (2015, p. 175) claim that the "uniformity of both learner groups in terms of pronunciation achievement seriously questions the effectiveness of CLIL to enhance learners' oral skills". That is why they also consider the quantity and quality of the spoken input students receive ought to be increased.

In the same year as the previous investigation, two other studies were developed in the Balearic Islands, this time focusing on affective factors. Thus, the research by Amengual Pizarro and Prieto Arranz (2015), and Menezes and Juan Garau (2015) should be mentioned here. The former analysed affective factors in L3 learning, while the latter concentrated on FL pupils' willingness to communicate in CLIL contexts. Amengual Pizarro and Prieto Arranz's (2015) main objective was to examine and evaluate the possible effects of CLIL on affectivity in Secondary schools. A questionnaire written in their mother tongue was distributed among CLIL and non-CLIL students at the beginning of the second year and at the end of the third year of Compulsory Secondary Education. The questionnaire, which included items regarding attitudes, beliefs and motivation, had been previously used by the SALA-COLE group and it was adapted for this research project. The Cronbach Alpha was used to measure the questionnaires' internal consistency. Variables such as pupils' age, gender and language profile were included, considering the possibility of evaluating their effect on attitudes. As a result, CLIL was shown to exert a positive effect on students' attitudes and beliefs, although the differences found between CLIL and non-CLIL students were not significant. Motivation was higher among CLIL students from the beginning, but it also increased over time among all pupils (CLIL and EFL learners). Finally, it is worth mentioning that female students seemed to be generally more positive, although no statistically significant differences based on gender were detected within the CLIL cohort (Amengual Pizarro and Prieto Arranz, 2015).

As stated previously, the last study to be mentioned in the context of the Balearic region focuses on students' willingness to communicate (WTC). According to Menezes and Juan Garau (2015), WTC is a key factor in second language acquisition (SLA), since

“it brings together psychological, linguistic, educational and communicative approaches to the investigation of L2 learning and can be conceived as a factor of individual differentiation that facilitates the acquisition of an L2” (2015, p. 221). A total of 185 students belonging to the 2nd grade of Compulsory Secondary Education took part in the study. They came from three different semi-private schools in Majorca and they were divided into two groups: the non-treatment EFL group and the CLIL cohort, whose students were taught Social Sciences through English. Two different questionnaires apart from some records of student achievement provided by the school were used to collect the data. As a result, it was found that stakeholders’ WTC and communicative learning seem to be fostered by CLIL programmes, both in the CLIL classroom and in the EFL context (Menezes and Juan Garau, 2015 as cited in Pascual Bajo, 2018, p. 172).

Turning to Valencia, the ELA research group in Jaume I University (UJI) must be highlighted. In 2003, investigators from this group carried out a pilot project over the course of two years with teachers at Tertiary level, who had introduced English as the third language in the curriculum. The principal objective of the project was to measure teachers’ training needs and their degree of engagement. As a result, they designed a teacher training programme which has been taught by the English Studies Department at UJI since the investigation ended.

Although there is no published research on the effects of CLIL in this context, the ELA research group has striven to evaluate third language acquisition and multilingualism in the region. Important researchers such as Ruiz Garrido and Fortanet Gómez (2009) claim it would be necessary to carry out a SWOT analysis on all stakeholders’ perspectives on CLIL, supporting then one of the objectives of our study. They also recommend using data triangulation by means of questionnaires, interviews and observation, as well as including specific items for every stakeholder. These suggestions have been taken into account for our qualitative instrument design.

Finally, it is worth mentioning the study carried out by Pascual Bajo in 2018. Her research, aimed at evaluating CLIL from a qualitative and a quantitative point of view, was developed within the context of two educational institutions: a public school with CLIL and non-CLIL streams, and a semi-private school with no CLIL provision in the province of Valencia (Pascual Bajo, 2018, p. 229). Several types of tests were used as the tools for the quantitative part of the project, while questionnaires and semi-structured individual and focus-group interviews were employed for the qualitative side of the study.

Information was obtained from the three cohorts considered (students, teachers and parents). A total of 63 students took part in the qualitative study, all of them belonging to the 4th grade of CSE. Homogeneity was guaranteed so that the comparability of the sample was also warranted. 63 pupils were also the sample of the longitudinal quantitative study, although this number of participants was reduced to 46 when re-tests were applied six months later.

As for results, general optimism transpires from the part of the three cohorts. Thus, students, teachers and parents involved in CLIL all express their satisfaction with the programme, especially when dealing with self-confidence, interest and participation in class. Parents seem to be the most enthusiastic cohort, while teachers can be considered the most realistic, as they combine their general contentment with some acknowledged frustrations, having mainly to do with an excessive workload and lack of support, especially from educational authorities (Pascual Bajo, 2018, p. 372).

On the contrary, mixed opinions appeared when asking about creativity and content. While half of the teachers polled claim that creativity is clearly fostered in their CLIL lessons, students stated that there was little (or not) development of this competence. In the case of content, students were more optimistic than teachers, since half of the latter affirmed that CLIL may slow down the learning process. The most negative results obtained were related to teacher training and the lack of communication between parents and CLIL instructors, something which is essential for CLIL success.

Moving now to the quantitative side of the investigation, outcomes confirmed the superior English language competence of pupils belonging to a CLIL programme. Hence, the CLIL cohort outperformed the non-CLIL stream on all the skills and aspects considered, with particularly significant differences in use of English, vocabulary and reading (Pascual Bajo, 2018, p. 382).

Few statistically significant differences were detected within the student cohort taking the intervening variables into consideration. However, it was confirmed that the greater exposure to the FL, the more positive the effects on grammar and on receptive skills. The variable of socioeconomic status did not yield any significant differences, corroborating that CLIL programmes could be eliminating differences in social class, particularly in the long term, when students finish CSE (Pérez Cañado, 2017b; Pavón, 2018; Rascón Moreno and Bretones, 2018 as cited in Pascual Bajo, 2018, p. 384).

Six months after the end of the CLIL programme, the delayed post-testing phase took place, in which the same students took the tests again to analyse if the effects of CLIL pervade or on the contrary, they tend to vanish. As a result, it was found that the outcomes on all skills studied improved, except for that of writing. Thus, Pascual Bajo (2018, p. 385) affirms that there was a sustained improvement in the students' use of English and in their speaking abilities, although the positive effects found during the post-test phase for the writing skill gradually disappeared once the CLIL programme was discontinued.

3.2.2.4. Galicia

“Galicia is one of the regions fostering minority language learning, with an evidenced experience in immersion bilingual programmes involving its regional language”, (San Isidro, 2010, p. 56). Thus, the Galician language is used at a minimum of 50% within the curriculum (Decree 124/2007- Xunta de Galicia), agreeing with European educational policy regarding multilingualism. Moreover, the Galician Educational Administrative Department establishes some initiatives in mainstream education and it seeks to increase motivation towards the learning of additional languages (San Isidro, 2010).

Nowadays, 100% of Galician schools teach English as a foreign language in Infant Education since 2009 and CLIL programmes have become more popular among the members of the educational community (San Isidro, 2010). Starting as a pilot project in 1990, CLIL has now gained ground since the content subjects are being taught through a FL, which fosters the use of the additional language together with Spanish and Galician. That is why San Isidro (2010) refers to the current model of CLIL implemented in the region as being progressive. Moreover, several actions have been taken to promote CLIL in the region. Among them, it is important to emphasise the CUALE (after-school teaching programme), summer immersion programmes, a CLIL network of teachers and schools, and the PALE (Programa de Aprendizaje de Lenguas Extranjeras) or PIALE (Programa Integral de Aprendizaje de Lenguas Extranjeras) teacher training programmes.

As for research in Galicia, a number of research projects have been carried out to confirm the effectiveness of the CLIL approach. San Isidro (2010) is the pioneer in testing

CLIL students' language competence. 287 students coming from ten different Secondary schools in Galicia were tested on their language competence, considering the variables of gender and location (rural or urban). Specifically designed tests were administered with the aim of evaluating all four language skills, and students' previous attainment in the EFL subject was also recorded. The results showed how CLIL students outperform their non-CLIL peers on a global skills test in English after two years of instruction. Furthermore, statistically significant differences in favour of the pupils studying in an urban setting were found. As a consequence, CLIL proved to be a success even in a bilingual community where there is no social presence of a third foreign language.

More recently, in 2018, another study has been conducted by San Isidro and Lasagabaster, whose main goal is to analyse a CLIL programme in Galicia from a quantitative and a qualitative point of view. An evaluation of stakeholders' perspectives towards FL learning and bilingual programmes was carried out, and information on the students' competence in the three languages taught (Galician, Spanish and English) and in relation to content learning was also collected. Greater motivation and higher levels of satisfaction with the programme were found among CLIL stakeholders. CLIL was also found to exert a positive effect on FL learning, as bilingual students outperformed their non-CLIL peers in English. As for the impact of bilingual programmes on the regional language and Spanish, it was confirmed that CLIL does not hamper their learning. In the same vein, no statistically significant differences were found between CLIL and mainstream students' content acquisition. Although the investigation worked with a very small sample, this study is worthy of mention due to the fact that it provides a much more detailed picture of CLIL implementation in Galicia.

3.2.3. Research in Monolingual Communities

Vis-à-vis monolingual communities, fewer studies have been carried out, although there is a growing body of empirically robust research. This shortage of research on CLIL may have been caused by the little tradition and social concern with bilingual education and by the fact that CLIL was implemented in an initial stage (Ruiz de Zarobe and Jiménez Catalán, 2009).

However, some new initiatives have been put into practice in monolingual communities aiming at fostering bilingualism. Thus, as Lorenzo, Casal, Quiñones and Moore (2007, p. 12) claim: “the Plan de Fomento del Plurilingüismo 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”. Below, an overview of the most important research developed in the Spanish monolingual communities will be offered, paying special attention to the community of Andalusia, where our study has been carried out.

3.2.3.1. The Autonomous Community of Madrid

In Madrid, the teaching of content through a foreign language is “a relatively recent phenomenon” (Llinares and Dafouz, 2010, p. 95). However, the MEC/British Council bilingual programme and the CAM bilingual project have boosted CLIL extension in the community. The former was developed by Spanish and English teachers working together and it was finally established in 1996. By using recordings, questionnaires and classroom observation as assessment tools and without external assessment, it was revealed that all stakeholders involved indicated learners’ significant improvement in many skills (Llinares and Dafouz, 2010). Apart from Madrid, it is now being applied in most autonomous communities: Aragón, Asturias, the Balearic Islands, Cantabria, Castilla and León, Castilla-La Mancha, Ceuta, Extremadura, Melilla, Murcia and Navarra. The latter, in turn, started in 2004 and it has been able to promote CLIL in 206 Primary schools. By teaching 30% to 50% of the subject matter in the L2 (English), students, as well as teachers and parents, are said to be more motivated and confident. In fact, the FL can be used as the medium of instruction for all content subjects with the exception of Mathematics and Spanish Language and Literature. Schools can also benefit from native language assistants, national and international teacher training opportunities and greater funding for materials and ICTs. Moreover, Spanish schools can establish links with twin schools situated in the UK, which implies a broadening of exchanges among teachers and students (Llinares and Dafouz, 2010).

There are also some research groups from different universities working on various aspects of CLIL in this community. Thus, within the research developed in Primary Education, the UAMLESC project deserves special attention since it was carried

out by a research group headed by Jesús Romero and Ana Llinares from the Universidad Autónoma de Madrid. By collecting data from Primary Education students, Llinares García (2006, 2007 as cited in Llinares and Dafouz, 2010) found that quality of exposure to the foreign language is more important than quantity of exposure.

The CLIL project conducted by a research group in the Universidad de Alcalá de Henares (UAH), directed by Ana Halbach (Llinares and Dafouz, 2010) was initially interested in obtaining information about “teachers’ motivations and fears” (Fernández Fernández et al., 2005 as cited in Llinares and Dafouz, 2010, p. 103). Questionnaires and interviews were used to collect the necessary data in four different public schools. The results showed important deficits in teacher training, although teachers seemed to be highly motivated. With the objective of broadening the aforementioned study, Pena Díaz and Porto Requejo (2008) used two new questionnaires focused on analysing teachers’ perspectives on bilingual education, its implementation in the community and their main needs. Once again, outcomes revealed teachers feel motivated towards CLIL, but they still feel insecure about the implementation of such methodology and their own control of the English language. That is why, the authors concluded by emphasising the urgent need for specialised training.

Bearing in mind these needs and after examining the already existing teacher training programmes, Halbach (2010) created a CLIL track in the UAH’s Teacher Training Master’s Course, with the main objective of offering specific training to those instructors working in CLIL environments. By using the outcomes of previous research on teachers’ needs and teachers’ conceptualisation of bilingual teaching, they designed this master’s programme, which covered these principal areas: FL proficiency (focusing on oral skills), the integration of content and language teaching, classroom management, teaching literacy in the FL and the elaboration and design of materials and resources.

Another study that should be foregrounded here is the European Research Comenius Project “ProCLIL” (Providing Guidelines for CLIL implementation), which aimed to “identify good practice in CLIL implementation and to investigate its effectiveness as regards the learning of language and content at Infant and Primary schools” (Llinares and Dafouz, 2010, p. 104). It was coordinated by María Dolores Ramírez Verdugo at the Universidad Autónoma de Madrid, who analysed teachers’ and administrators’ attitudes towards CLIL by using questionnaires and interviews (Ramírez Verdugo et al., 2009 as cited in Llinares and Dafouz, 2010). A sample of more than 300

teaching professionals from 147 schools took part in the project, concluding that content is given priority in the CLIL classroom (especially in assessment) and teachers emphasise listening over the rest of skills. Moreover, the researchers offered clear guidelines to in- and pre-service teachers.

As regards CLIL research in Secondary Education, the UAM-CLIL project and the MIRCo research group deserve attention. Firstly, the UAM-CLIL project is run by the Universidad Autónoma de Madrid and led by Llinares and Whittaker (2006; 2010). Although it was firstly born to evaluate the MEC/British programme (mentioned above), its main objectives are to identify good CLIL practice, to describe language features of CLIL students in relation to their language needs, to analyse interactional competence and to test CLIL effectiveness. They focused on 1st year Secondary students in two public schools implementing CLIL. By analysing students' oral interaction and writing, and by carrying out oral interviews, the researchers studied learners' lexico-grammatical knowledge and functional realisations, their use of modality and their interactional skills. Very positive results were obtained as CLIL cohorts produced written texts comparable to those of much older EFL students (Pérez Cañado, 2015a, p. 9). In turn, the MIRCo research group has been studying "the social and multilingual realities of the school" (Llinares and Dafouz, 2010, p. 107).

The UCM-CLUE project is concerned with CLIL in higher education. This project, conducted at the Universidad Complutense de Madrid (UCM) and directed by Emma Dafouz Milne, is working on the implementation of CLIL in university contexts. Thus, native lecturers teaching Aeronautical Engineering through English at Universidad Politécnica de Madrid (UPM) make up the sample of the investigation, which is focused on analysing teachers' discourse in university CLIL lessons. Moreover, Dafouz (2006 as cited in Llinares and Dafouz, 2010) has also carried out a needs analysis in order to examine the attitudes of content teachers and students towards CLIL, both at the UPM and the UCM, concluding that attitudes towards CLIL are generally positive despite the fact that some new adjustments need to be applied (Pérez Cañado, 2015a, p. 9). It is worth mentioning that, nowadays, some universities in Madrid offer bilingual degrees to future students in order to cope with the increased demand for English proficiency in the working environment.

Another important study was carried out by Sotoca Sienes in 2014, with the objective of analysing the academic achievement of 2,153 CLIL and non-CLIL students

from public Primary Education centres and discovering if statistically significant differences in favour of the CLIL cohort existed in the L1, FL and content subjects. In this quasi-experimental investigation, schools provided the pupils' end-of-the-year qualifications for English, Spanish, Mathematics and Science or Environmental Studies (the CLIL Science subject), and two external examinations testing students' abilities in Spanish Language and Mathematics were also employed.

These external examinations (the Diagnostic Test and CDI Test) proved that CLIL schools achieved better results in Spanish language and Mathematics than the non-bilingual centres, although differences were not always significant. However, when bearing in mind the pupils' final qualifications, the opposite situation happened. That is to say, non-bilingual schools outperformed the bilingual centres in Environmental Studies and English. Taking into account these contradictory findings, the external examinations were given more importance, pointing to the benefits of CLIL, and coinciding, then, with previous studies (Consejo Escolar Comunidad de Madrid, 2010). According to Sotoca Sienes (2014), the possible causes behind the lower marks obtained in the CLIL subject and the FL are the higher expectations teachers hold and the young age of the participants, which would also explain the lack of statistically significant differences among cohorts.

Two years later, in 2016, Anghel, Cabrales and Carro conducted another investigation in which they examined the performance in Mathematics and Spanish language of 6th grade of Primary Education pupils from CLIL and non-CLIL groups. Hence, with the objective of measuring the results of Primary Education, all students took a standardised test in Spanish on all the skills which are considered essential at their age. The results showed that the programme had negative effects in terms of content, although not on Mathematics or Spanish. Statistically significant lower means in general knowledge (the subject taught in the FL) were obtained by students in bilingual schools after following the programme. Furthermore, this effect was especially conspicuous when dealing with children whose families' socioeconomic situation was lower (Anghel, Cabrales and Carro, 2016).

Another attempt to investigate CLIL implementation in Madrid was carried out by Ainsworth and Shepherd in 2017. Their study was developed with the objective of evaluating the English language skills of CLIL students from public schools in the community, and to compare their results with the ones obtained by pupils who do not belong to a bilingual programme. In the same vein, they aimed at revising and

understanding the relationship between English language learning motivation and the students' increased proficiency (Ainsworth and Shepherd, 2017, p. 86).

A total of 125 non-bilingual schools and 45 CLIL centres participated in the project, with the sample comprising students from the 4th year of Compulsory Secondary Education. Following the British Council's English Impact Research Methodology, participants had to complete an English test and answer a questionnaire, which allowed the researchers to carry out an in-depth analysis of students' language opportunities in and outside the classroom, taking also into account their motivation and socioeconomic situation (Ainsworth and Shepherd, 2017, p. 21). As a result, it was discovered that students from bilingual schools outperformed their non-bilingual counterpart across all skills evaluated. In the same vein, CLIL students showed higher levels of international orientation and motivation, and bilingual programmes were found to level the socioeconomic status differences between pupils.

To finish with this section, the study developed by Gortázar and Taberner in 2020 must be covered. These investigators studied the influence of the bilingual programme on the school segregation by SES in Madrid, which presents the highest rate of segregation in terms of socioeconomic context in Secondary schools in Spain, and the second highest amongst OECD countries. Thus, with the objective of analysing CLIL influence on school segregation from the years 2004-2005, as well as its influence on students' learning results, the data from the PISA tests were used, with a special focus on the socioeconomic and cultural contexts of pupils. Four different editions of PISA were consulted (from 2009 to 2018), paying more attention to the last one, which allowed the authors to distinguish between bilingual and non-bilingual schools, and the socioeconomic level of each pupil was calculated throughout the years. In addition, the relationship between SES, the type of centre and the type of methodology was analysed in comparison to the students' performance by means of a regression analysis.

As a result, families in non-bilingual schools were found to have a lower SES than families belonging to bilingual centres, both in public and semi-private schools. Moreover, it was seen that school segregation gradually increased between 2009 and 2018, mainly because of the expansion of publicly funded private schools and of the bilingual programme. In the same vein, school segregation notably increased in 2015, when the bilingual programme reached the last grade of Secondary Education in public schools. The same happened in 2018, with the arrival of CLIL in the private sector at the

end of Secondary Education. Vis-à-vis students' performance, the authors observed that students from bilingual schools outperformed non-bilingual pupils on the PISA tests, which evaluated their competences on Science, Mathematics and reading (Gortázar and Taberner, 2020, p. 234).

3.2.3.2. La Rioja

In spite of its lack of foreign language tradition, La Rioja, which has always been considered a monolingual community, has recently shown a great interest towards bilingual education. Thus, bilingualism has become one of the main objectives of the education policies in the region, and two important initiatives have been put into practice: the *PILC* or *Proyectos de Innovación Lingüística en Centros* (School Language Innovation Projects) and the *Bilingual Sections*.

On the one hand, the PILC projects were created in 2004 to promote FL learning in public and state-funded schools (Pascual Bajo, 2018, p. 178). These projects are intended for non-university content teachers holding at least a CEFR B1 level or Intermediate EOI (Spanish Official Language School) level in the FL and implementing CLIL. Teachers' participation in the project has been a real success despite the region's later start in CLIL. Two different types of CLIL in La Rioja are then distinguished by Fernández Fontecha (2010): type A, in which FL is used for routines, instructions and frequent words; and type B, where teachers use the FL as a part of the content subject. Thus, some measures have been taken in order to make CLIL practice easier. Among them, the reduction of workload for teachers applying Type B CLIL, and the possibility of asking for a native FL teaching assistant have to be mentioned.

The regional government passed a new regulation which established the procedures to develop a Bilingual Section in the community. Public and state-funded Primary and Secondary schools can benefit from this initiative, which determines that pupils in a bilingual classroom can be taught up to 50% of the curriculum through the FL, while they can also have an extra FL lesson per week as reinforcement (Fernández Fontecha, 2010). Moreover, one native language teaching assistant is assigned to each Bilingual Section, something from which both learners and teachers can benefit. In bilingual sections, teachers can be either content specialists or FL teachers and, as it happens with the PILC teachers, a reduction in their workload can be applied for them.

However, CLIL instructors have a wider range of responsibilities, including the elaboration and preparation of materials, the attendance to weekly meetings or the annual reports, among others. These programmes have been available since the academic year 2008-2009 and they include different actions (methodology courses, language immersion courses abroad, conversation workshops and language immersion stays) (Fernández Fontecha, 2010 as cited in Pascual Bajo, 2018, p. 179). In the same line, the European project eCLILT started in 2009 with the objective of offering online training to teachers.

As it has been mentioned above, in La Rioja, CLIL programmes have been put into practice much later than in other Spanish autonomous communities. That is why empirical research in this community can be considered to be “at its infancy” (Pascual Bajo, 2018, p. 179). However, some studies must be foregrounded here. First of all, it is worth mentioning that, as it borders with the BAC, research in the region has been mainly conducted jointly between Jiménez Catalán and Ojeda Alba, both members of the Applied Linguistics Group at the University of La Rioja (GLAUR group) and BAC researchers. In one of their studies, they measured the English vocabulary production of 44 CLIL and 42 non-CLIL learners from two semi-private Primary schools in Logroño through a lexical availability task (Jiménez Catalán and Ojeda Alba, 2008 as cited in Fernández Fontecha, 2010). Totally unexpected results were obtained since the EFL cohort obtained better results than the CLIL group.

One year before, another study focused on vocabulary was conducted by Agustín Llach and Jiménez Catalán (2007) in La Rioja. The researchers discovered that CLIL learners make a wider use of nouns and antonyms. Moreover, their language level and lexical variation is also higher (Fernández Fontecha, 2010 as cited in Pascual Bajo, 2018, p. 180).

Positive results for CLIL were obtained in a series of joint investigations conducted by important researchers such as Jiménez Catalán and Ruiz de Zarobe (2009), Ojeda Alba (2009) and Jiménez Catalán and Fernández Fontecha (2015). However, some of them present significant methodological pitfalls, as Pérez Cañado (2015a, p. 5) underscores. These shortcomings have to do mainly with the heterogeneity among learners and the lack of factor or discriminant analyses.

The first study mentioned (Jiménez Catalán and Ruiz de Zarobe, 2009) has already been mentioned in section 3.2.2.1., as it was developed not only in La Rioja but also in

the BAC. As pointed out previously, the sample consisted of female students following a CLIL or an EFL programme, who sat a total of three language tests. Higher scores were obtained for CLIL students' receptive vocabulary. However, students' exposure to the FL outside the classroom was not taken into consideration, so further investigations are necessary to find out if CLIL is the true responsible for the differential effects.

In the same year, Ojeda Alba carried out an investigation in which she compared general vocabulary use in CLIL and non-CLIL groups. Different lexical fields including family, sports or food were analysed, and it was found that there are very similar number of tokens and types in both cohorts. In many cases a wider variety of vocabulary was seen in the compositions by non-CLIL learners, which implies higher lexical richness. However, CLIL students used more abstract terms, showing more developed linguistic skills.

The last study to be commented on here is the one developed by Jiménez Catalán and Fernández Fontecha in 2015. This investigation focused on the use of lexical phrases in written compositions by CLIL and non-CLIL students, working with a total sample of 30 CLIL students from the BAC and 30 CLIL learners from La Rioja. A language level test consisting of an eight-point cloze and a written composition was used to collect the data. Thus, all the lexical phrases students used were identified and quantified, and some statistical analyses were carried out afterwards. As a result, CLIL students participating in the CLIL programme presented a higher language level, something that can be explained by the increased exposure to English and not necessarily by the CLIL methodology (Pascual Bajo, 2018, p. 181). Thus, the authors concluded their project by stating that it is their level in the FL which explains the participants' production of lexical phrases in their compositions, rather than the programme in which they are enrolled.

Finally, another investigation carried out by Agustín Llach in 2009 deserves our attention. Departing from the aforementioned vocabulary-oriented studies, it aims at analysing the influence of the mother tongue (L1) on the writing of CLIL and EFL students. After obtaining and examining quantitative and qualitative data, important differences between cohorts were found when comparing lexical transfer in letters and compositions. Hence, mainstream learners tend to make more L1-oriented errors, resorting to "borrowings" from Spanish more often than their CLIL counterparts.

In spite of the greater interest shown for CLIL lately, Fernández Fontecha (2010) makes a plea for future investigation directed at analysing CLIL implementation in the region with regard to learning outcomes, methodology and teacher training, in order to identify possible problems.

3.2.3.3. *Castilla-La Mancha*

Castilla-La Mancha, situated in the central part of Spain, started implementing CLIL programmes by means of the MEC-British Council Project in 1996 and 1997. Ten years later, the *Secciones Europeas* were put into practice by the local educational authorities (Pérez Cañado, 2015a), in order to support CLIL implementation throughout the community. Since their implementation in 2005 by means of the Order 07/02/2005, modified by the Order 13/03/2008, more than 300 schools have adopted and are now running CLIL programmes in the region. However, these important advances in CLIL implementation have not been accompanied by comparable progress in research. There are only some studies focused on emotional competences and learning to learn competence (Nieto Moreno de Diezmas, 2012, 2016) and on the issue of teacher training (Fernández César, Aguirre Pérez and Harris, 2009, 2013). That is the reason why Nieto Moreno de Diezmas (2016) reports the lack of empirical research on students' outcomes in this community and aims to contribute to this with her 2016 and 2018 investigations.

Hence, in 2016, Nieto Moreno de Diezmas developed a macro-study on the acquisition of English competences (reading, writing, listening and spoken production and interaction) in CLIL and non-CLIL students in Castilla-La Mancha. The sample was formed by almost 20,000 students, as the whole census of the 4th year Primary students in the region participated in the project. They were divided into two groups: the CLIL students enrolled in European Sections, and the non-CLIL control group, which was almost ten times larger.

Three years were necessary to collect all the necessary data to carry out the investigation and it was obtained during a Diagnostic Assessment of the Educational System of Castilla-La Mancha. The skill of writing was evaluated in the first year of the project; in the second year, oral production and interaction were assessed, and in the third year, reading and writing tests were applied. The statistical analyses were developed by

using the SPSS programme and the high internal consistency and reliability of the test was confirmed.

Significant differences were not detected between CLIL and non-CLIL students, being spoken interaction and production the only skill in which differences in favour of CLIL learners were found. Although the CLIL cohort outperformed the EFL students in reading and writing, the differences were not significant. Finally, it is worth mentioning that the non-CLIL students obtained better results than the CLIL learners in the listening test, but not significantly. As a conclusion, the author claims the effectiveness of CLIL in the acquisition of English may not be too evident for three clear reasons: the first one has to do with the fact that the extra exposure to the FL is still limited at this level; the second reason is the young learners' lack of developed cognitive strategies; and the third one is the absence of any selection process for CLIL learners. Thus, it is suggested that the older students are, the more advantage they will take of the CLIL methodology, which will then considerably improve their results in all competences.

Another recent study has been developed by the same author (Nieto Moreno de Diezmas, 2021), this time focusing on the effects that CLIL methodology has on the acquisition of digital competence in students at Primary level. Following the recommendations of the European Parliament and the Council on Key Competences for Lifelong Learning (EC, 2006), students must have developed eight key competences by the end of Compulsory Education, among which digital competence is included. Hence, Nieto Moreno de Diezmas (2021) aimed at analysing and evaluating the performance of both CLIL and non-CLIL students regarding the way they communicate and take part in collaborative networks and how they look for, collect and process digital information.

The sample of the study was formed by all CLIL and non-CLIL students from the 4th year of Primary Education and the data was collected during the Diagnostic Assessment of the Educational System of Castilla-La Mancha. The findings proved that bilingual programmes positively contribute to the acquisition and development of digital competence among Primary Education learners, since the CLIL cohort outperformed the non-CLIL group. In the same vein, Nieto Moreno de Diezmas (2021) concluded by stating that CLIL methodology fosters the integration of all key competences, as many teaching innovations are constantly being implemented in these learning contexts. Furthermore, communicative abilities, which are the ones especially fostered by dual-focused education, as well as higher order thinking skills, participation, critical thinking and

collaborative learning, can easily be transferred to digital environments (Nieto Moreno de Diezmas, 2021).

In turn, Sevilla Nieto and Bobkina (2016) contributed to assessing bilingual programmes in Castilla-La Mancha, this time analysing stakeholders' perspectives on CLIL. This qualitative investigation, carried out in two Secondary schools situated in the south of the region, aimed at determining the relationship between bilingualism and students' motivation towards learning a FL. Three different questionnaires (one per cohort), including closed and open questions, were used to collect the data. As a conclusion, generally optimistic outcomes were obtained. Most of the students felt quite motivated towards learning English, which also explains the positive outlook on pupils' motivation by teachers. However, educators claimed that on some occasions, students were reluctant to use the FL in class, something which depends on the content subject or the specific topic they are learning. Parents' perspectives were also very positive since they recognised the importance of studying English, especially for their children's future employability. Among the main concerns detected was parents' worry about the fact that learning content through English can push down their children's marks. In contrast, most pupils affirmed that being taught through a FL has not had any detrimental effect on their academic results (Sevilla Nieto and Bobkina, 2016, p. 223).

In spite of these undoubtedly valuable endeavours to investigate CLIL implementation in Castilla-La Mancha, more research is needed in the community, especially focusing on the inclusion and acquisition of key competences in bilingual settings, which is “one of the most important challenges in today's education” (Nieto Moreno de Diezmas, 2021, p. 54).

3.2.3.4. Extremadura

Although the community of Extremadura has traditionally been canvassed together with Castilla-La Mancha because of their local proximity and their similarities in the implementation of CLIL, the expansion of bilingual programmes in Extremadura has been slower than in Castilla-La Mancha. As happened in Castilla-La Mancha, CLIL implementation in Extremadura was also conducted by the MEC-British Council Project (1996-1997) and supported afterwards by the *Proyectos de Sección Bilingüe*, which were

officially established by the local authorities in the academic year 2004-2005. At the beginning, it was optional to take part in these projects, but since 2009-2010, any new Primary schools opening in Extremadura must have a bilingual section, according to the local regulations (Alejo González and Piquer-Píriz, 2010). Extremadura's bilingual policies were further consolidated by the *Linguaex 2009-2015* (Junta de Extremadura, 2008), whose main objective was to promote FL learning and the linguistic awareness by fostering the learning of more than one FL, in agreement with the mother tongue + 2 European policy. Other initiatives in the region promote the association of both Primary and Secondary schools, which would avoid the interruption of CLIL programmes when students begin a new educational stage. Moreover, Portuguese has been given a great support since it strengthens the links with the neighbouring country.

Vis-à-vis CLIL research in the region, Manzano Vázquez (2015) claims that the general acceptance and implementation of CLIL in Extremadura has not been accompanied by empirical research on the actual results of these programmes. However, the study carried out by the Extremadura educational authorities in 2014 on FL proficiency deserves to be mentioned. This study constitutes the first attempt of the local government to analyse and evaluate CLIL student progress at both Primary and Secondary levels. Results were very positive, showing that the level of FL proficiency attained by the pupils was adequate according to their educational stage. Hence, by the end of Primary Education, most of the learners had achieved an A2 level, whereas students at the end of Secondary Education had reached a B1 level on average. Outcomes regarding teacher training were less optimistic, revealing an important shortage of qualified instructors and the subsequent need for more teacher training opportunities (Gobierno de Extremadura, 2014).

Other relevant studies have been developed by Alejo González and Piquer-Píriz (2016b) on the rural/ urban divide and on the assessment of productive vocabulary (2016a). The former investigation looked into the influence of the social environment (urban/ rural) on motivation, input-related variables (e.g. age of onset, extramural exposure and intensity of exposure) and linguistic attainment of CLIL students in two different schools in Extremadura. A total of 48 students, who belonged to two groups of 3rd year of CSE, formed the sample of the investigation. These students were enrolled in two different schools (one situated in a rural area and the other located in an urban context), which had the same curricula and implemented CLIL offering their students the

same exposure to EFL and CLIL subjects. As the researchers openly point out, “CLIL research would necessarily call for greater attention to the role of external factors” (Alejo González and Piquer-Píriz, 2016b, p. 246). That is why they designed a “L2 language contact profile” questionnaire based on the language history questionnaire for bilingual research devised by Li, Sepanski and Zhao (2006). 15 items were included in this questionnaire aimed at collecting the necessary information of the students’ socioeducational features. Another questionnaire containing 25 items related to motivation (i.e. attitudes towards learning, ideal self, integrativeness, anxiety, instrumentality and intended effort) was administered to students. Three language tests were also used and schools provided information about the pupils’ academic performance in CLIL, EFL and the remaining subjects.

Outcomes revealed that the CLIL learners belonging to the urban school received greater formal support outside school and attained a higher level of English than their rural colleagues. Non-significant differences were detected among cohorts regarding motivation, although students in the urban school seemed to perform better in the anxiety dimension, that is, they showed lower levels of anxiety in comparison with the rural school students. Moreover, urban learners’ level of English was less closely linked to their general academic achievement.

The second study by Alejo González and Piquer-Píriz was also developed in 2016, this time focusing on analysing the effectiveness and reliability of Lex30 as a vocabulary testing tool used in CLIL contexts. 48 pupils from two Secondary schools in Extremadura constituted the sample, and information was collected at two different moments in time: when students were in their 3rd and 4th year following a programme with three CLIL subjects. Different already-existing tests were adapted and used to obtain all the data pertaining to the students’ productive and receptive vocabulary, as well as other language variables such as their grammatical knowledge. Moreover, schools provided further information concerning the academic performance of students in the FL and in other subjects of the curriculum.

As a result, the authors claim that although the reliability of this tool is acceptable, it is not a highly reliable test. Moreover, the concurrent validity with other specific measures is certainly low and Lex30 is not very sensitive to showing vocabulary growth. Lastly, the researchers call for “a cautious interpretation of the results in some specific contexts like CLIL, where Lex30 scores can appear inflated due to its typical focus on

technical, low frequency vocabulary” (Alejo González and Piquer-Píriz, 2016a, p. 50 as cited in Pascual Bajo, 2018, p. 207).

Focusing on the effects of extramural exposure in a CLIL context, Lancaster (2018) developed another research project in the region. This quantitative endeavour, aimed at analysing the effects that CLIL and extramural exposure to the FL have on FL learning, constitutes an example of applied, primary and quasi-experimental research. A total of 318 Primary and Secondary students coming from public and semi-private schools constituted the sample of the investigation and were matched in terms of motivation, verbal intelligence and FL proficiency so that homogeneity was guaranteed. Two different tests measuring verbal intelligence and motivation were applied and pupils had to answer a questionnaire including personal information questions to determine extramural exposure and socioeconomic status. Moreover, schools provided information about students’ FL attainment. Apart from these already-existing instruments, two batteries of FL tests were originally designed and validated.

Considering both educational stages as a whole, results showed that CLIL education fosters extramural exposure more than EFL programmes. The same happened when the two levels of education were analysed separately. Nevertheless, no statistically significant differences were detected among Primary students. Significant differences did emerge in favour of CLIL Secondary students, who presented a higher level of exposure to the FL in comparison to non-CLIL learners.

Statistically significant differences were detected between CLIL students receiving no extra after-school English lessons and non-CLIL pupils receiving them. Thus, outcomes confirmed the superior FL learning of bilingual learners, evincing that CLIL programmes have very positive effects which are not superseded by students coming from more privileged semi-private school environments. After carrying out successive discriminant analyses, it was shown that differences among Primary students were mainly ascribed to socioeconomic status (SES) and the independent variable (CLIL programme), whereas in Secondary Education, the variables causing the greatest variance in FL attainment were the CLIL programme and extramural exposure (Lancaster, 2018, p. 111).

Finally, the recent studies carried out by Martínez Agudo (2020, 2021), which can be considered the last additions to the body of CLIL research in Extremadura, must be

foregrounded. This first research project examines the impact of CLIL on the English language competence of 318 Primary and Secondary Education students, extending the investigation to a year after the end of the bilingual programme, when pupils are finishing the first year of Baccalaureate. Homogeneity of the sample was guaranteed and the intervening variable of type of school was taken into consideration. Significant differences were detected in favour of CLIL students in public schools at the end of Compulsory Secondary Education, and they were even more marked at the end of the first year of Baccalaureate. However, no differences appeared when comparing public CLIL students with charter non-CLIL pupils. The non-CLIL students from public schools were the ones who obtained the lowest scores on all aspects evaluated. Hence, the researchers concluded that CLIL streams could serve as a compensation for the advantage that charter schools typically represent in general academic achievement and in English language competence (Martínez Agudo, 2020, p. 36). Despite the researchers' effort to illustrate the actual situation of CLIL in this region, the findings of their study must be regarded with caution, as the effects of all possible factors influencing the results were not controlled for. Moreover, the restricted sample taking part in the investigation makes it impossible for results to be able to be generalised (Martínez Agudo, 2020, p. 46). These shortcomings, together with the scant number of projects carried out in Extremadura, must be the basis to push further investigation forward and paint a real picture of bilingualism in this Spanish context.

In turn, the second study (2021), which is an extension of the previous one, has as its principal goal to evaluate and analyse the effects of CLIL on content learning. Hence, students' performance in the subjects of Science in Primary Education and Natural Science in Secondary Education is compared across schools in order to determine if "bilingual programmes are watering down subject matter learning or promoting it as successfully as in monolingual streams" (Martínez Agudo, 2021, p. 167).

To that end, participants answered a questionnaire which included questions about their personal data and their final grades in the Science subjects were collected to measure their subject knowledge. The homogeneity of the sample was guaranteed in terms of motivation, verbal intelligence and English level. Moreover, pre-, post-, and delayed-post tests were administered to Primary and Secondary Education students. Hence, dependent (content subject learning) and intervening variables (type of school and educational level) were taken into consideration in order to determine if the differences ascertained across

cohorts were truly ascribable to CLIL instruction or, on the contrary, the rest of variables accounted for a greater proportion of the variance (Martínez Agudo, 2021, p. 175).

The results showed that CLIL programmes have a positive influence on the development of subject content knowledge in Primary and Secondary Education, since CLIL learners obtained better results than their non-CLIL partners. Thus, CLIL instruction was found to benefit content learning more than traditional teaching methodologies. These positive effects were more clearly seen at the end of Secondary Education, where more significant differences arose. The variables of type of school and educational level also yielded substantial differences, confirming that bilingual students obtain better outcomes than monolingually educated learners at both educational levels, but only in the case of public schools. However, when comparing public schools and charter non-bilingual schools, clear-cut differences in the results of both cohorts appeared in terms of the type of school and the educational stage. Thus, charter non-bilingual strands outperformed public bilingual schools at the end of Primary Education, but the bilingual students obtained better results than the monolingual pupils at the end of Secondary Education. In short, the effectiveness of CLIL programmes is once again confirmed, but further longitudinal studies are necessary to analyse the real effect that CLIL exerts on subject matter knowledge in the short term or in the long run.

3.2.3.5. Principality of Asturias

The introduction of bilingualism in Asturias dates back to 1996, when the Ministry of Education and Science and the British Council signed an agreement by virtue of which content and language integrated curriculum programmes began to be implemented in different schools throughout Spain, two of them concretely in Asturias (the public Primary schools La Atalía in Gijón and Ventanielles in Oviedo). This collaboration agreement was planned for students aged from 3 to 16, that is, it was aimed at covering all educational stages from early Primary Education to the end of CSE (Llinares Cardoso, 2016, p. 16).

This successful experience led to the creation of the bilingual education programme (BEP) in 2004, whose pilot phase would last for four academic years and would initially focus on the Secondary stage. Then, it was expanded to Primary Education

as well, making bilingualism and CLIL methodology have a quick uptake across the region.

The BOPA 121 of 19th May, 2009 is the Official Bulletin of the Principality of Asturias, which regulates the development and structuring of bilingual programmes in the community. This regulation provided a legal framework to bilingualism in Asturias and contributed to its consolidation among the whole educational community. As a result, the number of centres and educational stages participating in the BEP is growing each year. Currently, over 200 Primary and Secondary schools are following the bilingual programme. To this, we must add some bilingual programmes implemented in Baccalaureate and Vocational Training courses.

However, this enthusiasm towards CLIL has not been translated into deep research on the actual outcomes of the bilingual programme. Thus, as Llinares Cardoso (2016, p. 17) claims: “the research done about bilingualism in Asturias is predominantly done in the context of Master’s dissertations from the University of Oviedo”, focusing mainly on the Primary Education level (Montes, 2014; Sánchez, 2012).

Bearing this situation in mind, the regional government carried out a large-scale evaluation of bilingual programmes in Asturias in 2016 (Consejería de Educación y Cultura del Gobierno del Principado de Asturias, 2016), which can be considered the most important attempt to assess bilingual sections in the region hitherto. The study was divided into four different parts: in the first one, a detailed analysis of the organisation and functioning of CLIL was developed, while the second part of the project aimed at discovering families’ perspectives on the programme. Finally, the last two parts focused on discovering if there was a connection between CLIL and the academic performance of students at school and in an external examination.

The findings were mainly positive in the first part of the investigation, although some weaknesses of the programme were also detected. Hence, the principal strengths found had to do with the priority given to oral communication inside the classroom, the generalised use of ICTs, the role of the teaching assistants and the pupils’ attitudes and results, which clearly tended to improve. Moreover, it was revealed that CLIL fosters coordination among teachers, they feel more motivated towards keeping methodologically up-to-date and they incorporate more cross-curricular innovations. As for weaknesses, doubts on the continuity of the programme arose at the end of the Primary

stage and teachers complained about the excessive workload, the difficulties to deal with special needs pupils and some timetable constraints.

A total of 13,357 parents of Primary and Secondary students participated in the second part of the study and answered a questionnaire in which they expressed their opinions about CLIL programmes. As a result, a high level of satisfaction was detected among parents, since three out of four of families polled were found to be content and showed positive perspectives about their children belonging to a bilingual section. They would also recommend it to other families and claimed to have received enough information about CLIL methodology. However, they also reported the difficulties they had to face when helping their children with homework and the extra expenses derived from bilingual programmes (i.e. complementary activities).

An experimental (CLIL) and a control (non-CLIL) group was considered in the third part of the project, whose principal objective was to contrast the academic achievements of both cohorts. Results showed that CLIL learners presented higher promotion rates at both levels, but especially at the Secondary stage. This same pattern was observed when analysing the subjects separately. Finally, the last study compared the performance of a total of 15,717 CLIL and non-CLIL students in the Evaluación de Diagnóstico (ED), an external examination that evaluates learners' skills in English, Mathematics and Science when they are in their 4th year of Primary and 2nd year of Secondary Education. The superiority of the CLIL cohort on all aspects analysed was once again evinced. However, these better findings cannot only be attributable to the CLIL programme, but also to some other external factors such as higher SES, positive attitudes and higher levels of motivation.

In 2019, Fernández Sanjurjo, Fernández Costales and Arias Blanco developed another investigation in this autonomous community. These researchers investigated CLIL students' skills in Science taking into consideration the type of school where they study and their socioeconomic status as intervening variables. A total of 709 Primary Education pupils took part in the project. The authors compared the performance of CLIL and non-CLIL pupils to determine if the acquisition of content in the Science subject is affected by learning it through a FL. To this end, a Science test was designed and a context questionnaire was also used to measure students' SES.

When comparing students by the type of school (CLIL vs. non-CLIL), it was found that pupils learning content through their mother tongue obtained better results. These unexpected outcomes coincide with the ones obtained by previous researchers such as Admiraal, Westhoff and de Bot (2006), Bergroth (2006) or Stehler (2006), where no significant differences between the CLIL and the mainstream groups could be detected. Moreover, students with a lower SES obtained significantly worse results than participants coming from a higher or more privileged socioeconomic status in both CLIL and non-CLIL groups.

As a conclusion, and taking into account these results, Fernández Sanjurjo, Fernández Costales and Arias Blanco (2019) emphasise the necessity of pushing new measures forward to improve CLIL results in content acquisition. Moreover, they make some proposals to improve teacher training, re-design the curriculum of CLIL subjects, and to increase the teaching hours in bilingual groups.

3.2.3.5. The Canary Islands

Despite being among the best English CLIL programmes in Spain, the Canary Islands archipelago in the Atlantic Ocean is noticeable because of its lack of published empirical studies regarding its bilingual programme (Oxbrow, 2018).

CLIL programmes were firstly introduced in this autonomous community in the academic year 2004-2005, when the Canarian autonomous government established Active Foreign Language Learning, an experimental project which aimed at implementing dual-focused education at Primary level. Different CLIL approaches were implemented across nine public schools in 2004, and in the following year, the initiative was extended to the Secondary stage. Since then, CLIL methodology has been largely implemented in the public-school system of the region. Hence, there are currently over 500 Primary and Secondary schools involved (Frigols and Marsh, 2014). The participation of Primary students in these bilingual programmes was compulsory while Secondary pupils took part in CLIL programmes voluntarily. However, this was subsequently changed: since the academic year 2016- 2017, it is compulsory for all Secondary Education learners to follow this type of programme in the schools which offer CLIL instruction.

As mentioned above, few studies have been conducted in the region to analyse how CLIL is actually playing out. Nevertheless, in 2017 Arnaiz Castro carried out one of the first evaluations of CLIL in this autonomous community, in which he compared the results obtained by CLIL and non-CLIL learners in the English tests of the University Admission Examinations, taking into consideration the content-subjects which stakeholders had been taught through English.

A total of 178 first-year university students belonging to three different degrees composed the sample of the study. It is worth mentioning that 89 of them had been taught by means of CLIL methodology since they were in Primary Education. A specifically designed questionnaire was used to collect all the necessary information. The answer to the first research question that the study addressed was extremely positive, as those pupils who had received CLIL instruction outperformed their EFL counterpart in the English test of the University Entrance examination. The following questions were related to the non-linguistic areas which had been taught through a FL in the different schools and the number of years in which students had received CLIL instruction. It was found that Environmental and Social Sciences, together with Maths were the most frequent CLIL subjects in Primary Education and that, in spite of some variations, most of the CLIL participants had belonged to a bilingual section for at least four academic years.

A year later, Oxbrow (2018) evaluated stakeholder perspectives in the region. This qualitative study, which aimed at discovering students' perspectives on bilingual programmes at Primary and Secondary level, can also be framed within the Mon-CLIL project and used a previously validated questionnaire (Pérez Cañado, 2016d) for the collection of data. A total of 221 Primary (75%) and Secondary students (25%) belonging to public (91,4%) and private schools (8,6%) situated in urban or rural areas in Gran Canaria comprised the sample of the study and were administered the aforementioned questionnaire.

Firstly, the information collected by means of the questionnaires was subsumed and discussed within its seven thematic blocks: students' use, competence and development of English in class; methodology; materials and resources; evaluation; teachers' use, competence and development of English in class; mobility; and improvement and motivation towards learning English. Afterwards, within-cohort comparisons were carried out, taking into consideration the variables of gender,

educational stage, setting, number of years learning English and number of subjects taught in English.

Pupils feel generally satisfied with the programme, their teachers and the development of their own linguistic skills. Motivation has also increased among stakeholders, who must also face some problems related mainly to materials and teacher training. Taking into consideration the intervening variables incorporated, the school setting and the number of years learning English were found to be the clear responsible for the different opinions of the participants. Coinciding with previous studies (Pena Díaz and Porto Requejo, 2008; Pérez Cañado, 2014, 2016b), Oxbrow (2018) discovered certain flaws in the rural areas, concretely related to methodology, materials and mobility. Moreover, it was found that CLIL learners whose experience in the programme is wider displayed a greater intercultural competence and metacognitive awareness.

Two years later, the same author published another investigation carried out in the islands, this time focusing not only on students, but also on teachers and parents (Oxbrow, 2020). This research project, which builds on the previous one, employs the same methodology for the collection of data and once again aims at analysing stakeholder perspectives of the effects of CLIL on linguistic and intercultural competence development. Data triangulation and location triangulation was employed in order to obtain a representative picture of how bilingualism is regarded among stakeholders. Within- and across-cohort comparisons were carried out in terms of a series of intervening variables (age, gender, grade, setting and English level). The outcomes revealed a growing acceptance and popularity of CLIL among stakeholders, with students being the least enthusiastic about some of the items included. Significant differences in terms of setting and number of subjects taught through English arose in favour of pupils. In case of teachers, the most negative findings were related to training. In turn, parents were generally optimistic about bilingualism, but those with the lower educational levels showed their concern about their impossibility to master contents in the L2. In Oxbrow's words: "our results may not be generalizable to other contexts". Instead, they "may well be related to other variables in our monolingual educational context" (2019, p. 12). However, this study allows us to offer "a detailed diagnosis of where we currently stand on the linguistic and intercultural front" (Oxbrow, 2020, p. 99).

3.2.3.6. *Castilla and León*

The last monolingual region in this section is Castilla and León, whose CLIL model stems from the aforementioned British Council / MEC agreement from 1996. It was in the academic year 2006- 2007 when the local education authorities passed the first law (Order EDU/6/2006) which regulated the implementation of bilingual sections in the region. A total of 74 Primary schools were authorised for the start-up and since then, CLIL implementation has widely spread in Primary and Secondary centres. Thus, more than 640 schools already offered CLIL provision in 2017.

In spite of this enthusiasm towards CLIL programmes, little research on the outcomes of such an innovative methodology has been conducted. The investigations carried out so far in the region have focused on stakeholders' perspectives, paying special attention to the figure of teachers. In this respect, the study developed by Durán Martínez and Beltrán Llavador in 2016 must be foregrounded. These researchers aimed at evaluating CLIL teachers' feelings about Primary and Secondary bilingual sections in Castilla and León's schools after seven years of implementation.

For the study, the researchers adapted a questionnaire which had been used in a previous study conducted in Madrid. The instrument included Likert scale (1-5) question types and an open question at the end of each section, and focused on three different dimensions: teacher training, resources, and impact of the bilingual programme. A total of 151 educators from Primary and Secondary public and semi-private schools in rural and urban areas of the region took part in the project.

After analysing the data with the help of the SPSS (21.0) programme, it was revealed that most teachers felt satisfied with the initial training they received, but at the same time asked for further continuous professional development. Most of the teachers polled also expressed their concerns regarding the insufficient number of teaching assistants and, especially, the lack of suitable materials to work with. Thus, they called for more appropriate resources which can be adapted to each specific context and to the different needs of students. Adapting the already-existing materials or elaborating new ones was said to be time consuming. That is why, educators demanded the help of support staff or at least, the possibility of including some time in their timetables for this purpose. Moreover, higher levels of collaboration between teachers and institutions at local,

regional and international level were requested. Finally, despite the limited regional administrative support acknowledged, positive feelings transpired on the part of most teachers. 92% of the participants found the bilingual sections a beneficial initiative for the community.

The same year, Durán Martínez, Beltrán Llavador and Martínez Abad (2016) analysed and contrasted the perceptions of novice and expert CLIL teachers working in school bilingual sections. By using the data collected in the previous study (Durán Martínez and Beltrán Llavador, 2016), they divided the sample into three different groups depending on the degree of expertise of teachers: novice (with up to two years of experience), experienced (between two and four years) and expert (five or more years).

The investigation describes the value that the different instructors give to bilingual programmes comparing their viewpoints in four influential areas of research: the competencies required (linguistic, subject knowledge, methodological and content and language integration), the available materials, the organisation and their general assessment of the project. Outcomes revealed that the experience factor was of outmost importance in forming CLIL teachers' perceptions (Durán Martínez, Beltrán Llavador and Martínez Abad, 2016 as cited in Pascual Bajo, 2018, p. 216). Thus, statistically significant differences were detected in the criteria variables concerning teaching experience in CLIL projects. It was then confirmed that expert CLIL teachers prioritise methodological competencies and the ability to integrate language and content over subject knowledge and language proficiency. They are also more critical about the published course materials and they value cooperation among teachers and innovation as integral parts of CLIL. On the whole, they are more aware of the benefits of CLIL despite the challenges it can generate.

As a conclusion, the researchers claim expert teachers have more clearly understood the concept of CLIL and the commitment it implies. Hence, the entire educational community must get involved in the implementation of CLIL methodology to carry out all the changes and adaptations needed. Thus, with a view to promoting additional training programmes, the researchers suggest that these expert teachers should be given “specific mentoring roles in the design, implementation and assessment of CLIL initiatives” (Durán Martínez, Beltrán Llavador and Martínez Abad, 2016, p. 752).

In 2017, another contribution by Durán Martínez and Beltrán Llavador was published, aimed at widening the scope of the previous investigations. This time they focused on Primary teachers' qualitative assessment of CLIL programmes, reporting their perceptions on four key areas of bilingual sections, namely, training priorities, teaching resources, school organisation and overall evaluation of the initiative. A total of 97 Primary teachers took part in the investigation and provided qualitative responses to the open questions included in the questionnaire (Durán Martínez and Beltrán Llavador, 2016).

As for training, teachers express their need for higher linguistic competence and greater investment in lifelong learning schemes and they also highlight the necessity to offer more opportunities to contact native speakers. Regarding resources, there is a general lack of enthusiasm towards the existing coursebooks, which make them have to create their own materials. Teachers also consider that some improvements are still necessary in the organisation of CLIL programmes, especially involving a greater coordination among educators. However, in spite of the admitted difficulties, bilingual programmes are generally said to yield evident results, such as the children's improvement of their competence in the FL or the use of more dynamic methodologies.

Finally, it is worth mentioning the study conducted by Durán Martínez in 2018. Similarly to previous studies, this author carried out a comparative analysis of teachers' perceptions on bilingual programmes in Primary and Secondary Education. This analysis, which focused on three key dimensions of the educational practice (training, teaching resources and organisation), was developed by applying a non-experimental research design using questionnaires. An adapted questionnaire was the tool employed to collect the data from the 120 Primary and Secondary in-service teachers who participated in the project.

The results confirmed that, although communicative competence in English is higher in Secondary Education, Primary educators have a wider didactic training and have more experience in bilingual programmes. Both groups of educators show the same lack of enthusiasm towards the available materials and both consider it is essential to invest in strengthening the international connections and in teacher training. Statistically significant differences were detected in key aspects such as the importance given to subject content knowledge, their training priorities or the necessity to be provided with additional teachers. Generally speaking, Primary teachers show a greater methodological

awareness with a teaching approach which is closer to CLIL practice, whereas Secondary teachers are more concerned with the aspects related to the teaching of subject contents in English (Durán Martínez, 2018, p. 865, 866).

3.3. CLIL in Andalusia

3.3.1. Introduction

The autonomous community of Andalusia, characterised by “a monoglot mentality” (Lorenzo, 2010, p. 3) where Spanish is the first and sole language for the most part of the population, has been for over the past five years “a monolingual community striving to jump on the bilingual bandwagon” (Pérez Cañado, 2011, p. 392). That is why Andalusia has now become “the clearest example of the introduction of bilingual sections” (Madrid and Hughes, 2011, p. 12) and it is “clearly ahead of the game in CLIL implementation and research” (Pascual Bajo, 2018, p. 182).

With more CLIL schools than any other monolingual community and an average of 400,000 students receiving CLIL instruction in the region, Andalusia is implementing what Madrid and Hughes (2011, p. 13) call “pedagogical bilingualism”, which is introduced in schools in contexts where opportunities for natural communication through a foreign language are rare to occur. In spite of this unfavourable situation, Andalusia has succeeded in carrying out ambitious language policies seeking to consolidate CLIL implementation throughout the community. Firstly, the Andalusian Plan for the Promotion of Plurilingualism (APPP) was approved in 2005 by the Andalusian government and more recently, in 2017, the new PEDLA (Plan Estratégico de Desarrollo de las Lenguas en Andalucía) has been applied with the objective of strengthening many accomplishments which appeared in the APPP.

In the next sections, a complete description of Andalusian policies on bilingualism, how bilingual sections work within the community and the most significant research carried out until now will be presented, emphasising the results found in each project and considering the similarities with our present investigation.

3.3.2. From the APPP to the PEDLA

The origins of bilingualism in Andalusia date back to the experimental bilingual sections which were firstly put into practice in 26 Primary and Secondary schools from 1998 to 2004 throughout the community. A collaboration protocol was later signed with the French Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Spanish-French sections were then launched by the Andalusian government in 1998, where at least one subject was taught through this foreign language. In 2000, Spanish-German sections were included, extending the aforementioned pilot programme. Thus, there were a total of 18 French and 8 German bilingual schools in Andalusian schools by 2004, a number which has increased to 26 and 12, respectively, in the academic year 2021-2022.

However, in spite of all these successful attempts to foster bilingualism in the region, it was not until the approval of the Andalusian Plan for the Promotion of Plurilingualism (APPP) in 2005 that there was an extremely significant growth in the number of schools joining the bilingual experience, more specifically English bilingual sections (Cabrera Linero, 2009). Hence, the APPP, included in the so-called Second Modernisation of Andalusia (Junta de Andalucía, 2005), was born as a response to the demands of our “complex, unstable and globalised society” (Pérez Cañado, 2011, p. 392). Consequently, it also emerged to improve the low foreign language competence found in the community. As can be read in the APPP, “we must meet the challenge of foreign language teaching within the framework of a globalised world, as a fundamental instrument, in order to ensure success and share a better future” (APPP - Junta de Andalucía, 2005, p. 4).

The APPP was also conceived with European ideals, such as the Lisbon Strategy’s European educational objective to improve language quality between 2000 and 2010 and the Common European Framework’s (2001) aim to form European plurilingual citizens. Furthermore, it can be framed against the backdrop of a series of European documents which it tries to counter: the 1995 EC White Paper on Education and Training, which established the mother tongue + 2 initiative; the Council of Europe’s encouragement of plurilingualism; the ECML’s (European Center for Modern Languages) support to implement innovative language teaching reforms across member states; or the worrying results obtained by Spanish people in the Eurobarometers in terms of their foreign language competence.

Taking into account all this background and bearing in mind the success of the aforementioned pilot experience of French and German bilingual schools in the region, together with the support of Official Language Schools, the enthusiasm of teachers, the interest in learning a third foreign language and the desire to achieve a plurilingual communicative competence within the community, the publication of such an innovative policy became a reality.

This backdrop also helped to create the bases of the APPP, which focus on methodological and linguistic renovation and the promotion of teamwork to elaborate an Integrated Language Curriculum (ILC). Five subprogrammes are incorporated in the APPP, which stipulate a total of 74 actions to be accomplished, dealing with methodological, organisational and evaluation elements. Among these actions, 13 of them act as general goals, which are presented as follows:

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

The plan includes another 61 actions, mainly associated to the five subprogrammes into which the Plan is articulated: *The Bilingual Schools Programme, the Official Language School Programme, the Teachers and the Plurilingual Programme, the*

Plurilingualism and Society Programme and the Plurilingualism and Cross-Culturalism Programme (Junta de Andalucía, 2005).

The first pillar or subprogramme incorporated in the APPP, which comprises a total of 17 actions, is especially designed to step up students' L1, L2 and L3. The main aim is to improve skills in both, the pupils' mother tongue and the foreign language, so that they can develop a different linguistic awareness. From a cultural point of view, pupils in bilingual schools come into contact with other realities from an early age and they are soon able to make comparisons with their own environment. Lastly, from a cognitive point of view, language teaching and/or learning also improves general learning skills.

In such a new model, some changes related to the organisation of schools and the curriculum are considered as well. As for organisation, bilingual schools must ensure the increase in the number of class hours devoted to language learning. A coordinator must be named to organise and supervise the elaboration of the linguistic project and the integrated curriculum within the framework of the School Project. Moreover, working collaboratively becomes a must for language teachers, non-linguistic area teachers and native teaching assistants. The new curricular model in bilingual schools includes all the languages studied and all the stages of education. Hence, the languages must be integrated in the curriculum from an earlier age. Furthermore, aid for curricular materials and ICT equipment is provided, as well as immersion courses and guidance for parents.

In turn, the *Official Language Schools Programme* (OLS) subsumes 12 actions, which aim to offer specialised language courses by using classroom learning, blended learning and distance learning. Official Language Schools try to foster the study of languages in general and, in particular, those of the co-official languages of Spain, the languages of the member states of the European Union, and the teaching of Spanish as a foreign language. Thus, the APPP looks to expand the network of OLSs, offering a greater diversity of languages, specialised linguistic upgrade courses for bilingual school teachers, the incorporation of language assistants and distance learning courses.

The third subprogramme *-Teachers and Plurilingual Programme-* includes 11 actions, mainly focused on teacher training initiatives, that is to say, it seeks to improve the quality of teacher training and educators' working conditions. Since teacher training is one of the bases of any education system, the updating of scientific knowledge is

essential, especially in the field of languages. Thus, language teachers, as well as teachers of non-linguistic areas, will be provided with more specific training. Good teaching practices will be shared by means of a catalogue and new study licenses will be established. This will also foster the participation of teachers in European programmes, including exchanges visits with foreign teachers.

Four are the actions included in the *Plurilingualism and Society Programme*, which is focused on making the Andalusian society aware of the importance of learning foreign languages. The determining impact that families and society in general have on pupils is emphasised by claiming that “language learning should not be restricted to the classroom and, consequently, it proposes a much wider horizon of social action that will allow the language skills of Andalusian society as a whole to be updated and improved” (Junta de Andalucía, 2005, p. 48).

As a consequence, the main objective of this programme is to stimulate the participation of society in language learning activities. To achieve it, the APPP proposes new measures to facilitate language learning: the organisation of linguistic and cultural activities for parents, the programming and organisation of specific courses at Official Language Schools, extra-curricular activities organised by the government in the form of immersion camps, and school exchanges and collaboration agreements with the media.

Finally, the *Plurilingualism and Cross-Culturalism Programme* incorporates 6 actions related to the attention to cross-cultural diversity in schools. Based on the idea that all citizens must tolerate and accept the different social groups and cultures co-existing in our society, this programme offers Linguistic Adaptation Programmes and specific training for teachers who work with immigrants. Moreover, the foreign language offered in the school is chosen bearing these students’ needs in mind. Joint educational programmes between Andalusia and immigrant countries are established and a pilot programme for mixed schooling is also designed. Language education is, therefore, a useful tool to attain this objective because it fosters “recognition, tolerance and democratic pluralism” (Junta de Andalucía, 2005, p. 51).

In general, the APPP’s main objective is to benefit teachers, students and the whole society by virtue of two principles: improving the mother tongue language skills of the Andalusian population and increasing plurilingual and pluricultural communicative competence. Thus, as Pérez Cañado (2011, p. 16) claims, “The APPP has been a

milestone on the road to attaining the balanced bilingualism pursued by the educational authorities”.

The APPP has been recently revised and its objectives have also been realigned by the PEDLA (Plan Estratégico de Desarrollo de las Lenguas en Andalucía- Junta de Andalucía, 2017). This strategic plan, which was launched in February 2017, has as its principal objectives to improve Andalusian students’ communicative competence in all languages (MT and FLs), to increase the students’ level according to the CEFR in at least one foreign language, to upgrade language teaching methodologies, and to augment the amount of stakeholders with a C1 level (Junta de Andalucía, 2017 as cited in Pérez Cañado, 2017b, p. 3). These general goals are then broken down into six more specific aims which will be further explained as follows.

1. The *consolidation of the achievements of the APPP* is the first of the specific objectives considered in the PEDLA. It is worth mentioning that after the implementation of the APPP in 2005, which involved a complete renovation in the field of language teaching in our community and which brought about the appearance of bilingual programmes, the Andalusian government has been working to improve the plan and the experience of all stakeholders involved in it. Four main actions will be carried out to guarantee this initial remit: a) increasing the number of bilingual schools. The objective is to create at least 1,500 bilingual schools by 2020, guaranteeing the continuity of the programmes and increasing the offer of bilingualism in Vocational Training courses (Formación Profesional); b) upgrading teachers’ language level to a C1, offering different types of training; c) fostering the role of teaching assistants as the main pillars of a true linguistic- cultural immersion at schools; and d) moving from a bilingual to a plurilingual education by introducing second foreign language and reinforcing the number and variety of languages offered.
2. *Teacher training* is the second field on which the plan will work. Thus, with the cooperation of universities, Teacher Training Centres and Official Language Schools, educators will be offered methodological courses, linguistic upgrade, training on how to use the European Language Portfolio and the e-ELP, how to implement student-centred methodologies such as project-based learning, the flipped classroom, Design Thinking or ICTs, and how to carry out attention to diversity in a proper way.
3. The third goal which the PEDLA pursues is to *increase research into the effects of bilingual programmes and their evaluation*. For this objective to be fulfilled, more

study licenses will be brought back and educational innovation projects between universities and schools will be created.

4. *Increasing extramural exposure to the foreign language* is also considered a key objective within the PEDLA since in the society where we live it is almost impossible to impose barriers between learning inside and outside the classroom. To that end, students will be encouraged to participate in Erasmus+ Programmes, e-Twinning and other types of exchanges. Furthermore, following the Document from the General Direction of Education and Culture of the European Comision “Study on the use of subtitling” (2011), students will be encouraged to watch films in the original version using subtitles, as this helps them develop learning strategies, communicative skills and improve spelling, phonetics and vocabulary.
5. Since learning a language also includes a sociocultural component, *fostering interculturality* equally appears in the plan as one of the main objectives. Immigrant students must be fully adapted to bilingual classes and learners must see cultures as a source of knowledge and personal enrichment. A resource center for online intercultural education will also be created to lift barriers in this respect.
6. Finally, *the improvement of Andalusian students’ language level* is the last objective underlined by the PEDLA. According to the plan, at least 50% of them must reach an A2 level at the end of Primary Education, a B1 level by the end of Compulsory Secondary Education and a B2 level when finishing Baccalaureate. Linguistic immersion, especially through Erasmus+ and e-Twinning programmes, will be used as tools to attain that goal.

More information about the Andalusian Plan for the Promotion of Plurilingualism (APPP) and the Strategic Plan of the Development of Languages in Andalusia (PEDLA) will be offered in the subsequent sections. Thus, important aspects related to the results obtained in the community so far, the form of evaluation considered and the different teachers’ roles will be dealt with.

3.3.2.1. Results obtained by the APPP and the PEDLA

After taking into account all the actions included in the APPP, we can conclude that most of them have been already applied. The objective to establish a network of 400

bilingual schools in the community between the years 2005 and 2008 and to further expand this development beyond 2008 represented a real challenge. As for Official Language Schools, it can be said that they doubled in number between 2004 and 2010.

The revolution that the APMP brought about in our community has made Andalusia occupy a predominant place in the development of these kinds of programmes within Spain. All this process of extension and consolidation of bilingual learning has been rewarded by eleven national prizes on e-Twinning in the last five years, three European prizes e-Twinning and two European Certificates for innovative initiatives in language teaching and learning. Moreover, two Andalusian schools have received the Label FrancÉducation.

In this respect, it is worth mentioning that between the years 2010-2015, Andalusia had a total of 2,002 bilingual teachers participating in e-Twinning, a number which will reach 6,577 bilingual educators in the school year 2021-22. Regarding CLIL methodology, FL exposure has clearly increased. During the academic year 2020/2021, a total of 472,822 students have been taught in a bilingual centre, having English as their medium of instruction. Furthermore, there have been 928 teaching assistants from English-speaking countries who have had the opportunity to be an essential part of the bilingual sections in the community. In the same vein, more foreign study visits and new linguistic courses have been developed in the last few years, although some exchanges had to be cancelled in the academic year 2020-2021 because of the Covid-19 pandemic.

3.3.2.2. Organisation

The organisational principles of the bilingual schools in Andalusia were designed to be implemented in both Primary and Secondary schools within the community. The decree of July 24th 2006 included these principles and claims that 30%-50% of the curriculum and 2-4 subjects should be taught in a foreign language. Afterwards, the order of June 28th 2011 increased the exposure to the foreign language within the classroom, being the minimum 50% of the class, with a higher percentage being considered desirable if possible. Language study, thus, would represent 5-6 hours of CLIL teaching, 3-4 hours of the FL, 2-3 hours of the L3 and 3-5 hours of the L1. As for subjects taught by means

of CLIL, they include a wide range, going from Mathematics and Science to Art and Music.

If a school was interested in bringing a CLIL section into effect, the first thing that had to be done was to prepare the so called *year zero*, in which everything was prepared and adapted to the new necessities of the school. However, the order of June 28th 2011 eliminated this phase because of the increased familiarisation with the Plan. Hence, the programme is now implemented directly in *year one*.

Schools must submit a proposal expressing their interest in becoming bilingual. There is a public call for applications where the schools that are to participate experimentally in the programme will be chosen among all the applicants. After being approved and authorised by the educational authorities, before implementing CLIL, teachers are trained specifically and materials, together with the ILC, are designed. Moreover, the bilingual coordinator is appointed.

Encompassed within the instructions of the May 20th 2015, all educational centres wishing to set up the CLIL principles are required to establish the groups of an academic level as CLIL streams. Thus, all bilingual schools with CLIL groups existing alongside non-CLIL groups are subject to progressively increasing the CLIL streams until all pupils receive a fully bilingual education. Five academic years for this process to be completed are the limit without regard to schools which already have enough human resources to attend to an entirely bilingual institution, in which case it will be obligatory. This reflects the autonomous community's purpose to push CLIL to its maximum performance and establish a fully inclusive programme.

3.3.2.3. Methodology

As the PEDLA states, “methodology is always determined by the characteristics of the students and by the learning situation in which teaching takes place” (PEDLA, Junta de Andalucía, 2017, p. 23). That is why both the APPP and now the PEDLA give priority to those methodologies which foster communication in the class, placing the students in real communication contexts, using authentic and adapted materials.

Students should be considered the main characters in the learning process, with teachers acting only as a guide. In this sense, CEFRL principles should be followed, together with the English Language Portfolio (ELP), which will help students check in which learning stage they really are and which achievements they have already obtained. By making students the real protagonists of the learning process, motivation will also be increased and positive attitudes towards language learning will be fostered.

Among these innovative methodologies promoting a learner-centred policy and independent learning, we cannot forget project-based learning, flipped classrooms and the so-called Design Thinking. Since the increased exposure to the L2 tries to consolidate knowledge of the mother tongue and help acquisition of the L3, students are expected to recognise the connection among all languages involved in the learning process. Hence, cooperative learning is prioritised, as well as communicative and interactive work. As Järvinen (2006, paragraph 2 of concluding remarks) claims: “shared expertise in planning and disseminating instructions seems an optimal solution to implementing good language and content teaching, stressing the importance of quality teamwork”.

In order to transform these methodological implications into practical CLIL application, adequate materials need to be used within the classroom. CLIL materials should be adapted to every student and they must be based on didactic innovation and communicative activities. Furthermore, the use of ICTs is a must.

3.3.2.4. *Evaluation*

As has been previously explained, in CLIL, evaluation should be centered on the students’ communicative competence. Nevertheless, assessment of content knowledge is also a key aspect in this teaching approach. CEFRL and ELP recommendations should be followed to assess students, apart from taking into account peer and self-assessment, which fosters pupils’ motivation and helps to increase the knowledge students have about their own advances in learning (Junta de Andalucía, 2020).

The evaluation criteria that will be applied in the bilingual lessons are established in the Order 28th June, 2011 (BOJA 135, 12th June, 2011), and some other recommendations for the evaluation of linguistic and content subjects are offered. In the linguistic areas, special attention will be given to the assessment of what the learner is

able to do in any of the five communicative skills, while in non-linguistic lessons, the emphasis will be placed in the learning of content over language competence. Written and oral assessment will be developed, paying attention to the development of communicative abilities.

3.3.2.5. *APPP teachers' roles*

3.3.2.5.1. Bilingual coordinators

Bilingual coordinators receive a reduction in teaching hours to devote time to fulfilling a wide range of functions. Among these main duties, the organisation and supervision of the elaboration of the linguistic project and the ILC within the framework of the School Project can be foregrounded. They also organise the meetings of the teaching staff to control how the ILC is being implemented and they schedule the teaching assistants' timetable. Moreover, they stay in touch with other bilingual centres and the provincial coordinator to assure that the programme is working efficiently.

3.3.2.5.2. Non-Linguistic Area teachers (NLAs)

These educators are those teaching content different from the language itself; for example, Mathematics, Art, Music, or Science teachers. With the current legislation, they can become members of a bilingual section if they are in possession of at least a B2 level certificate of the foreign language (English). In the future, the PEDLA contemplates the idea of requiring at least a C1 in the FL to be able to take part in the bilingual section (PEDLA, 2017, p. 16). NLA teachers collaborate in the adaptation of the ILC and they often design their own CLIL materials.

3.3.2.5.3. Language teachers

These are the teachers of the foreign language itself. They must promote communicative teaching with students and they must work collaboratively with the other departments of the bilingual section in order to develop the ILC.

More concretely, language teachers will ensure the correct pronunciation and expression of students, they will cooperate in the choice of textbooks and other materials and they will also use the CEFRL and ELP as guidelines within the classroom.

3.3.2.5.4. Language assistants

“With the aim of reinforcing the work of language teachers, the bilingual schools will also have an assistant, who is a native speaker for the foreign language classes” (APPP- Junta de Andalucía, 2005, p. 33). Hence, bilingual schools are supplied with native teaching assistants who complement and support CLIL teachers in general (under no circumstances are they expected to substitute a teacher). Their main objective is to increase oral conversation practice in the classroom while correcting pronunciation, vocabulary and grammar. They can collaborate in the design of materials and they also teach aspects of their culture. As Jaímez and López Morillas (2011, p. 95) point out, the teaching assistants are “one of the most recognised benefits of the plan by teachers and students”.

3.3.3. Summary of the research in Andalusia

In this section, we will focus on the studies conducted in our community which have tried to analyse how CLIL is playing out. Due to the great interest generated by the APPP and the PEDLA, a wide range of studies have been published in the last few years. Hence, the work of important research groups headed by Francisco Lorenzo in Pablo de Olavide University, by Daniel Madrid at the University of Granada and by María Luisa Pérez Cañado at the University of Jaén, together with research carried out by Rubio Mostacero at the Universities of Jaén and Portsmouth, and by Cabezas Cabello at the University of Málaga will be foregrounded, without forgetting some other research projects published recently and which have also helped us portray CLIL and analyse different aspects of its implementation in our community. To impose some kind of order in such a diverse field, we will classify the investigations into three broad categories: quantitative studies, qualitative investigations and studies with a mixed research design.

Within the group of **mixed research design studies**, Lorenzo is the researcher who deserves special attention. Hence, the first study to be mentioned here is the one carried out by Lorenzo et al. in the academic year 2006-2007. This investigation, which “has undoubtedly had the greatest dissemination and impact in Andalusia” (Pérez Cañado, 2017b, p. 4), was developed as a result of the “magnitude of the unprecedented investment in multilingual education” (Pascual Bajo, 2018, p. 183). Commissioned by

the *Consejería de Educación* of the *Junta de Andalucía*, which called for a comprehensive evaluation of the Bilingual Plan, skills-based language tests were administered to 1,768 students who took part in English, French and German bilingual sections across Andalusia. The English students had only been enrolled in a CLIL course for one and a half years, whereas French and German students had studied in a bilingual section since Primary level. It is worth also mentioning that, as the tests were applied to 4th grade Primary students and 2nd grade CSE students, it is considered an example of cross-sectional research. Extremely positive results regarding linguistic competence in the L2 were found. The fact that CLIL fosters rapid results accentuates that any age of entry is advantageous to the learner. Moreover, it was found that in terms of language use within the classroom, the teaching assistants practise what is called full immersion, the FL teacher represents semi-immersion and the NLA teacher seems to apply code-switching. As a conclusion, Lorenzo, Casal and Moore (2009, p. 433 as cited in Pérez Cañado, 2011, p. 394) described CLIL as “an extremely rich language learning environment”, making reference to the variety of teachers involved. However, it was evinced that English teachers did not surpass a B2 level, although these researchers consider that “instructors are on the right track in terms of language level” (Lorenzo, Casal and Moore, 2009 as cited in Pérez Cañado, 2011, p. 394). In spite of these results, these researchers admitted that CLIL was still an unknown terrain and it was too early to be able to generalise outcomes.

Diverse publications arose from this study. In this sense, Casal and Moore (2008) started describing the research design and explaining the administration phase of the investigation. Then, Lorenzo, Casal and Moore (2009) focused on the quantitative outcomes of their research and, finally, Lorenzo, Casal, Moore and Alonso (2009) expounded on the qualitative side of the study, since the researchers complemented the quantitative results obtained with questionnaires administered to teachers, parents and students, and with SWOT analysis interviews with coordinators.

Despite being the first example of empirical research on the effects of CLIL in Andalusia and a reference point in the research panorama of our autonomous community (Pérez Cañado, 2011), this study has received some criticism because of the picture it painted of CLIL. As Pérez Cañado claims (2016c, p. 2) “it presents this approach in the most positive light possible, exclusively singing the praises of CLIL”, without identifying those areas which need to be revised. Even if a lacuna was mentioned, it was then

justified. “The reader is then left with the impression that there is little room for improvement in the implementation of CLIL in Andalusia”, (Pérez Cañado, 2011, p. 395). Furthermore, it lacked homogeneity among the groups analysed.

In the same line, but almost ten years later, Lorenzo has recently published another investigation (2019), which aimed to analyse stakeholders’ perspectives on bilingualism in the community at the same time that it evaluated the FL competence, L1 competence and content competence of both CLIL and non-CLIL students in the 6th grade of Primary Education and in the 4th year of CSE. Commissioned once again by the *Consejería de Educación* of the *Junta de Andalucía*, the researcher selected 147 Primary schools throughout the community, from which 29 were bilingual. Moreover, he selected 96 Secondary schools, from which other 29 centres were implementing bilingual programmes. This sample included both public and private centres, taking into account the socioeconomic status (SES) of the students. More than 4,000 pupils from Primary Education classes sat the three different tests (English, Spanish and Science), while more than 3,500 Secondary students participated in the quantitative side of the investigation.

The outcomes attest again to the superiority of CLIL in the three fields of study. Thus, the bilingual group clearly outperformed the non-bilingual cohort when analysing their FL competence. The same happened when dealing with L1, as the experimental group obtained better results than their non-bilingual peers. However, no statistically significant differences could be detected in favour of CLIL groups in terms of content competence. It is also worth mentioning that, in line with previous investigations (Lorenzo et al., 2009; Pérez, Lorenzo and Pavón, 2016), statistically significant differences were discovered in the writing skills of CLIL pupils.

When the variable of SES was taken into consideration, it was found out that no statistically significant differences existed among students, confirming that in CLIL groups, the differences between socioeconomic levels tend to disappear and homogenise (Lorenzo, 2019, p. 70), something which differs from previous investigations in which pupils with a lower socioeconomic status were negatively affected by CLIL teaching (Anghel, Cabrales and Carro, 2016; Fernández Sanjurjo, Fernández Costales and Arias Blanco, 2019).

In turn, the qualitative part of the investigation was developed using questionnaires which were administered to a total of 1,101 teachers and 3,025 pupils.

Teachers' results were presented in relation to the following dimensions: methodology, resources, curricular integration, levels of linguistic immersion and skills distribution. Thus, educators claimed to be participating in different initiatives to upgrade their current level in the FL since the methodology applied is predominantly communicative. They also affirmed using a project-based approach in which language is clearly seen as an instrument for social interaction (Lorenzo, 2019, p. 45). Still there was a worrying perspective when dealing with materials and resources, which continued being scarce. However, the outcomes revealed encouraging opinions on the use of ICTs and new motivating materials within the CLIL classroom. Most of the teachers felt satisfied with the level of coordination among themselves, although there should be more collaboration with the L1 teacher. Moreover, although a high percentage of the content class is taught through the FL, the different paces and rhythms of students sometimes make complete immersion difficult (Lorenzo, 2019, p. 50).

As for students' perspectives, some differences arose in comparison with teachers' opinions, although most of them claimed to be satisfied with their participation in CLIL and considered English is not an obstacle to learn content. However, students affirmed written skills continue receiving more importance in the class, paying special attention to formal aspects of the language rather than to communication itself (Lorenzo, 2019, p. 60). In the same vein, the percentage of English lowers as the educational stage increases, something which the researcher attributed to the presence of students with no experience in CLIL in Secondary classrooms, the higher difficulty in contents and the generalisation of the programme (Lorenzo, 2019, p. 64).

As a conclusion, the author makes a series of recommendations that should be taken into account in order to improve the results found. Thus, he recommends pushing CLIL forward while concomitantly ensuring its implementation is supervised and controlled by all the agents involved.

Navarro Pablo and López Gándara's study on the effects of CLIL on L1 (2020) also deserves our attention. Although this study aimed at analysing exclusively the influence that bilingual programmes may have on the students' mother tongue, quantitative and qualitative methods were used to collect the data and to be able to answer the three research questions planned. The final scores of 271 CLIL and non-CLIL learners in the Spanish Language and Literature subject were collected to determine if there were any statistically differences in the L1 between both cohorts. Moreover, semi-structured

interviews were carried out with teachers and students in order to determine the amount, distribution and type of L1 and FL input in content classes in CLIL. Finally, some items from questionnaires (Pérez Cañado, 2016b) were used to gather the stakeholders' opinions on the real influence CLIL exerts on L1 learning.

The results evinced that CLIL did not harm the development of L1 skills and knowledge. Rather, bilingual programmes seemed to positively influence L1 learning, as significant differences arose in the Spanish language and Literature subject in favour of CLIL students. Hence, CLIL pupils in both Primary and Secondary Education centres outstripped their non-CLIL partners. With students' and teachers' responses to the interviews and the items of the questionnaires, the researchers tried to shed light on the possible reasons why CLIL does not hamper, but rather, benefits L1 learning. In this respect, it was acknowledged that the L1 is given too much importance within content subject classes, although there were discrepancies between teachers and students about the amount of L1 and FL used in the classroom. However, both cohorts believed that CLIL had a positive impact in this area, especially on students' understanding of the connection between languages and how they work.

A similar study has recently been published by Barrios (2021), who has conducted an investigation to analyse the effects of CLIL instruction in L1 learning. In light of the aforementioned contradictory evidence that bilingual programmes can hinder L1 development, this author evaluated the competence of CLIL and non-CLIL students in the L1. A total of 720 students belonging to Primary and Secondary Education schools in the provinces of Cádiz and Málaga participated in the project. To guarantee the homogeneity and therefore, the comparability of the cohorts, participants were previously matched in terms of verbal intelligence and academic motivation. After that, students' scores in the Spanish subject were collected and questionnaires were used to obtain information about exposure to English outside the school, parents' level of studies and some other demographic data.

The findings attest to the beneficial influence CLIL has on the L1, since statistically significant differences between the CLIL and non-CLIL group were not found in the school grades in Spanish (L1). Thus, the curricular competence in Spanish of CLIL students is not negatively affected by bilingual programmes. In addition, the intervening variable of families' level of studies yielded substantial differences in favour of those who possess a higher academic level. Hence, those learners whose mothers have

a higher educational level obtain higher scores in the Spanish language subject. Differences were also detected in terms of gender and extramural exposure to the FL, but also in the Secondary non-CLIL group.

Despite the great contribution of this study to the analysis of CLIL programmes in our community, its results cannot be extrapolated to other contexts due to the small sample it comprises. Moreover, the end-of-the-year grades in Spanish are not a guarantee for the different levels of language attainment as each school normally sets its own standards. In the same vein, it could not be determined if the outcomes were really ascribable to CLIL instruction (Barrios, 2021, p. 114). All these deficiencies led the author to call for further research in this field, in order to corroborate or refute these encouraging results.

Regarding purely **quantitative studies**, many of the lacunae which the study by Lorenzo (2009) presented were filled by the study carried out by Madrid and Hughes in 2011. These researchers studied the effects of CLIL programmes in Primary and Secondary Education on the L1, L2 and subject matter knowledge. The data for the research was collected in 2007-2008 in bilingual public and private schools and monolingual public and semi-private schools. A casual, non-probabilistic sample of 314 students was taken from 6th grade of Primary Education to 4th grade of Secondary Education. English, Spanish and subject matter tests were designed and applied.

These tests showed that CLIL had a positive effect on student performance in the L2, and that the L2 had no negative effect on the L1, as CLIL students performed as well as, or better than, their monolingual peers. Moreover, it was revealed that CLIL did not hamper subject matter learning, even when the amount of L2 was increased. As for culture learning, bilingual students showed a higher degree of knowledge, with significant differences between bilingual and monolingual public schools (Ramos García, 2011).

As Pérez Cañado (2011) claims, this study constitutes a significant contribution for putting CLIL in motion and it is especially valuable in focusing on a single language, in considering CLIL effects not only on L2 competence but also on the L1 and subject content, and in comparing different types of schools. However, the sample was quite reduced and local. In addition, no intervening variables were factored in and no statistical analyses were performed in order to know if CLIL is truly responsible for the outcomes obtained.

A similar study was published by Pavón Vázquez (2018), in which student performance in the L1, L2 and in the subjects taught through CLIL was analysed. This investigation, which tried to supersede many of the deficiencies presented in previous studies, is framed within the state-funded Mon-CLIL project, led by the University of Jaén, as is the case of our investigation and some other research projects that will be revised below (Madrid and Barrios, 2018; Rascón Moreno and Bretones Callejas, 2018; Navarro Pablo and García Jiménez, 2018; and Pérez Cañado, 2018a).

Pavón Vázquez's main goal was to evaluate the learning results of CLIL programmes in Primary and Secondary schools bearing in mind psycho-affective factors such as motivation, anxiety, verbal reasoning, indifference and self-demand, the degree of exposure outside the classroom and the school environment (rural vs. urban schools). Two different instruments, properly designed and validated, were used in order to collect the data: FL competence tests and oral interviews (grammar, vocabulary, reading, writing, listening and speaking), and student questionnaires (to assess psycho-affective factors and extramural exposure). Moreover, the grades for the Spanish language subject and the CLIL subjects (Science) were taken into account in order to complement this information.

In general, the results of this study showed that no statistically significant differences existed between students in terms of setting (urban-rural), although urban groups performed slightly better in some of the aspects analysed. Focusing on FL proficiency, few differences were detected at Primary level in favour of urban learners, which were in the long-run reduced. Hence, these differences in terms of setting tended to disappear at the end of Secondary Education. Significant differences were not found either when dealing with learners' achievements in the L1 between settings at any stage, although the rural group obtained better results in the Science subject at Secondary level.

Vis-à-vis psycho-affective factors, no significant differences were detected between the Primary groups, while the Secondary rural students showed significantly less enthusiasm towards learning than their urban counterparts. However, as the author claimed, these results seemed not to be related and could not be attributable to the school environment but to the level of the students. Finally, as for extramural exposure, Pavón Vázquez's results (2018) were inconclusive, as none of the groups made any significant progress. To conclude, it was not possible to attribute the different result obtained between cohorts to the variable of setting. Rather, other factors used in the teaching and learning process could also influence the outcomes.

In the same line and in the same year, other investigations carried out by Madrid and Barrios (2018) and Rascón Moreno and Bretones Calleja (2018) were published. Both focused on the impact of CLIL on L1, FL and content, taking into account some intervening variables. In the case of Madrid and Barrios (2018), who developed their project at Primary and Secondary level, the academic achievement of 720 students following a different language programme (CLIL or EFL) in a different type of school (private, semi-private or public) was analysed. At a preliminary stage, pupils were matched in terms of verbal intelligence and motivation. Extramural exposure to the target language and socioeconomic status were later considered together with the students' performance in the mother tongue (Spanish), FL (English) and CLIL subjects.

The motivation test by Pelechano (1994) and the EFAI or verbal intelligence test by Santamaría et al. (2016) were used as the instruments to assess verbal intelligence and motivation among students. Extramural exposure to the target language was tested by Sundqvist and Sylvén's questionnaire from 2014 and socioeconomic status was measured by parents' educational background. Students' performance in the L1 and content were assessed by means of their end-of-the-year grades and specific tests designed by Madrid, Bueno and Ráez (2021) were used to evaluate the FL knowledge.

Many statistically significant differences were detected between the experimental (CLIL) and the control (EFL) group and among the different school types considered. In order to determine which variables were truly responsible for the differences detected between cohorts, discriminant analyses were later carried out. The researchers concluded that CLIL pupils' performance in Spanish language was not worse than the EFL students'. Thus, CLIL programmes do not hinder Spanish language learning. As for content subject learning, the results were less conclusive: although CLIL pupils outperformed the non-CLIL cohort at Primary level, totally the opposite happened in Secondary Education. Taking into consideration the school type and comparing bilingual and non-bilingual groups from public centres, better results were obtained by Primary CLIL students, while similar scores were found in the Secondary outcomes. In turn, when comparing semi-private and public CLIL schools, more statistically significant differences arose, evincing that learners from semi-private schools obtained better results in Secondary Education but not in Primary. In the case of private schools, students outperformed their peers on all the aspects evaluated.

CLIL students outstripped the non-CLIL counterparts in both Primary and Secondary level regarding English attainment. Moreover, the CLIL cohort showed especially good results at Primary and Secondary level in speaking, most remarkably in Primary schools. Another comparison was carried out between CLIL groups and EFL semi-private groups, concluding that CLIL students obtained generally higher means. In general terms, differences were statistically significant in favour of CLIL, with the exception of the speaking test in Secondary. Finally, CLIL was found to be the truly responsible for the differences detected between CLIL and non-CLIL groups, and not the other intervening variables considered.

The other investigation to be mentioned, carried out by Rascón Moreno and Bretones Calleja (2018), focused on the evaluation of the effects of socioeconomic status on CLIL and non-CLIL students' language and content learning. A total of 348 students from eight Primary and Secondary Education institutions in Andalusia formed the sample of this project. Parents' educational level was obtained by means of a validated questionnaire and was used as a proxy to calculate socioeconomic status. The moderating variables of verbal intelligence, motivation and extramural exposure were considered and English language competence, Spanish language competence and content knowledge were evaluated.

These researchers studied the effects of socioeconomic status on the L1 and the FL of bilingual groups in Primary and Compulsory Secondary Education, in comparison to those of non-CLIL groups. It was found that, in mainstream groups, there were significant differences in performance in favour of students with a higher SES. On the contrary, non-statistically significant differences were detected among CLIL groups. Furthermore, no significant differences appeared when analysing the relationship between SES and the pupil's verbal intelligence, motivation and extramural exposure.

A discriminant analysis was lastly developed to find out which variable could justify the variance in FL, L1 and content learning outcomes. It was found that none of the variables considered could explain the competence differential in Primary Education, while in Compulsory Secondary Education, students' attainment in FL, L1 and content, together with extramural exposure, accounted for the greatest amount of variance.

According to Rascón Moreno and Bretones Callejas, the negligible effect of SES in CLIL contexts might have pedagogical implications. That is why they encouraged

parents of any socioeconomic status to enlist their children in CLIL classes and “support the Andalusian education authorities’ initiative to upgrade from a CLIL sections system to a CLIL schools one” (Rascón Moreno and Bretones Callejas, 2018 as cited in Pascual Bajo, 2018, p. 189).

With the same focus on intervening variables in mind and in the same Andalusian context, another study was conducted by Navarro Pablo and García Jiménez (2018). These investigators’ main objective was also to analyse the relationship between affective factors and FL learning. By using several FL tests evaluating use of English, vocabulary, listening, speaking and reading, which were originally designed and validated for the study, and a 35-item motivation test by Pelechano (1994), which focuses on four key motivational aspects (desire to work and self-esteem, realistic personal self-demand, anxiety before exams and lack of interest in learning), Navarro Pablo and García Jiménez (2018) were able to compare the achievement levels of Primary and Secondary Andalusian CLIL and non-CLIL pupils in the FL and in their motivation.

Important differences were detected in the achievement levels and in the motivation of bilingual and non-bilingual students. As for the achievement levels, it is worth mentioning that the bilingual stream was once again favoured, especially in the long run (at Secondary level). Turning to affective factors, results were similar to other previous studies, which tended to find higher levels of motivation among CLIL learners (Seikkula-Leino, 2007; Lasagabaster, 2009, 2011). These investigations also pointed out that the effects of motivational variables were statistically significant and that they had an important impact on the CLIL students’ language learning. Nevertheless, although motivational factors clearly influence language outcomes, these researchers agreed that other variables such as the type of instruction are much “stronger predictors of L2 attainment” (Navarro Pablo and García Jiménez, 2018, p. 87).

A longitudinal macro-study focused on the effects of CLIL on L2 learning was also published in 2018 by Pérez Cañado. This investigation is especially interesting in the context of our study because of its similarities with our investigation in terms of research questions, instruments and variables (Pérez Cañado, 2018a). A total sample of 1,033 students enrolled in a CLIL programme and 991 EFL pupils took part in the project. These learners came from different public, semi-public and private schools situated in three of the Spanish monolingual communities: Andalusia, The Canary Islands and Extremadura. In order to guarantee the homogeneity of the sample, all the students, who were

completing 6th grade of Primary Education or finishing the 4th grade of CSE, were firstly matched at a pre-testing stage in terms of FL proficiency, motivation and verbal intelligence.

Different instruments were used to collect all the information required: verbal intelligence tests (part of the EFAI battery by Santamaría et al., 2016), motivation tests (MA tests by Pelechano, 1994), and several English language tests (cf. Madrid, Bueno and Ráez, 2021) on the use of English, vocabulary, and the four skills. Moreover, an initial questionnaire was administered to pupils in order to obtain information about themselves and their parents, that is to say, biographical information which would be taken as a proxy for SES. Moreover, post- and delayed post-tests were administered to both, CLIL and non-CLIL students to identify their evolution in the FL and within- and across-group comparisons were made afterwards. Lastly, successive discriminant analyses were carried out taking into account the variables of motivation, verbal intelligence, extramural exposure to English, setting and socioeconomic status. Thus, it was possible to detect if CLIL was the variable responsible for the differences found or if, on the contrary, other variables could justify them (Pérez Cañado, 2018a).

As a result, the CLIL group at both Primary and Secondary levels proved to have a higher linguistic competence (grammar, vocabulary, listening, speaking and reading). The linguistic competence differential was especially marked in Secondary Education, where the CLIL group clearly outperformed its non-CLIL counterparts on all aspects considered. As for the durability of the effects of CLIL, it was shown that outcomes pervaded six months after the programmes were discontinued. However, no statistically significant differences were detected between the EFL semi-private stream and the CLIL groups (public and private) in 1st year of non-compulsory Secondary Education (Baccalaureate). That is why Pérez Cañado (2018a, p. 68) defends the idea of maintaining CLIL programmes so that the FL competence differential is kept constant.

The results obtained after sitting post- and delayed post-tests coincide, to some extent, with the ones published by Pladevall-Ballester and Vallbona (2016), who also found that CLIL had more positive effects on the productive skills than on receptive ones. To finish, the discriminant analyses carried out to study the competence differential between the treatment and comparison groups allowed Pérez Cañado (2018a) to claim that CLIL was the truly responsible for the differences found between groups, that is,

these differences were truly caused by CLIL methodology, particularly in Secondary Education.

The investigation by Pérez Cañado and Lancaster (2017) also focused on the effects of CLIL on FL learning. In this case, the researchers carried out a longitudinal, quantitative, quasi-experimental case study on oral comprehension and production in the Andalusian community. Their research aimed at determining if CLIL students acquired greater oral comprehension and production skills in comparison to non-CLIL pupils. Moreover, it tried to find out if the possible differential effects of CLIL continued after the CSE CLIL programme finished. Only 24 Secondary students took part in the investigation and sat two FL competence tests which had been specifically designed and validated to assess their oral comprehension and production skills. Moreover, an initial pre-test was used to guarantee the homogeneity of the cohorts in terms of English language proficiency.

The outcomes revealed that CLIL students had a higher level in English oral comprehension and production when compared to those obtained by the EFL group. In the same vein, the researchers could demonstrate that the effects of CLIL pervaded six months after the end of CSE CLIL programme, but only in the case of oral production. That means that, although CLIL students continued making progress in speaking, their listening skills gradually diminished.

In 2020, other important research projects were carried out in our community with the objective of analysing CLIL effects on language and/or content attainment. The first study to be commented on is the one developed by Pérez Cañado (2020), who evaluated the English language competence of both CLIL and non-CLIL students belonging to Primary and Secondary Education classes. A total of 2,024 students from 53 public, private and charter schools took part in the investigation. Not only did Andalusian students participate in the investigation, but also pupils from Extremadura and the Canary Islands, two other monolingual communities. The homogeneity of CLIL and non-CLIL groups was guaranteed for a suitable comparison of the sample. Moreover, intervening variables such as SES, setting and type of school were factored in.

The outcomes revealed that socioeconomic status exerted a significant influence on both Primary and Secondary students' L2. Hence, those students (CLIL and non-CLIL) whose families had a higher socioeconomic level tended to obtain better results in

English learning. In terms of setting, fewer statistically significant differences were detected in favour of urban students within the CLIL group. However, private and public CLIL learners were found to outstrip non-CLIL pupils in public and charter schools.

Despite these results, given the fact that the charter schools whose non-CLIL students from a higher socioeconomic background participated in the project, Pérez Cañado underlines that these findings show “a consistent advantage for the two CLIL groups over the non-CLIL groups”, which is “suggestive of a ‘CLIL effect’ rather than a ‘type of school’ effect” (2020, p. 12). This is in line with Pavón Vázquez (2018) and Rascón Moreno and Bretones Callejas (2018). Furthermore, CLIL seemed to be eliminating the effect of sociocultural and socioeconomic differences on L2 attainment. Thus, bilingual programmes can work successfully in elite contexts as well as in more disadvantaged backgrounds. In the light of these findings, the author was able to question the notion of elitism which has been originally connected to CLIL and bilingualism.

Hughes and Madrid (2020) also contributed to the evaluation of CLIL with their investigation on the effects of bilingual programmes on content learning. This study, which also forms part of the wider Mon-CLIL investigation, aimed at comparing the academic performance of CLIL and non-CLIL groups in Science (Primary Education) and Natural Sciences (Compulsory Secondary Education). A total of 232 pupils from public, semi-private and private schools took part in the investigation. As was the case in the previous investigation (Pérez Cañado, 2020), homogeneity between CLIL and non-CLIL students was ensured through the matching of learners by means of preliminary tests in verbal intelligence, motivation and levels of English. Three different instruments were used to measure the moderating variables incorporated (SES, level of interest, levels of self-demand and exposure to English outside the school). Thus, the aforementioned verbal reasoning test taken from the Factorial Assessment of Intellectual Abilities (Santamaría et al., 2016), Pelechano’s test (1994) and Sundqvist and Sylvén’s questionnaire (2014) were used. In addition, scores in Science and Natural Sciences were recorded for each student.

In general terms, no significant differences were detected between the scores of CLIL and non-CLIL students in Primary Education, which indicated that there are no detrimental effects of bilingual Education on Science learning (Hughes and Madrid, 2020, p. 11). In the case of Secondary Education, CLIL students obtained significantly better

results in Natural Sciences than their non-CLIL counterparts. Once again, the possible negative effects that CLIL can have on content learning were found to be minimal.

Taking into consideration the moderating variables included, no significant differences were found in terms of school type between public and private Primary schools. However, differences arose between non-CLIL public and non-CLIL charter schools, although they disappeared by the end of Compulsory Secondary Education. The same happened with the rest of variables (setting, socioeconomic status and exposure to English outside the school), since their influence on CLIL pupils' results appeared to diminish as the students advanced in grade.

Hence, the authors concluded by stating that “the implementation of CLIL in Primary Education may initially have a slightly negative effect on students' scores on content areas”, something which can be clearly understood “given the fact that CLIL learners are at a linguistic disadvantage when they start their studies in the L2” (Hughes and Madrid, 2020, p. 11). Despite this, coinciding with Martínez Agudo (2021), by the time students reach Secondary Education, the situation tends to improve, mainly because students are used to the bilingual methodology. To finish, Primary school teachers were asked to be continuously aware of the potential negative effects that CLIL instruction can have on students' performance on content.

The effects of CLIL on FL attainment have also been the focus of attention for Navarro Pablo (2021), who examined the impact of CLIL on the English grammar and vocabulary of 351 Primary and Secondary school students, also bearing in mind the possible effect that contextual variables can have on the results. Three tests (English, verbal intelligence and motivation tests) and a questionnaire were employed to collect the data.

Findings showed that significant differences arise between CLIL and non-CLIL groups, both at Primary and Secondary level, in favour of the CLIL cohort. More specifically, Primary CLIL students outperformed the non-CLIL counterparts on all the tests applied. In the case of Secondary Education pupils, CLIL learners evinced a greater lexical and syntactic complexity, although it was not statistically significant. As far as intervening variables are concerned, different outcomes appeared depending on the educational level. On the one hand, in Primary Education, setting, verbal intelligence and vocabulary were the variables that displayed the greatest significance, with vocabulary

being the variable that best explained the statistically significant differences detected between the groups. On the other hand, in Secondary Education, apart from verbal intelligence, variables such as lack of interest, grammar, listening and reading had an important weight when explaining the differences between cohorts. Thus, the researchers concluded by stating that CLIL programmes were truly effective for the learning of foreign languages, even when dealing with vocabulary and grammatical aspects, which seemed to have received much more attention in traditional EFL instruction (Navarro Pablo, 2021, p. 136).

One year earlier, Lorenzo, Granados and Rico (2020) evaluated the concept of equity within CLIL. A broad sample of 3,800 students representing the four socioeconomic levels was analysed with correlational statistics to determine their performance in CLIL and non-CLIL schools, according to their competence in L1, L2 and the subject content. After correlating the pupils' SES and the scores obtained in each one of the areas involved, it was possible to observe that a staircase effect arises in the case of non-CLIL students, which proves that in traditional EFL classes, results are a reflection of the social structures, with students from a higher socioeconomic status obtaining better outcomes. The opposite occurs with CLIL learners, who seem to obtain equally high results in L1, L2 and the content area regardless of their SES. As Lorenzo, Granados and Rico underscored, CLIL does not only transform the language of instruction, but also several aspects of the school experience related to participants' attitudes, organisation and methodology. In their own words: "Even if admission bias persists, the results show that CLIL creates a liveable atmosphere for lower-class students who, in fact, are the ones who benefit most from the programme" (Lorenzo, Granados and Rico, 2020, p. 27).

Moving now to the **qualitative studies** carried out in this autonomous community, it is worth mentioning that most of them have focused on the figure of the teacher as one of the most important agent in the CLIL experience. Thus, important researchers such as Rubio Mostacero (2009), Cabezas Cabello (2010) and Ruiz Gómez (2015), among others, have studied teachers' perspectives on CLIL. Other scholars, such as Ráez Padilla (2018), Lancaster (2016) and Pérez Cañado (2018b), among others, have analysed the main stakeholders' perspectives on CLIL programmes. Below, an overview of the most important qualitative studies carried out in Andalusia will be presented.

The first study to be mentioned is the one developed by Rubio Mostacero in 2009, in which needs analysis interviews were carried out with 20 teachers in four Secondary schools of the province of Jaén. This researcher designed a teacher training course based on her previous experience and then revised it in two phases: after conducting the needs analysis and after subjecting it to the critical scrutiny of the interviewees and the local Teacher Training Centre.

Results showed that teachers had a lower level of English language proficiency than expected. As for the implementation of the APPP, the general outlook was positive, being considered a healthy challenge by all the teaching community. Nevertheless, some problems related to students' motivation and negative effects of the low language level of teachers on students were also detected. Other problems the *Junta de Andalucía* might have when implementing the APPP had to do with stakeholders' reluctance, economic problems, lack of rewards, resources and effective training.

In spite of its value within the research panorama in our community, Rubio Mostacero's study was limited because of the early stage at which it was conducted: teachers were not familiar enough with the programme, which resulted in vague opinions. There was no methodological or data triangulation and the sample was reduced both numerically and geographically (Pérez Cañado, 2011, p. 397).

The following year, Cabezas Cabello (2010) published his study on APPP implementation. Funded by the educational authorities, he interviewed over 100 teachers and 30 coordinators in 30 Primary and Secondary schools implementing English, French and German bilingual sections in the APPP in all eight Andalusian provinces. In the form of a SWOT analysis, this researcher wanted to contrast top-down and bottom-up approaches to the Plan.

Strengths had to do with greater cognitive, cultural, social, affective and intellectual benefits for students, whose motivation and opportunities also increase. Higher levels of coordination, communication, enthusiasm and stability among teachers were also documented. Methodology was considered more communicative and ICT availability increased as well. The weaknesses involved lack of training, an increased workload, scarce materials and incongruous aspects between the written policy and real practice within the classroom. These negative aspects coincide with the ones found by Rubio Mostacero's research (2009).

The opportunities involved homogenising the APPP across schools and assimilating language learning to real bilingual environments. Furthermore, training teachers, involving students and families, facilitating exposure to the FL outside the school, increasing information about CLIL and carrying out an external assessment of APPP schools were other opportunities mentioned. Finally, the threats had to do with the excessive teacher-student ratios, the impossibility for parents to help their children with homework and tasks, and a tendency to overestimate the programme without clear evidence of how it was working.

Although this author emphasised the necessity of “exploring all the agents involved in CLIL 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” (2010, p. 90), Pérez Cañado claims that this study “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” (2011, p. 399).

Another investigation focused on teacher training and CLIL methodology and materials was developed by Ruiz Gómez in 2015. This researcher, whose main goal was to enlighten CLIL stakeholders with vital advances related to methodology framework in Andalusia, launched an assessment plan which would monitor the extent to which CLIL objectives were being accomplished. Thus, a general evaluation process aimed at knowing the real effectiveness of CLIL in this community four years after the APPP’s measures had been set in place was carried out. Bearing in mind the aim of offering adequate support to CLIL professionals, diverse aspects such as teachers’ coordination, timetables, materials, methodology, use of language and CLIL and non-CLIL students’ final linguistic competence were evaluated.

As a result, two specific situations could be described: firstly, among the positive aspects found, we can emphasise the fact that CLIL is being implemented in an integrative way, transmitting supportive results. Moreover, all CLIL instructors taking part in the project conceived the CLIL approach as appropriate. However, this was not always the case. A wide variety of CLIL implementations could be observed, with some of them being quite ineffective. Minimal adaptation and unification of content and language was detected and many of the people involved in CLIL saw the approach as a means of increasing the exposure of the L2, without taking into account the subject matter involved. In the same vein, there was little adaptation of materials, the four language skills were not

systematically practiced in the classroom and the different language functions were not properly described in the existing CLIL materials. Hence, the methodological model presented some flaws pertaining to consistency, what made teachers unable to do anything but to improvise on some occasions.

As a reaction to such an unpleasant situation, a group of 20 CLIL experts (prestigious researchers and renowned teaching professionals) worked to counteract this inappropriate approach to CLIL. Their main objective was to help bilingual teachers by offering practical guidelines for them to design materials which integrated the two main components of CLIL: language and content. That is, they aimed at attending the training of teachers to use CLIL effectively and creating materials which could be used by all the professionals involved. The main change was the replacement of the famous didactic units by a logical and systematic methodology structure which would promote the successful integration of content and language goals. Moreover, a task-based approach involving pre- and post-tasks was developed within realistic situations to foster motivation among all the agents involved. The ELP was used as a self-assessment tool to encourage reflection on one's abilities and competences. Finally, Ruiz Gómez (2015, p. 29) affirmed that “excellence in L2 acquisition in our educational system is possible and feasible wherever the association between language and content is tightly managed”.

In turn, Pérez Cañado (2014; 2016a) has been the responsible for carrying out the qualitative study with “the greatest geographical scope” (Pascual Bajo, 2018, p. 196). Hence, this Andalusian researcher analysed the training needs of pre- and in-service teachers across Europe. The sample comprised a total of 706 informants (546 of which were from Spain) including teachers, coordinators, trainee teachers and teacher trainers working at Primary, Secondary and Tertiary Educational levels. Four sets of questionnaires were designed, validated and administered in order to identify the main teacher training needs regarding linguistic and intercultural competence, the theoretical basis of CLIL, methodological aspects, materials and resources and ongoing professional development, bearing in mind the intervening variables of age, gender, nationality, type of teacher, administrative situation, teaching experience, type of school, setting and language level. Multiple triangulation (data, investigator and location triangulation) was also employed.

In general, important deficits in training were detected in all five thematic blocks incorporated in the questionnaires, especially in those related to the theoretical

underpinnings of CLIL and ongoing professional development. Statistically significant differences were also found across all cohorts, but particularly between in-service and pre-service groups, showing that the former were much more optimistic about CLIL than the latter. It is worth mentioning that, while European teachers felt more confident about their skills, Spanish educators expressed their limitations and asked for further training.

The study also acknowledged some problems regarding teachers' language level and claimed that the teachers holding a B1 level were those whose training needs were higher. This fact could be explained taking into consideration the Andalusian requirement of having a B2 level in the FL in order to be able to participate in CLIL programmes (Pérez Cañado, 2016a, p. 15). Furthermore, at university level, the study confirmed the greatest training needs were detected in Spain and other Southern European countries, while universities in Eastern and Central European countries had the lowest.

These conclusions, obtained after considerable efforts to find out the principal training needs of CLIL educators throughout the European continent, made possible the creation of the first specific CLIL Master's in Andalusia (Pérez Cañado, 2015b), which was approved by the Junta de Andalucía in 2017 and accredited by the Dirección de Evaluación y Acreditación de la Agencia Andaluza del Conocimiento (DEVA) for its official start in September 2018. Thus, the Andalusian community, traditionally considered as monolingual, has become one of the most recognised regions in the CLIL international arena thanks to its ambitious policy. Moreover, it was given the European Language Level Award for the role CLIL has had in the promotion of multilingualism. However, as Pérez Cañado claims: "the teacher training actions for CLIL developed in this community have clearly been deficient until now" (2015b, p. 169), and much more must be done from a methodological point of view.

Superseding certain lacunae in research design detected in preceding investigations, the role of teaching assistants as an essential jigsaw piece of the APPP was analysed by means of longitudinal studies. In this sense, Tobin and Abello-Contesse (2013) provided the first trial in this field as a multiple case study research project. They collected data from around Andalusia and interviewed seven teaching assistants during a period of eight months to gather first-hand information.

These authors focused on analysing the CLIL situations which arise when a native teaching assistant is incorporated into the classroom. They claimed 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 [...]” (2013, p. 208). Thus, they reached the conclusion that the assistants “could significantly encourage a more positive outlook on learning other languages and dealing with other cultures among Spanish learners” (2013, p. 208).

On the whole, they concluded that teaching assistants produce significant cultural and linguistic benefits when their potential is maximised. As CLIL was conceived to provide linguistic and cultural benefits to Andalusian students, they considered it essential to achieve a complete cooperation between FL teachers, NLA teachers and TAs. However, some negative aspects were ascertained, dealing mainly with the inexperience of the teachers to successfully develop the programme’s objectives through team teaching, emphasising the recurring issue of insufficient teacher training (Cabezas Cabello, 2010; Navés, 2009; Pérez Cañado, 2012; Rubio Mostacero, 2009).

As for the shortcomings of the study, it is worth mentioning that although longitudinal, the sample was very small and it was carried out at a very early stage of the APPP. Moreover, there was a methodological and data triangulation deficit, as only teaching assistants participated in the investigation interviews.

Sánchez Torres (2014) offered the second important longitudinal study, which also boasts methodological and data triangulation using 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).

The main objective of the research was to generate feedback related to five different research questions involving the TAs’ and the coordinators’ experience in the programme, the extent to which functions are fulfilled, the approach used in order to guarantee team teaching, the specific aspects which affect the success of the programme and the stakeholders’ opinions on its strengths and weaknesses.

Thus, it was claimed that the coordinators and the TAs underwent some modifications caused by individual differences of expectations, motivations, attitudes towards the APPP, different levels in the FL and their personal opinion on the languages and cultures involved. Although TAs seemed to be fulfilling their duties in general, there

was a lack of clear instructions from the educational authorities, which impeded their function from being fully developed. There was also little evidence of team teaching in spite of the already existing collaboration and cooperation. Other problems had to do with excessive paperwork, increased workload, new requirements for creating bilingual schools and the economic crisis. Teacher training did not appear as a problem in this research, something that contradicts prevailing findings in which principal teaching figures requested further teacher training opportunities. Finally, coordinators and TAs showed congruent perspectives concerning the strengths and weaknesses of the Plan. However, the representatives from teacher training schools, the regional bilingual coordinator and the director of international educational programmes admitted training, coordination and planning had to be developed more effectively in order to fully take advantage of the teaching assistants.

More recently, another study has been conducted by Milla Lara and Casas Pedrosa (2018) focusing on teachers. This large-scale longitudinal investigation, carried out in four eastern Andalusian provinces (Granada, Almería, Jaén, and Córdoba), aimed at offering an extensive analysis of the APPP implementation from the point of view of teachers and at confirming if there were any intra-group differences in terms of a series of identification variables such as age, gender, nationality, type of school, type of teacher, administrative situation, teaching experience, FL level and subjects taught through English. A total of 101 instructors, including non-linguistic area teachers, English teachers and language assistants, were polled. Data, methodological, investigator and location triangulation were used in order to offer a real description of the way in which CLIL was playing out in this context.

As a result, positive outcomes were obtained when dealing with students' L2 competence in the CLIL class and with the wide range of methodologies, materials and resources used in class. However, some ICTs were not widely employed yet. As for evaluation, teachers claimed to employ different types of assessment taking into account many diverse aspects, although the oral issues were recognised to still be “somehow neglected” (Milla Lara and Casas Pedrosa, 2018, p. 176), something which had already been reported by Lancaster (2016) in a previous study. In line with teacher training, educators coincided that more is still required. In spite of the increased possibilities in this respect, most of them agreed the already existing courses, seminars and workshops, do not satisfy their real needs. Lastly, regarding the within-group comparison, statistically

significant differences were found in three identification variables: type of teacher, the teachers' English level, and bilingual coordinators. In general, a more positive outlook was obtained from FL teachers, coordinators and those teachers whose level in the FL is higher.

Teachers have also been the main focus in Pavón Vázquez, Lancaster and Bretones Callejas' study (2020), which is part of the Mon-CLIL project. A total of 130 informants comprised the sample of the research, who, by means of questionnaires, described their own perceptions on training and development needs, mobility, and coordination and organisation in the bilingual section. The three groups of teachers involved (content teachers, language teachers and language assistants) took part in the project, which was developed in Primary and Secondary schools of four Andalusian provinces, namely, Almería, Cádiz, Córdoba and Seville.

The outcomes showed that educators were mainly positive about the bilingual programme, although content teachers were found to be less confident in the implementation of CLIL than language teachers. Thus, there was a generalised perception that NLA teachers and LAs needed greater support to work effectively in CLIL. In the researchers' words, the obstacles CLIL teachers must face "might hinder the correct functioning of their role" (Pavón Vázquez, Lancaster and Bretones Callejas, 2020, p. 13). Therefore, more training is needed for the effective implementation of bilingual programmes. In this respect, it seems surprising that mobility initiatives are still not widespread among teachers, who did show optimistic perspectives on coordination and organisation.

In order to obtain a more accurate portrait of CLIL implementation in our community, teachers cannot only be the scope of qualitative investigations. Thus, as mentioned above, some studies have been conducted to discover stakeholders' opinions on bilingualism. Among these stakeholders, parents deserve our attention, as, although not directly involved in CLIL classes, they are also one of the pillars that support CLIL programmes and can foster their success. In this respect, the study by Ráez Padilla (2018), must be foregrounded. The sample was formed by a total of 237 parents whose children studied into a CLIL programme (152 studying at Secondary level and 85, at the Primary stage) in two western provinces of Cádiz and Málaga.

The investigation, framed within the Mon-CLIL project, had as its principal objective to analyse the parent perspectives on CLIL implementation by means of self-administered questionnaires. A within-cohort comparison was also offered taking into account the possible effects exerted by five intervening variables, namely, parents' age, gender, nationality, their level of completed studies and the education level of their children.

Positive results were generally obtained when referring to L2 development, participation and motivation towards CLIL subjects and the varied methodologies and types of evaluation employed. Less enthusiastic, although still positive, were their opinions on materials and resources, particularly on those items referring to homework, as parents ask for further support in the form of guidelines in Spanish to help their children. A clear contrast between the families' theoretical consideration of the importance of mobility and the real number of cases in which students have taken part in such initiatives can be observed in Ráez Padilla's outcomes (2018), something which was already reported by previous studies.

Parents also claimed their involvement in the CLIL programme and the information they receive about their children's progress should be improved. In this respect, most parents complained about the fact that they do not have enough information about the regional plurilingual plan (APPP) and about the basic principles of CLIL. On the contrary, a general positive outlook was obtained when dealing with the instructors' teaching skills and their children's increased motivation and FL development.

Parents have also been the scope of the recent investigation by Elvira Barrios (2019), who has studied families' perspectives on CLIL in a particular context, by focusing on their socioeconomic status and their educational level. The study, set in urban and peri-urban areas of the Andalusian province of Málaga, was developed in three public Primary schools which received students from low- to middle-income families and had been implementing bilingual programmes for almost six academic years. A total of 200 parents participated voluntarily in the project and answered the questionnaire used to collect the information, which included the following issues: (1) satisfaction with the teaching and learning of Natural Sciences and Social Sciences subjects in English, (2) perceptions about difficulties found by their children and need for extra support, and (3) perceptions about their own abilities to support their children's school learning. Some other data regarding sociodemographic and personal information were also incorporated.

Results indicated that parents had different opinions in terms of their educational attainment, with those parents who had the highest educational level harboring the most critical opinions about CLIL. In turn, the lowest educated parents were the most satisfied with the programme, since they tended to focus on the opportunities their children would have as a result of being taught through English (Barrios, 2019, p. 190).

Two similar studies of qualitative nature were conducted by Lancaster (2012) and Gálvez Gómez (2013), who assessed stakeholder perspectives on CLIL within the APPP in the monolingual province of Jaén. While the former focused on analysing CLIL at Secondary level, the latter carried out her analysis in a specific bilingual Primary school.

On the one hand, the investigation by Lancaster involved the design, validation and administration of two sets of questionnaires to 692 students and 53 teachers belonging to eight Secondary schools in the province of Jaén. The study, which aimed at identifying students' and teachers' attitudes towards CLIL, revealed a general positive attitude on behalf of both cohorts, although teachers could be considered to hold a generally more optimistic outlook. However, the enthusiasm concerning Andalusia's bilingual programme was nearly equal among pupils and educators. Students seemed to have responded more positively when dealing with the use, competence and development of English in class and the methodology employed. In turn, teachers were satisfied with the APPP thanks to different components relating to materials, resources and ICT, evaluation, teacher training and mobility. When asked about their views on the plan in general, there was widespread acceptance of the methodology in question.

As mentioned above, Gálvez Gómez (2013) carried out another qualitative study on CLIL methodology in the form of a SWOT analysis, administering similar questionnaires to the ones used by Lancaster (2012) to a total of 89 students, 64 parents and three teachers from a bilingual Primary school in the town of Mengíbar, Jaén. Most of the students taking part in the investigation belonged to the second and third grade and had been enrolled in the bilingual programme for only two or three years. One of the main objectives of the investigation 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 results of this research coincide with Lancaster's (2016). Positive attitudes were detected generally in the three groups of participants implied in the study. Nevertheless, the student cohort could be considered to hold somewhat of a more

optimistic outlook on the whole. Some differences were also found given the teachers' and parents' enthusiasm towards the Andalusian bilingual programme. The students seemed to have responded more positively to aspects such as their own use, competence and development of English in class, as well as the methodology used within the classroom. On the other hand, teachers and parents affirmed that they were more content with evaluation, teacher training and mobility. Summing up, when asked to give their views on the plan, overall harmony ensued among cohorts.

Among the strengths found, the fact that students are taught from their childhood to speak and understand a foreign language must be highlighted. Hence, they benefit from a communicative methodology focused on the learner. Related to teachers, higher levels of collaboration and coordination were documented, as well as a higher motivation in all stakeholders. The weaknesses involved increased workload, lack of adequate materials, the high price of the existing bilingual materials acknowledged by parents and the necessity for more teacher training. The opportunities had to do with the possibility teachers and parents have of upgrading their level of English. Parents can be involved more actively in their children's learning process and students can take advantage of initiatives such as exchange programmes (although no participation was documented hitherto, presumably due to the young ages of the students). Furthermore, students have the opportunity to interact with native speakers in the figure of language assistants, and teachers can use ICTs as new tools that help students in their assimilation of the foreign language as well as the subject matter. Finally, the threats were related to the impossibility of parents to help their children at home, the lack of information about the programme and the little governmental support schools have to develop APPP initiatives.

More recently, in 2018, Pérez Cañado (2018b) has also analysed the opinions of the different cohorts involved in bilingual sections, but this time on a larger scale. Hence, a total of 2,633 participants from three different monolingual regions in Spain, namely, Extremadura, The Canary Islands and Andalusia, have answered three sets of questionnaires and have taken part in semi-structured interviews, which had been specifically designed and validated for the study.

Qualitative and statistical techniques were used and four types of triangulation (data, methodological, investigator and location) were also incorporated in the study. Moreover, some identification variables were taken into consideration for all three stakeholders. The aforementioned questionnaires were designed and validated in English

and Spanish and included questions which were previously matched to allow for a comprehensive comparison of the cohorts, elicit biographical information and cull opinions from the respondents. A double-fold pilot procedure was necessary to edit and validate these tools and the Cronbach Alpha was also calculated to ensure their reliability or internal consistency. Interviews contained similar questions to the ones included in the questionnaires to allow comparison afterwards. All the data obtained was statistically analysed by the SPSS programme (version 21.00) and Grounded Theory was used with the open-response data obtained during the semi-structured interviews.

A very optimistic attitude was generally obtained on the part of all the three cohorts. As Pérez Cañado claims (2018b, p. 1) “considerable headway has been made in the implementation of CLIL methodology, materials, and evaluation, although problems still continue to surface affecting diversity, parental support, and teacher training”. Thus, participants felt content with the varied methodologies and types of assessment used and the same happens with materials, which were considered to be more interesting and innovative, although new technologies were not fully exploited in the classroom. Students’ motivation seemed to have increased and their active participation in the CLIL classroom as well. As for teachers, coinciding with previous studies (Gálvez Gómez, 2013), they reported some improvements regarding transversality, multidisciplinary and levels of collaboration among themselves. However, as mentioned above, there was still room for improvement in some areas affecting CLIL implementation, particularly those issues related to “catering to diversity, increased parental support and enhanced training for non-linguistic area teachers” (Pérez Cañado, 2018b, p. 388).

Finally, the study by Hughes, Ortega Martín and Madrid (2018) must be covered. These researchers examined possible ways to evaluate the quality of CLIL programmes in Secondary Education, with the objective of distinguishing the most suitable procedures to manage them successfully. To that end, four different objectives were planned: (1) to identify quality indicators for bilingual education in Spain; (2) to elaborate instruments and procedures for the evaluation and self-evaluation of bilingual schools; (3) to investigate the extent to which the quality indicators identified have been accomplished; (4) to offer some recommendations about bilingual education in Spain, taking into consideration the results obtained.

With the support of the Spanish Ministry of Education and the British Council, the investigation was carried out, with a sample of 72 school principals, 37 bilingual

coordinators, 121 linguistic area teachers, 158 non-linguistic area teachers and 1,595 students from the 4th grade of Compulsory Secondary Education, apart from a group of experts (researchers and university teachers). All these participants came from the communities of Andalusia, Madrid, Extremadura, Castilla-La Mancha, Castilla and León, Galicia, the Canary Islands and Navarra. Semi-structured interviews were developed and questionnaires were also used to collect the information, which focused on important aspects such as leadership, coordination, culture, human and material resources, planning and execution of the bilingual programme, and results. On their behalf, students were only asked about their perceptions on non-linguistic area subjects, on the English subject and their level of satisfaction with the programme (Hughes, Ortega Martín and Madrid, 2018, p. 39).

At the end of the first stage of the investigation, the researchers claimed that the questions included in the interviews and in the questionnaires could serve as self-evaluation tools for bilingual centres, and these indicators can also be valid to start to measure the quality of bilingual programmes. Useful perspectives about leadership and compromise with the programme could be also obtained by means of these instruments. In the same vein, coinciding with other scholars (Pérez Cañado, 2016a, 2016b; Hughes, 2007; Madrid and Hughes, 2011; Lorenzo, Trujillo and Vez, 2011), the success and quality of CLIL programmes depend on the integration of many factors, such as the specific characteristics of pupils, the variety of materials employed, teacher training, tasks and activities developed, among others. Thus, the systematic control of the results obtained allows each school to make sure that the objectives are being fulfilled. Moreover, stakeholders' perspectives must be revised, especially if we take into account that motivation plays an essential role in students' and teachers' performance.

In 2021, Rascón Moreno and Casas Pedrosa looked into CLIL programmes implemented in the provinces of Jaén and Granada, with the principal aim of discovering representative bilingual practices and determining the possible significant differences within groups in terms of variables such as type of teacher, administrative situation, level of studies and teaching experience. An observation protocol was applied for the collection of data, which, apart from including biographical questions at the beginning, was divided into seven blocks: foreign language use in class, discursive functions, competence development, methodology and types of groupings, materials and resources, coordination and organisation, and evaluation.

Vis-à-vis foreign language use in class, the results were quite optimistic, especially on the part of teachers, who seemed to make a greater use of FL than students. A negative aspect observed was the fact that English was less used in EFL classes than in content sessions. In the same vein, heterogeneous levels of FL could be observed among pupils, who did not use it for the same amount of time. Favourable results were also obtained for the use of discursive functions and competence development. The opposite occurred when dealing with methodology and types of groupings, and materials and resources, for which results seemed not to be so positive, as more project work and a wider variety of interaction patterns are necessary. Moreover, materials which take into account attention to diversity were lacking. Despite these aspects in need of improvement, results in these blocks were not discouraging either. Mixed results also appeared in relation to coordination and organisation. Thus, there seemed to be little coordination between the FL teacher and the NLA teacher or the language assistant. In the same vein, interdisciplinarity was not a general practice and evaluation did not seem to take into account attention to diversity (Rascón Moreno and Casas Pedrosa, 2021, p. 28). According to the variables incorporated, experience favoured the adequate implementation of CLIL, with the most experienced teachers making a better development of the approach. The same happened with coordinators, who contributed to a more organised model. To finish, the researchers asked for further investigation in this respect in order to characterise CLIL in the multiple scenarios where it is being implemented.

The final set of qualitative projects that have been recently published in Andalusia have to do with one of the most controversial issues related to bilingual programmes, which, against the outcomes of previous investigations (Paran, 2013; Bruton, 2011a, 2011b, 2013, 2015), have traditionally been branded as elitist and as principally designed for high achievers. Hence, the year 2021 has been especially prolific in the publication of research which aims at analysing diversity in CLIL classes. Important scholars such as Pérez Cañado, Casas Pedrosa and Rascón Moreno have focused their interest on evaluating how learners with different abilities or following different learning paces are assisted within the bilingual lesson.

To start with, Casas Pedrosa and Rascón Moreno (2021) carried out an evaluation of stakeholder perspectives on catering for diversity in CLIL. The investigation, which is part of the large-scale SWOT analysis conducted in Europe within the Project “CLIL for

All: Attention to Diversity in Bilingual Education (ADiBE)”, reported the perspectives of 742 students and 184 teachers from 15 Secondary schools of four provinces: Córdoba, Jaén, Granada and Zaragoza. By means of questionnaires and personal interviews (cf. Pérez Cañado, Rascón Moreno and Cueva López, 2021), the researchers were able to identify the best practices and the difficulties found when students with mixed abilities are following a CLIL lesson. In this vein, the research focused on five fields of interest: linguistic aspects, methodology and types of groupings, materials and resources, assessment, and teacher coordination and development.

The general conclusion Casas Pedrosa and Rascón Moreno reached at the end of their research Project is that “Spain is still on its way to a favourable implementation of the CLIL approach for all learners” (2021, p. 16). Hence, most of the students felt optimistic about the use of scaffolding in class and about the different methods used to help students with different abilities, among which cooperative learning, student-centred work, teacher-led work and different groupings must be emphasised

However, multiple intelligences and newcomer classes to support the integration of students into CLIL seemed to be rare. As for materials and resources, mixed opinions appeared, with students being somewhat negative in this respect. In contrast, ICTs and the combination of visual, textual and/or numeric input to cater for diversity were better valued. One of the most negative aspects considered among learners was that of evaluation, although they recognised they were supported by their teachers and parents.

In turn, most teachers found it challenging to teach CLIL classes with students with mixed abilities, and they considered it is not equally difficult to assist these students in CLIL and non-CLIL environments. They agreed with pupils in the use of scaffolding and shared their opinions on the repertoire of methods employed within the class. Teachers seemed to be more optimistic about the materials that cater for diversity and showed very positive perspectives on the coordination existing among colleagues and with multi-professional teams which help them for this purpose.

As the researchers pointed out, important steps towards the successful implementation of CLIL, which is adapted to all learning rhythms and necessities, are already being taken, but further action is required in order to design adequate materials and provide educators with training programmes that help them cater for diversity (Casas Pedrosa and Rascón Moreno, 2021, p. 17).

The second study to underscored is the one carried out by Pérez Cañado in 2021, whose scope of interest continues being attention to diversity. It is important to highlight that, although our community has not been the only field of study in this research, this investigation must be included in this section as it provides similar results to Casas Pedrosa and Rascón Moreno's outcomes, and because its author is one of the most important scholars in Andalusia. In this case, Pérez Cañado carried out a comparison among stakeholder perspectives on catering for diversity in CLIL. A total of 2,526 students, teachers and parents from 59 Secondary schools in six European countries (Spain, Germany, United Kingdom, Italy, Austria and Finland) comprised the sample of the project. Questionnaires, interviews and observation protocols (Pérez Cañado, Rascón Moreno and Cueva López, 2021) were employed to gather teachers', students' and parents' opinions on the issue, with the main objective of determining the differences and similarities that may exist between the measures implemented in different parts of the European continent to adapt them and favour a more inclusive bilingual education.

The results showed that the three cohorts considered CLIL a more demanding methodology, especially when teaching learners with different learning needs. Despite this, teachers' communicative abilities and specialised academic language were generally praised, as most stakeholders trusted them to successfully assist all students. Moreover, among the methodologies employed, scaffolding and student-centered techniques seemed to be emphasised. On the other hand, stakeholders were slightly more negative about materials and evaluation. Thus, summative evaluation should be stepped up and teachers need more training on the design of suitable materials.

When the across-cohort comparisons were carried out, discrepancies appeared between teacher and student/parent perspectives, with a greater harmony between the latter two. Educators evaluated significantly more positively their language level, the methodological strategies they put into practice and the assessment techniques. On the contrary, families and pupils were more cautious about this. In general, parents appeared to be the most satisfied cohort in terms of methodological issues and they truly appreciated the teachers' efforts to incorporate differentiation in CLIL lessons.

With these outcomes in mind, Pérez Cañado underlines that CLIL provision needs to be “reinforced, reengineered, and reshaped to respond to the new methodological, evaluative, collaborative, and training needs posed by educational differentiation in school-wide implementations” (2021, p. 14). In the same vein, following Hüttner and

Smit (2014, p. 164 as cited in Pérez Cañado, 2021, p. 14), the implementation of bilingual programmes must be subject to the specific characteristics of each context where they are developed. However, the best practices identified must be incorporated in other countries to favour the integration of CLIL programmes. As a conclusion, bilingual education continues to be seen as “prestigious and worthwhile” (Pérez Cañado, 2021, p. 15). That is why an increasing number of families decides to enroll their children in such programmes, bearing in mind the multiple benefits they bring about.

After having revised the most important studies developed in our autonomous community, we reach the conclusion that all of them are worthy of mention since they have assisted in enhancing the Andalusian bilingual programme. However, we cannot forget that some of them cover only isolated contexts, without taking into account the multitude of scenarios in which CLIL is being implemented. Nevertheless, despite the possible shortcomings of each investigation, all of the studies will serve us as the basis for our present research project. Hence, we will try to avoid the so-called “pendulum effect” (Swan, 1985, p. 86 as cited in Pérez Cañado, 2016d, p. 2) in CLIL characterisation. Throughout the section, we have been able to see how different studies have heralded CLIL “as the potential lynchpin to counter Europe’s deficient language standards” (Pérez Cañado and Ráez Padilla, 2015, p. 1), while others have harbored “a dismal, pessimistic outlook on the feasibility of CLIL implementation” (Cabezas Cabello, 2010 as cited in Pérez Cañado, 2016d, p. 2). Hence, our research will be carried out with the objective of analysing the current situation of CLIL in our community, understanding it has acquired more importance in all educational and social contexts, and bearing in mind that “virtue is in the middle ground” (Pérez Cañado, 2016d, p. 15).

To finish the section, it is important to mention that after having commented on CLIL direct predecessors, having defined it, and having expounded on the most important studies and policies carried out not only in our community, but also in the whole Europe, our study will be presented in the next section, taking into account what Pérez Cañado claims in one of her articles:

In order to drive the CLIL agenda forward, we should strive for unbiased, balanced, and methodologically sound research; based on the most updated CLIL developments; and avoiding categorical statements which could continue to misguide the field (2016d, p. 15).

In chapter 4, a justification of the study and a detailed description of the methodology, the objectives pursued and the metaconcerns will be offered.

CHAPTER IV:

RESEARCH DESIGN

In this chapter, a detailed description of the research questions and of the methodology employed to develop our investigation will be provided. Hence, section 4.1. will present the justification of the investigation and expected outcomes. Next, in section 4.2., the objectives considered will be dealt with and the research questions used to address this project will also be described. Section 4.3. explains the methodology used and within it, it offers a detailed description of the sample of the study, the variables incorporated and the instruments employed. Finally, the last part of Chapter 4 includes an extensive description of quantitative and qualitative data collection processes and the statistical measures used for the analysis of the data.

4.1. Justification of the investigation

The literature review presented in the previous sections has allowed us to ascertain when and how CLIL has developed since its birth from the Canadian and North American models until it has achieved recognition as an established approach throughout the European continent. Then, the analysis of the research results has shown the general positive influence that CLIL has on learners, which explains why CLIL has become so popular in the last decades. However, we have been also able to see some deficits in the evaluation of this teaching methodology. That is why the results obtained in some investigations must be interpreted with caution as, according to some scholars (Genesee, 1998; Pérez Cañado, 2011; Pérez Cañado and Ráez Padilla, 2015), there is a noticeable lack of truly reliable empirical CLIL research, especially that of quantitative nature: “(...) the unfortunate reality is that the vast majority of evaluations of bilingual programmes are so methodologically flawed in their design that their results offer more noise than signal” (Genesee, 1998, p. 10).

The aforementioned lacunae presented by prior CLIL research projects have to do mainly with numerically and geographically reduced samples, failing to factor in important moderating variables, not including data triangulation, not grounding

instrument design on recent research outcomes, or not validating the instruments to guarantee their reliability. In some of the studies, the homogeneity of the groups considered is not guaranteed and statistically significant differences between strands are not determined. Moreover, statistical analyses to determine if the improvements detected can truly be attributed to CLIL are not carried out (Pérez Cañado and Ráez Padilla, 2015 as cited in Pascual Bajo, 2018, p. 222).

This situation is precisely the starting point of our study, together with the urgent need for empirical research, something that has transpired from all the research on CLIL across the European continent. As Vez (2009, p. 18) claims: “There is not yet empirical evidence from EU countries on which to base definitive claims about the educational (or other) advantages of multilingual education”. This is *why* this current investigation is being conducted. This need for research is supported by many other authors, such as Coyle, Hood and Marsh (2010), who call for analysis of a deeper nature in order to better understand the functionality of CLIL. Moreover, Pérez Cañado (2011, p. 389) 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 [...]”. On his behalf, Lasagabaster (2011, p. 15) 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”. Therefore, our Thesis tries to address the issues mentioned above by offering a rigorous monitoring of CLIL implementation and an analysis of a deeper nature, which is “key for a better understanding of the processes and outcomes of these courses” (Coyle, Hood and Marsh, 2010).

As for *what* is going to be evaluated, a distinction must be made from the very beginning, since our study examines the effects of CLIL from quantitative and qualitative perspectives. The effects of CLIL on FL learning, content learning and L1 learning will be analysed in the quantitative part of the project. Thus, we will try to assess whether participants in the experimental group (CLIL group) develop superior language and content skills to those promoted by a traditional EFL programme. The study also aims to determine if the possible effects exerted by CLIL pervade six months after the programme is discontinued or if they gradually disappear.

In this respect, important researchers such as Paran (2013, p. 322-323) mentions that “research has sometimes struggled to show the benefit of CLIL, even for language outcomes”. In the same line, Dalton-Puffer (2007 as cited in Bruton 2013, p. 589) claims that “it is supposed to be oral ability especially that is enhanced by CLIL”. However, we cannot confirm that fact as there is a clear scarcity of evidence. Prieto Arranz et al. (2015, p. 126) claim that “the lack of research is perhaps especially evident in the field of listening comprehension, with no major study truly addressing this issue”. What is more, the few existing studies have focused almost exclusively on oral skills from a receptive point of view. Finally, it is worth mentioning that Rallo Fabra and Jacob (2015, p. 165) propound “few studies have investigated L2 pronunciation in immersion settings”.

This quantitative part is then completed from a qualitative point of view by means of a SWOT (strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats) analysis on the satisfaction generated by CLIL programmes among all the agents involved. That is to say, stakeholders’ perspectives (teachers, students and parents) will be collected via questionnaires, and personal and focus-group interviews will be carried out with teachers and students. As Coyle, Hood and Marsh (2010) claim: “monitoring participants’ attitudes towards CLIL and their motivational level should be a key element in an evaluation process” (Coyle, Hood and Marsh, 2010, p. 141, 142), since affective factors exert a great influence on CLIL success.

As regards *who* is investigated, all the stakeholders involved in the learning process must be assessed as “not all the different groups concerned in education (students, teachers and parents) have homogeneous views about CLIL and how it is being implemented in Andalusia” (Ráez Padilla, 2018, p. 182). As Coyle, Hood and Marsh (2010, p. 143) claim, “CLIL teachers should not be forgotten as we seek evidence of the affective dimension”. Moreover, it is obvious that parents play an essential role regarding their children’s attitudes towards learning a foreign language. In Ráez Padilla’s words (2018, p. 183): “parents may offer an informative, mid-way view about the possible discrepancies between teachers and students, theory and practice, when it comes to implementing CLIL in the classroom”.

As for *how* our research will be developed, it is worth mentioning that in the qualitative part of our project, all the participants have answered a questionnaire in which they express their opinions about CLIL and how this methodology is influencing their learning and/or teaching. The use of questionnaires is supported by Coyle, Hood and

Marsh (2010, p. 143), who affirm the practicality of “a questionnaire approach to a large number of participants to secure a full overview of the important factors”. However, Heras and Lasagabaster (2015, p. 85) advise us to 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 a L2”. Hence, taking this statement into account, we decided to incorporate personal interviews into our research design in order to factor in methodological triangulation.

As far as the quantitative part of the research is concerned, different types of tests have been used as instruments of our study: English grammar, vocabulary, reading, writing, listening, and speaking tests were originally designed and validated to guarantee content and construct validity. In this quantitative part, experimental (CLIL) and control (mainstream EFL) groups have participated, and multiple triangulation procedures (data, methodological, investigator and location) have been taken into account.

Regarding the place *where* the investigation takes place, the monolingual autonomous community of Andalusia will be our target, with the province of Jaén as our main focus of attention. Hence, students, teachers and parents belonging to public and private centres will be assessed in this study. In this respect, Madrid and Hughes (2011, p. 12) substantiate this proposal by claiming that “now would be an appropriate time to pause and examine the effectiveness of CLIL programmes” in Andalusia.

4.2. Objectives and sub-objectives

The principal objective this investigation pursues is the analysis of how CLIL programmes are actually working in the province of Jaén. In order to attain it, the study focuses on determining the different linguistic gains obtained by CLIL and non-CLIL groups in Primary and Secondary centres at two different points in time. Moreover, multiple triangulation is used, as perspectives among stakeholders are compared with a view to detecting the positive and negative aspects of the programme, suggesting, concomitantly, possible solutions to improve the CLIL experience.

As can be inferred from previous sections, the objectives of the current investigation must be dealt with separately according to the nature of the research, since

both quantitative and qualitative goals are followed. On the one hand, the quantitative part measures FL progress in the 4th year of Compulsory Secondary Education and in the 6th year of Primary Education, and it strives to find out if participants belonging to the experimental group (CLIL) develop superior English language skills to those promoted by the traditional English as a Foreign Language (EFL) programme with students from the same school and level and students from a private school. The study also aims to determine whether the possible differential effects exerted by the CLIL programme on English language skills pervade in the 1st year of Baccalaureate, that is to say, six months after the CLIL programme is discontinued, or whether they gradually peter out. Moreover, the effects of CLIL on L1 learning and content learning will also be analysed. In this respect, our main goal will be to find out if CLIL hampers content learning and L1 learning in comparison with non-CLIL groups studying content subjects through their mother tongue.

On the other hand, as mentioned above, the qualitative side of the project evaluates the satisfaction generated by the CLIL programme among all the stakeholders involved (students, teachers and parents). With a view to conducting a SWOT analysis on CLIL, three different questionnaires are used and personal and focus-group interviews are carried out with the teachers and the CLIL students, respectively. Three principal objectives drive our research project and serve as the reference point for this investigation: They are presented as follows:

1. Satisfaction generated by CLIL among the main stakeholders (students, teachers and parents) and identification of the most important strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats of the programme. All the curricular and organisational levels affected by the CLIL programme will be examined:
 - Competencies
 - Methodology
 - Materials and resources
 - Evaluation
 - Teacher training
 - Mobility programmes
 - Workload
 - Coordination and organisation

2. Development of students' English linguistic competence through CLIL in a traditionally monolingual region. Hence, the impact of CLIL will be considered on:
 - Grammar
 - Vocabulary
 - Receptive skills: reading and listening
 - Productive skill: speaking

3. Performance in Spanish and in the content subject taught through the FL. The effects of CLIL will be considered for:
 - Spanish Language and Literature
 - Science: the subject implemented in English

These general objectives or concerns can be subdivided into the following research questions, to which the present dissertation will attempt to respond:

Metaconcern 1: Stakeholder perspectives

RQ1. What are the teachers', coordinators', students' and parents' perceptions of the way in which the Bilingual Schools Programme is functioning at all curricular and organisational levels?

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

RQ3. Within the teacher cohort, are there any statistically significant differences in perception in terms of the identification variables considered (age, gender, teaching experience, administrative situation, type of school, setting, English level)?

RQ4. Within the student cohort, are there any statistically significant differences in perception in terms of the identification variables considered (age, gender, grade, type of school, setting, English level, time of exposure within and outside school)?

RQ5. Within the parent cohort, are there any statistically significant differences in perception in terms of the identification variables considered (age, gender, level of studies, grade of their children, setting, English level)?

Metaconcern 2: Effects of CLIL on foreign language skills

RQ6. Do CLIL programmes implemented with Primary and Secondary school students (experimental group) develop superior linguistic competence (grammar, vocabulary, receptive skills and oral production) to that promoted by EFL programmes with students from the same level (control group)? More simply, is there a linguistic competence differential between CLIL and EFL groups at Primary and Secondary school level in the province of Jaén?

RQ7. What is the modulating (differential) effect exerted on the Primary and Secondary students' English language competence by the following intervening variables: type of school (public and private), setting (rural-urban), gender, socioeconomic status, motivation, verbal intelligence, English level, time of exposure to English in and outside school and linguistic competence of the teacher?

RQ8. Do the possible differential effects exerted by CLIL programmes on English language competence pervade six months after the CLIL programme is discontinued or do they gradually disappear?

Metaconcern 3: CLIL impact on L1

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

RQ10. What is the modulating (differential) effect exerted on the Primary (6th grade) and Secondary (4th year CSE) students' Spanish language competence by the following intervening variables: type of school (public and private), setting (rural-urban), gender, socioeconomic status, motivation, verbal intelligence, English level, time of exposure to English in and outside school and linguistic competence of the teacher?

Metaconcern 4: CLIL impact on content taught through English

RQ11. Does CLIL impact the acquisition of content in Science by the experimental group following this programme, in comparison to its acquisition by the EFL control?

RQ12. What is the modulating (differential) effect exerted on the Primary (6th grade) and Secondary (4th year CSE) students' Science competence by the following intervening variables: type of school (public and private), setting (rural-urban), gender, socioeconomic status, motivation, verbal intelligence, English level, time of exposure to English in and outside school and linguistic competence of the teacher?

Metaconcern 5: Appraisal of competence differential

RQ13. If there is a competence differential between the treatment and comparison groups, is it truly ascribable to language learning based on academic content processing?

All in all, it must be mentioned here that these general objectives and research questions we have considered for our study are consistent with the four main principles or approaches towards CLIL research identified by Van de Craen, Ceuleers and Mondt (2007). Furthermore, they follow the strategic recommendations developed by Marsh (2002) as part of the Open Method Coordination effort to promote successful CLIL implementation, and aim to provide an answer to many of the most frequent questions about bilingual and plurilingual education.

4.3. Methodology

4.3.1. Research design

As mentioned previously, the present longitudinal investigation presents a mixed research design as it is both qualitative and quantitative in nature. Both experimental (CLIL) and control (EFL) groups will be considered in the quantitative side of the project, while different triangulation procedures will be incorporated in the qualitative part of the

study. Several types of tests will be used as instruments for the quantitative part of the investigation. In turn, for the qualitative part of the project, questionnaires will be used and semi-structured focus-group interviews will be carried out.

On the one hand, the quantitative side of the study is an example of applied, primary, quasi-experimental research, with a post-test control group design, to which a delayed post-test has also been added. Thus, as Rossell and Baker (1996), together with Cummins (1999 as cited in Lancaster, 2015, p. 137) specify, four benchmarks are necessary for studies to be methodologically sound, and our study meets them:

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

On the other hand, the qualitative part of the investigation can be characterised as an instance of primary research, and of survey research (Brown, 2001), because it incorporates interviews and questionnaires. Moreover, three types of triangulation will be applied: data, methodological and location.

- Data triangulation: different sources of information will be drawn on to counteract biases or tendencies presented by participants with different roles in the CLIL programme (students, teachers or parents).
- Methodological triangulation: several data-gathering procedures will be employed (questionnaires, semi-structured individual interviews and semi-structured focus-group interviews).
- Location triangulation: for the quantitative part of the study, language learning data will be collected from different data-gathering sites (one public and one

private Primary school, together with four public Secondary schools and one private Secondary school).

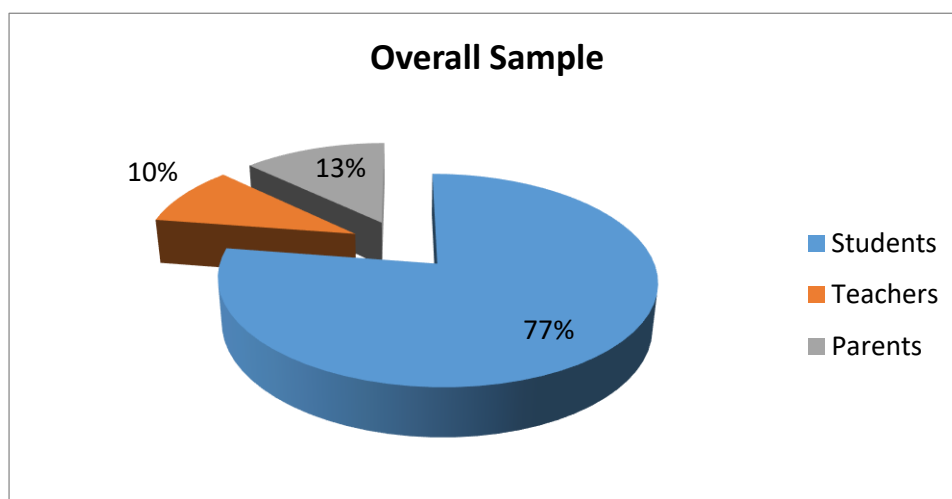
4.3.2. Sample

This project has worked with students, teachers and parents belonging to different schools throughout the province of Jaén. A total of 372 stakeholders form the sample of our investigation and all their contributions have been taken into account for the analysis of CLIL in our province. The research has been conducted in three Primary schools (*CEIP. Virgen de la Villa* in Martos, a rural public school, and *Colegio Altocastillo y Guadalimar* in Jaén, urban private schools) and in four Secondary centres (2 rural public schools: *IES. Accabe* in Bedmar and *IES. Sierra Sur* in Valdepeñas de Jaén; and 2 urban public schools: *IES. Santa Catalina de Alejandría* and *IES. Auringis*, both in Jaén).

In the following section, an analysis of the overall sample will be presented, followed by the breakdown of the different cohorts in relation to all the identification variables considered, taking into account the two sides of our investigation. Thus, the qualitative and the quantitative sample will be expounded on separately.

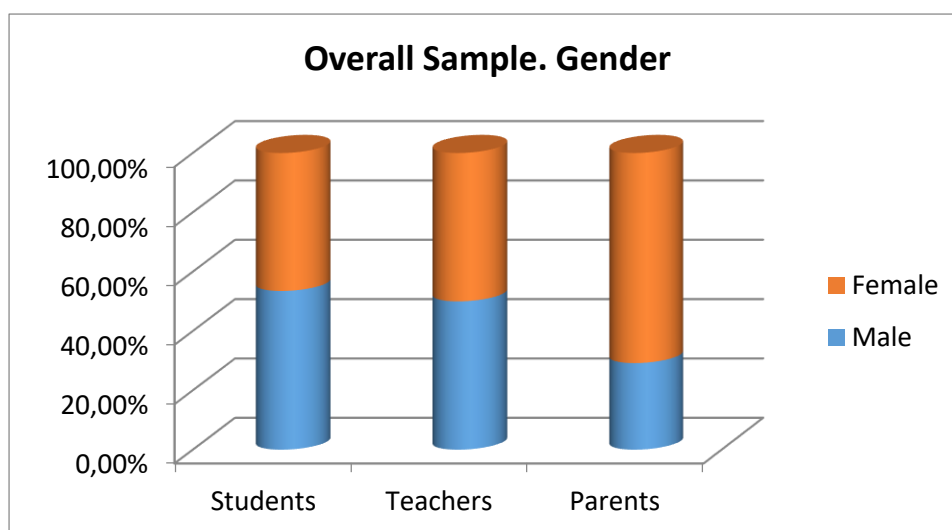
4.3.2.1 Qualitative sample

A total number of 372 stakeholders have taken part in the qualitative part of our investigation. 288 of them are students and there are 36 teachers and 48 parents. A significant difference in number among cohorts can be clearly seen, as students constitute 77% of all the participants (cf. Graph 1).



Graph 1. Breakdown of the overall sample

In terms of gender, the same number of females and males participated in the investigation (186 men and 186 women). More specifically, 156 students are male (53.5%), while 134 students are female (46.5%). In the case of teachers, there are 18 women and 18 men (50% each) and in the parent cohort, 14 fathers took part in the investigation (29.2%) and 34 mothers (70.8%) (cf. Graph 2).



Graph 2. Overall Sample. Gender

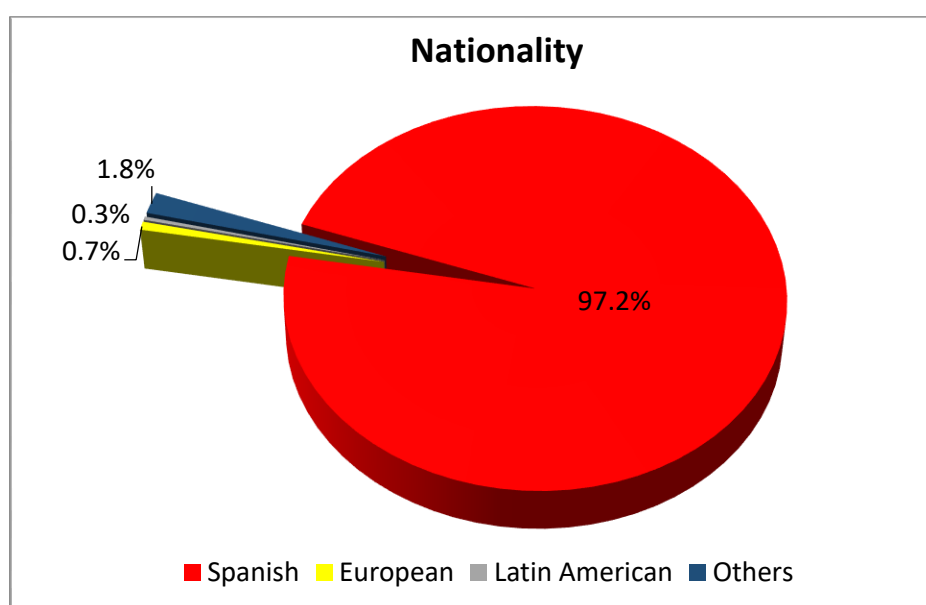
4.3.2.1.1. Students

In this section, a separate analysis of the student cohort will be carried out. Thus, it is worth starting by mentioning that most of the pupils who have taken part in the

investigation are Spanish (97.2%). Other nationalities are also present in the project as can be seen in the diagraph below (cf. Table 1; Graph 3).

	Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage
Spanish	280	97.2	97.2
European	2	.7	0.7
Latin American	1	.3	0.3
Others	5	1.7	1.7
Total	288	100.0	100.0

Table 1. Students' nationality

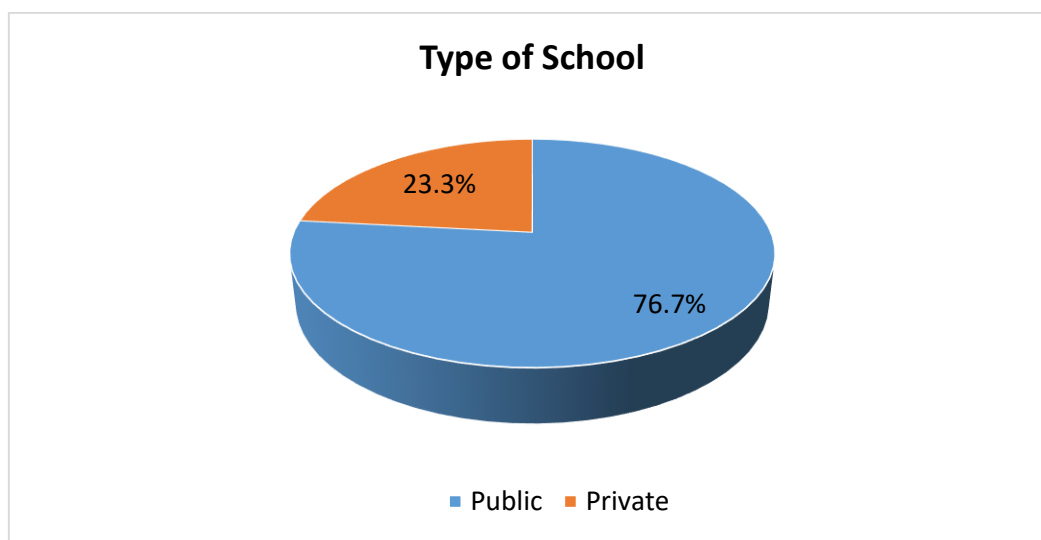


Graph 3. Students' nationality

As our study has been carried out in both public and private schools throughout the province of Jaén, it is necessary to mention that most of the participants belong to public centres (76.7%), with only 23.3% of them attending private centres (cf. Table 2; Graph 4).

	Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage
Public	221	76.7	76.7
Private	67	23.3	23.3
Total	288	100.0	100.0

Table 2. Type of school

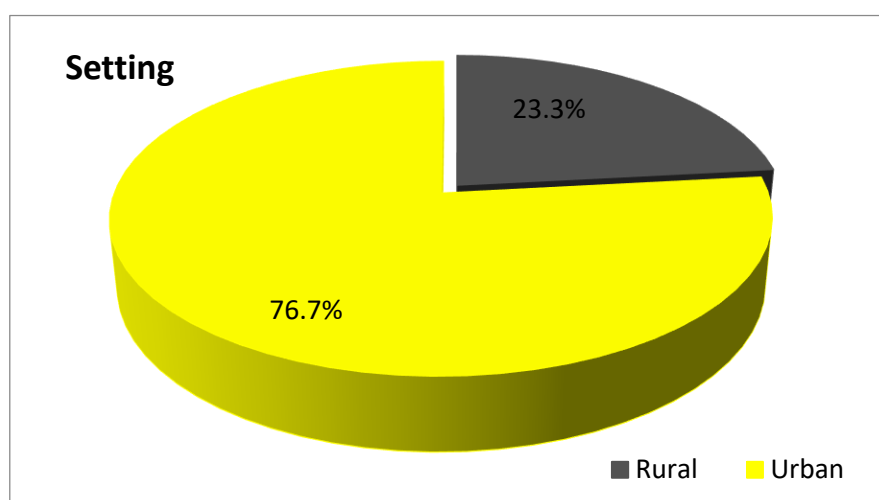


Graph 4. Type of school

Most of the centres which collaborated in our project are situated in an urban setting (76.7%), although there have also been some rural centres (23.3%) (cf. Table 3; Graph 5).

	Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage
Rural	67	23.3	23.3
Urban	221	76.7	76.7
Total	288	100.0	100.0

Table 3. Setting

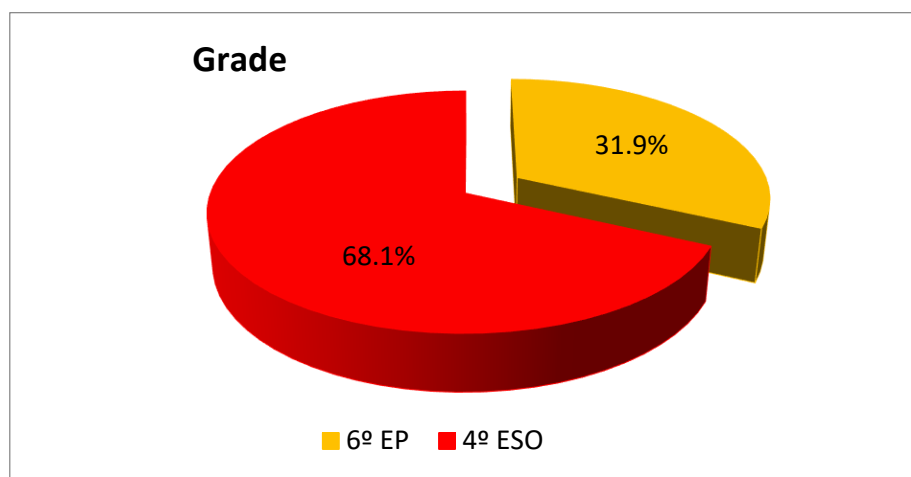


Graph 5. Setting

Vis-à-vis the grade of the students participating in the project, most of them belong to 4th year of Compulsory Secondary Education (68.1%), and the rest are in the 6th grade of Primary Education (31.9%) (cf. Table 4; Graph 6).

	Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage
Primary Education	92	31.9	31.9
Compulsory Secondary Education (CSE)	196	68.1	68.1
Total	288	100.0	100.0

Table 4. Grade



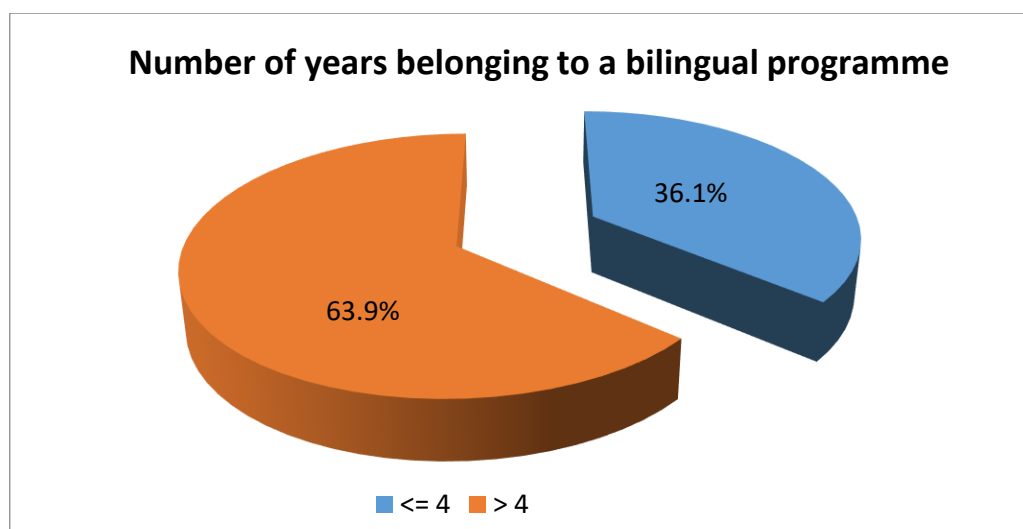
Graph 6. Grade of students

As our study is focused not only on Primary Education but also on Secondary Education, different results appear when dealing with the number of years in which students have been taking part in a bilingual programme. Due to the greater amount of students belonging to Secondary Education classes, 63.9% of pupils admit having belonged to a bilingual section for more than four years. On the contrary, 36.1% of them have studied in a bilingual school for less than four years (cf. Table 5; Graph 7).

	Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage
<= 4 years	103	35.8	36.1
> 4 years	182	63.2	63.9
Total	285	99.0	100.0
Missing	3	1.0	

Total	288	100.0	

Table 5. Years studying in a bilingual programme

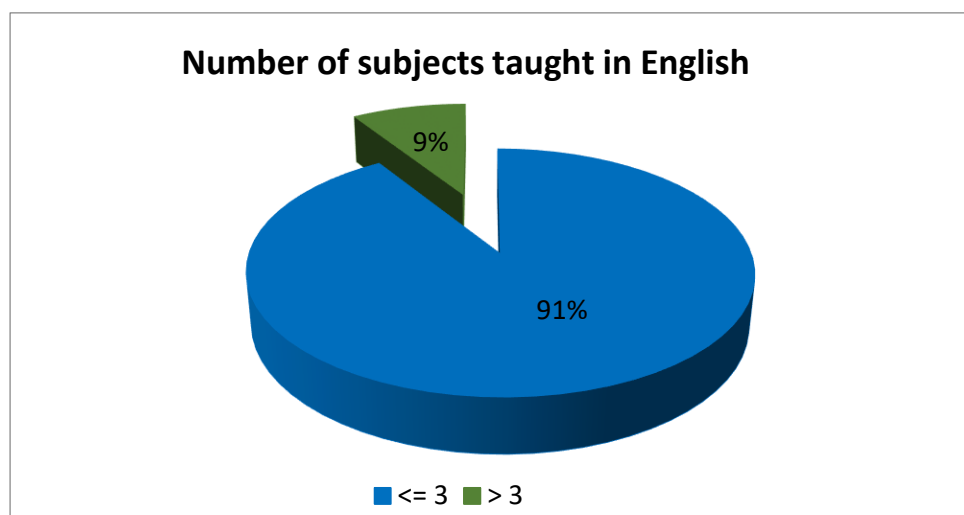


Graph 7. Number of years into a bilingual programme

The great majority of students (91%) study at least three subjects in English, with the most common ones being Natural Sciences, Social Sciences and Mathematics. The rest of students (9%) claim to study more than three subjects through the FL (cf. Tables 6, 7; Graphs 8, 9).

	Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage
<= 3 subjects	262	91.0	91.0
> 3 subjects	26	9.0	9.0
Total	288	100.0	100.0

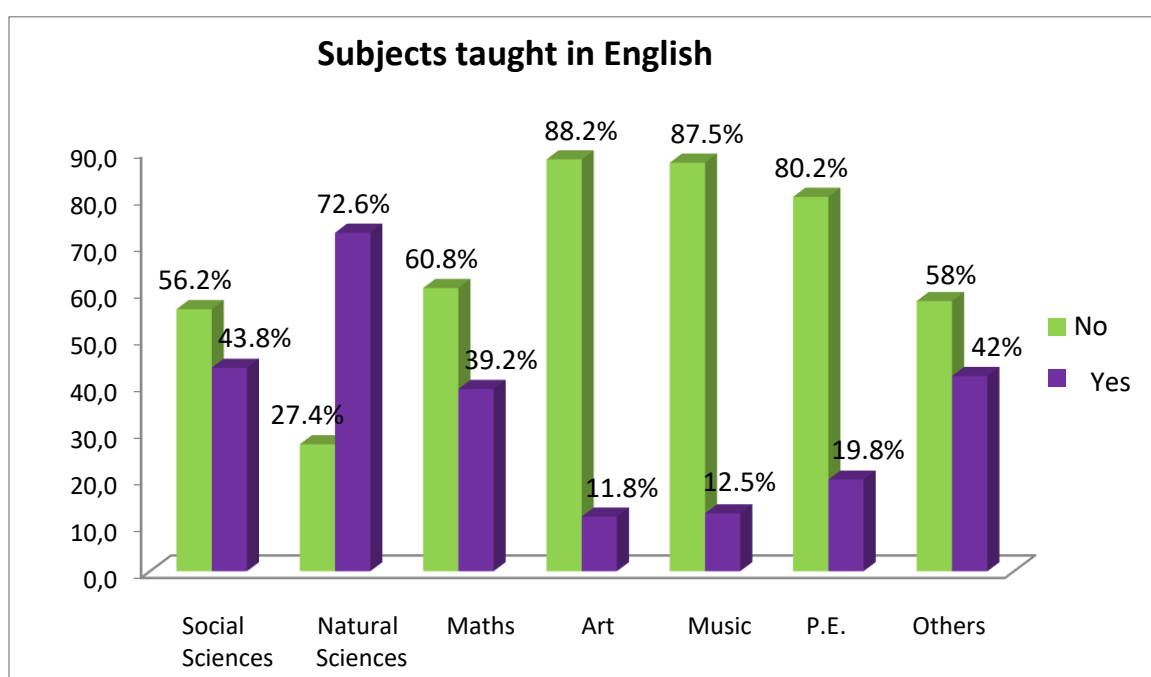
Table 6. Number of subjects taught in English



Graph 8. Number of subjects taught in English

Subject	No	Yes
Natural Sciences	56.2	43.8
Social Sciences	27.4	72.6
Maths	60.8	39.2
Art	88.2	11.8
Music	87.5	12.5
P.E.	80.2	19.8
Others	58.0	42.0

Table 7. Subjects taught in English



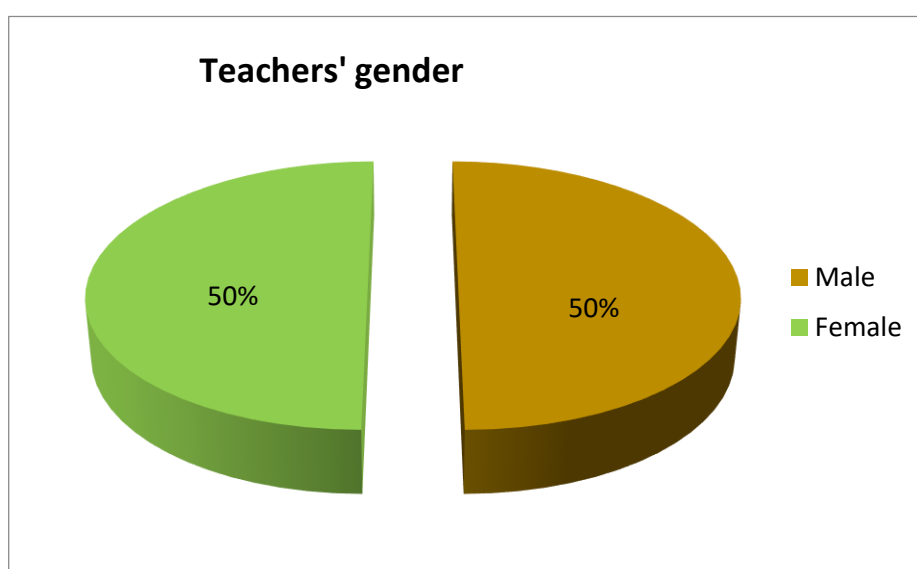
Graph 9. Subjects taught in English

4.3.2.1.2. Teachers

The next group considered in the qualitative part of our investigation is that of teachers. This cohort is reduced in number as it only represents 10% of the total sample. As can be seen in the graphs below, half of the educators polled are men and the other half are women (cf. Table 8; Graph 10).

	Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage
Male	18	50.0	50.0
Female	18	50.0	50.0
Total	36	100.0	100.0

Table 8. Gender (Teachers)

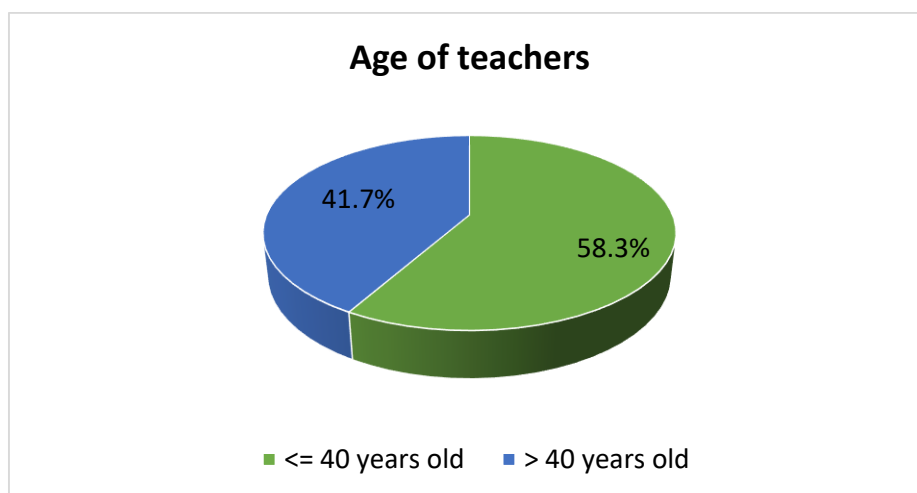


Graph 10. Gender (Teachers)

As for age, most of the teachers are 40 or younger (58.3%), while 41.7% of them are older than 40 (cf. Table 9; Graph 11).

	Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage
<= 40 years old	21	58.3	58.3
> 40 years old	15	41.7	41.7
Total	36	100.0	100.0

Table 9. Age of teachers

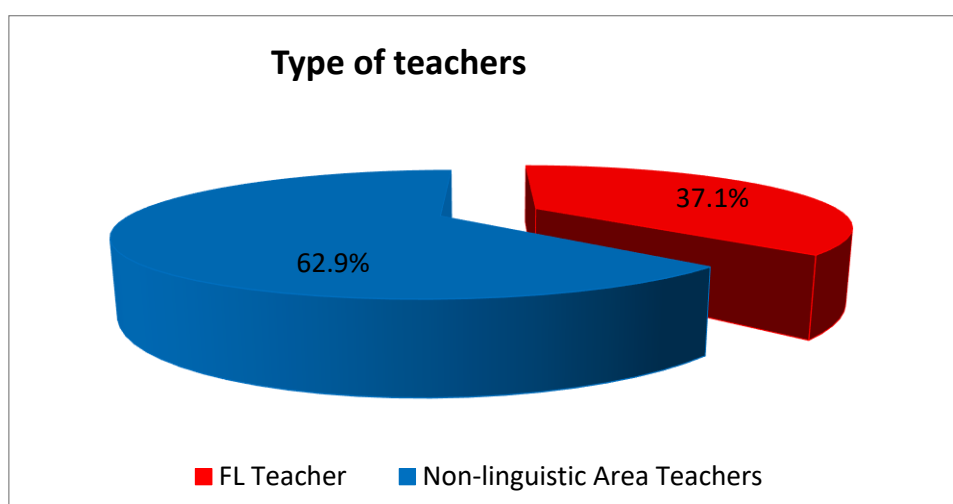


Graph 11. Age of teachers

Most of the teachers participating in the project are non-linguistic area teachers (62.9%) whereas some FL teachers (37.1%) have also been surveyed (cf. Table 10; Graph 12).

	Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage
FL Teachers	13	36.1	37.1
NLA Teachers	22	61.1	62.9
Total	35	97.2	100.0
Missing	1	2.8	
Total	36	100.0	

Table 10. Type of teacher

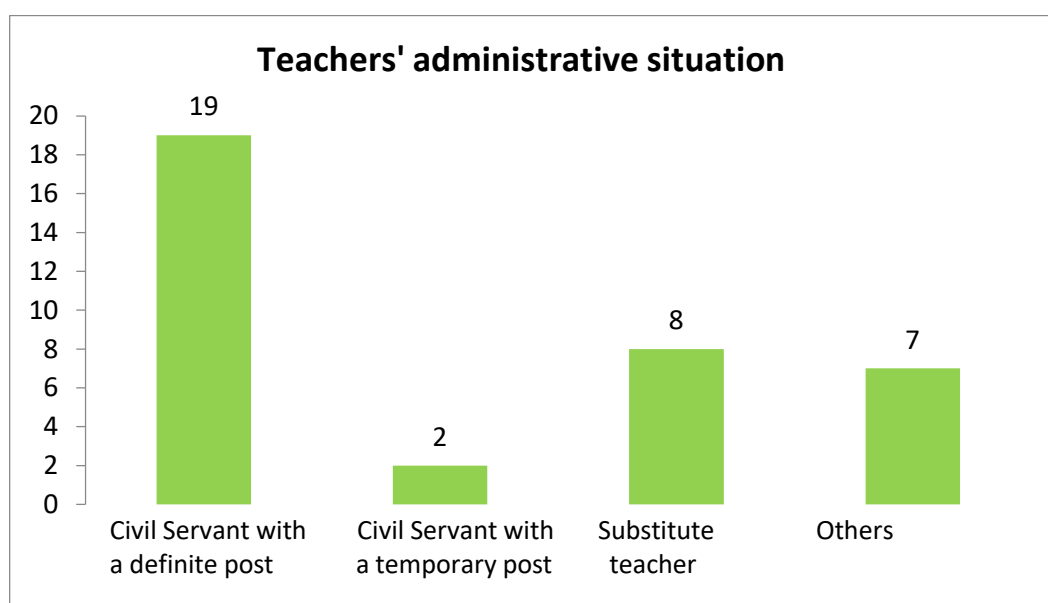


Graph 12. Type of teacher

The teachers are all civil servants and the majority hold a permanent post (52.8%), with the exception of two teachers who hold a temporary post (5.6%). The rest are substitute teachers (22.2%) or other non-specified types of teachers (19.4%) (cf. Table 11; Graph 13). Only seven teachers out of the 36 educators polled coordinate the bilingual section (20%) (cf. Table 12; Graph 14).

	Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage
Civil servant with a definite post	19	52.8	52.8
Civil servant with a temporary post	2	5.6	5.6
Substitute teachers	8	22.2	22.2
Others	7	19.4	19.4
Total	36	100.0	100.0

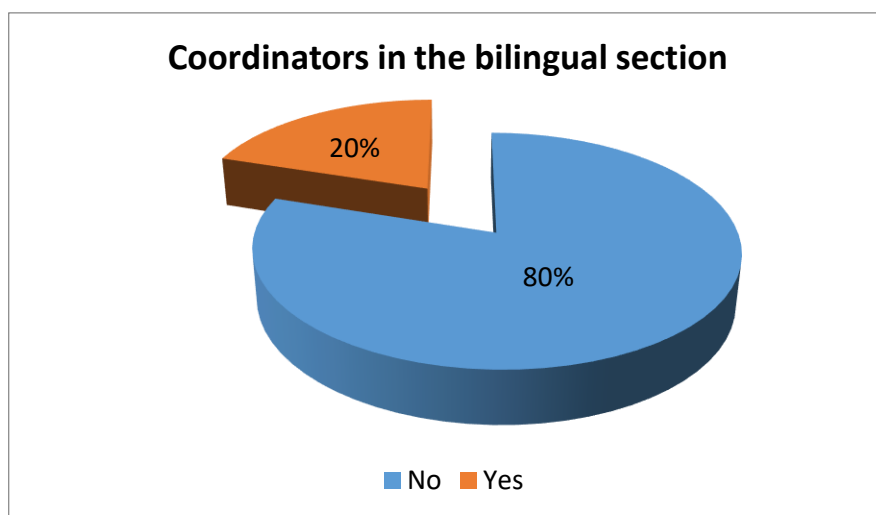
Table 11. Teachers' administrative situation



Graph 13. Teachers' administrative situation

	Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage
No	28	77.8	80.0
Yes	7	19.4	20.0
Total	35	97.2	100.0
Missing	1	2.8	
Total	36	100.0	

Table 12. Coordinators in the bilingual section

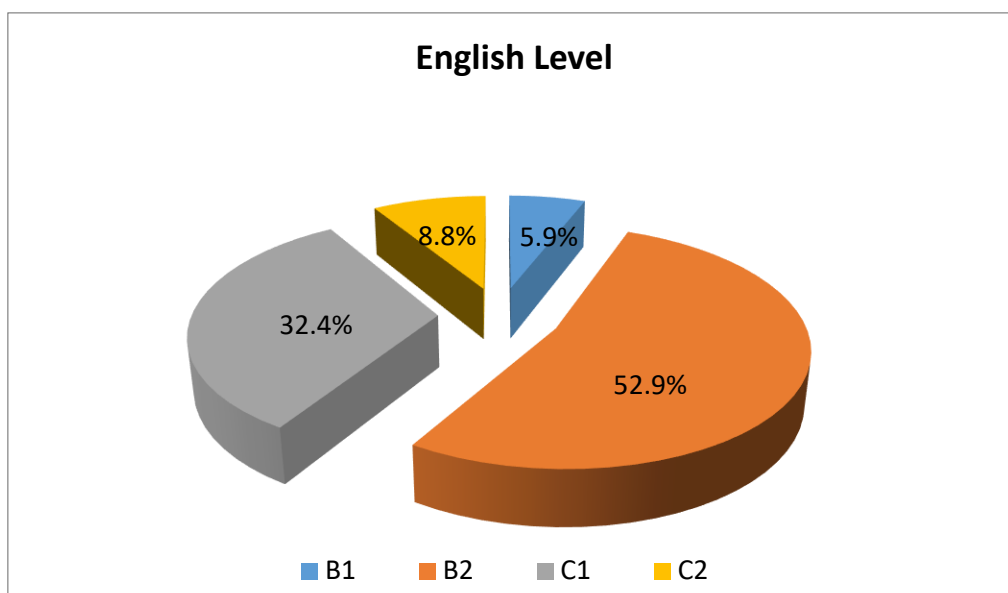


Graph 14. Coordinators in the bilingual section

Half of the teachers polled have an English level equivalent to B2 (52.9%), while more than 40% of them have a C1 or C2 level in the FL (32.4% and 8.8%, respectively). Only 5.9% of teachers claim to have a lower level of English, equivalent to a B1 (cf. Table 13; Graph 15).

	Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage
B1	2	5.6	5.9
B2	18	50.0	52.9
C1	11	30.6	32.4
C2	3	8.3	8.8
Total	34	94.4	100.0
Missing	2	5.6	
Total	36	100.0	

Table 13. Teachers' English level

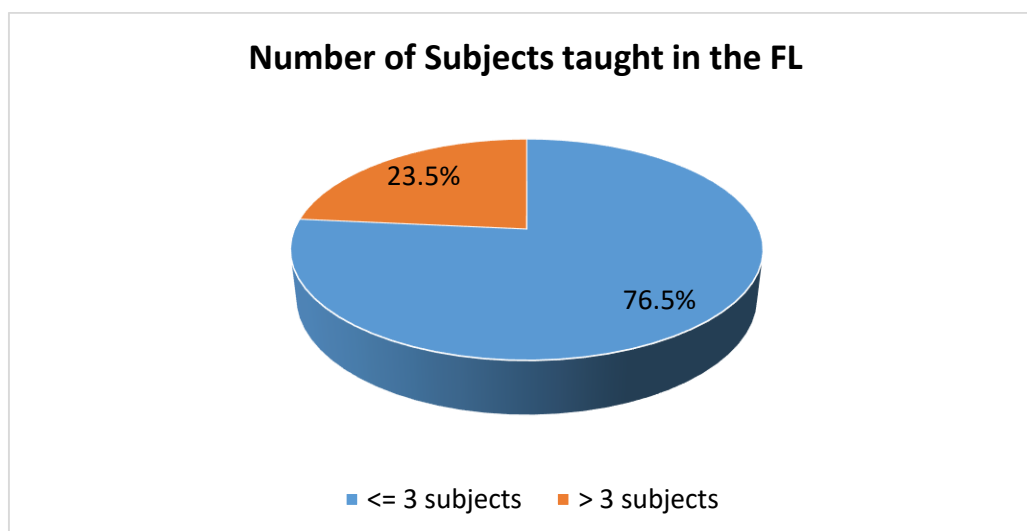


Graph 15. Teachers' English level

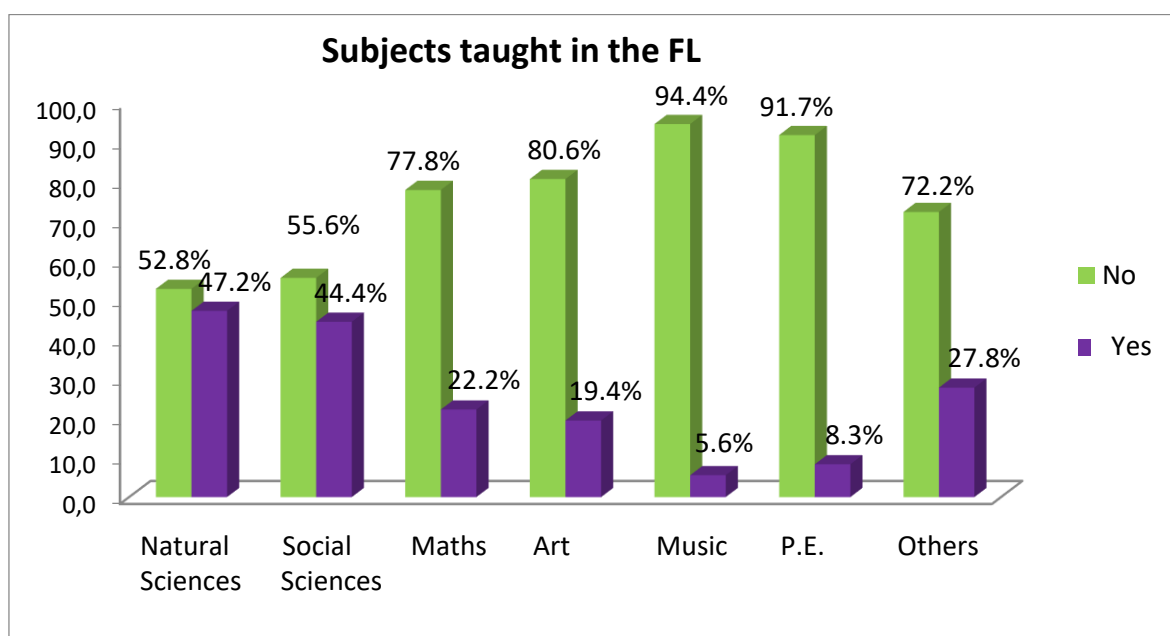
76.5% of the teachers affirm they teach three or fewer subjects through the FL, while 23.5% claim to teach more than three subjects in English (cf. Table 14; Graph 16). The subjects which are normally taught in the FL are Social Sciences and Natural Sciences, followed by others such as Art or Maths (cf. Graph 17).

	Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage
<= 3 subjects	26	72.2	76.5
> 3 subjects	8	22.2	23.5
Total	34	94.4	100.0
Missing	2	5.6	
Total	36	100.0	

Table 14. Number of subjects taught in the FL



Graph 16. Number of subjects taught in English

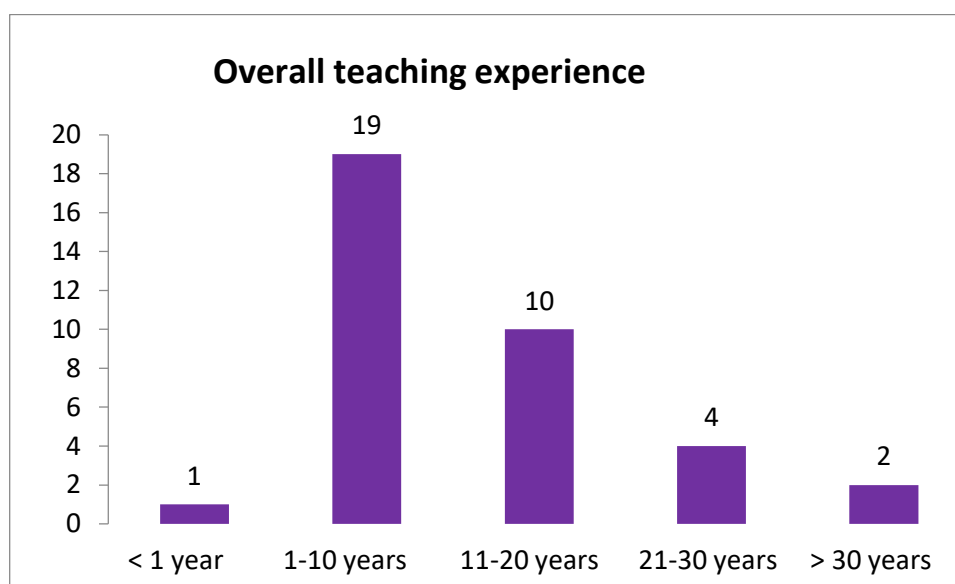


Graph 17. Subjects taught in the FL

Concerning their overall teaching experience, a considerable percentage of teachers (52.8%) have been teaching between 1 and 10 years, followed by those educators who have been teaching between 11 and 20 years (27.8%). 11.11 % of teachers have more than 20 years of experience teaching and 5.6% of them have more than 30 years of expertise (cf. Table 15; Graph 18).

	Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage
< 1 year	1	2.8	2.8
1-10 years	19	52.8	52.8
11-20 years	10	27.8	27.8
21-30 years	4	11.1	11.1
> 30 years	2	5.6	5.6
Total	36	100.0	100.0

Table 15. Overall teaching experience

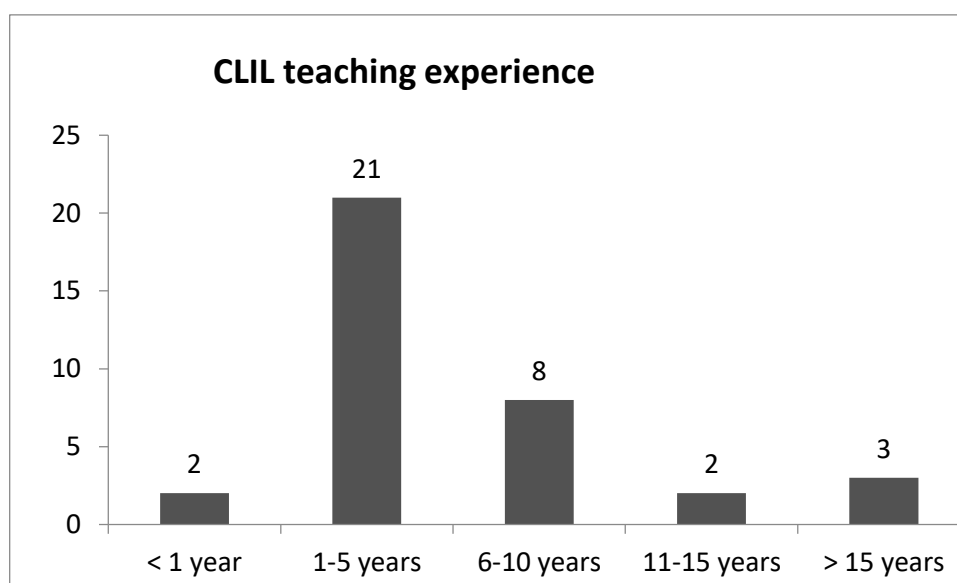


Graph 18. Overall teaching experience

Finally, as for their experience teaching in a bilingual programme, it is worth mentioning that more than a half of the educators polled have belonged to a bilingual section between one and five years (58.3%). 22.2% of them have taken part in a bilingual section between six and ten years, while only 8.3% have had bilingual teaching experience for more than 15 years (cf. Table 16; Graph 19).

	Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage
< 1 years	2	5.6	5.6
1-5 years	21	58.3	58.3
6-10 years	8	22.2	22.2
11-15 years	2	5.6	5.6
> 15 years	3	8.3	8.3
Total	36	100.0	100.0

Table 16. CLIL Teaching experience



Graph 19. CLIL teaching experience

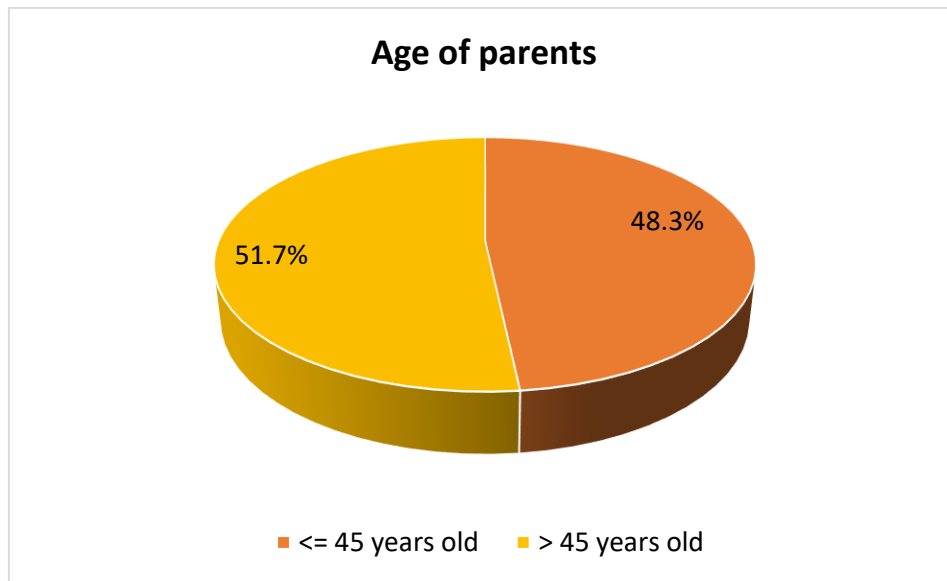
4.3.2.1.3. Parents

As has been pointed out throughout the literature review, the successful implementation of any CLIL programme requires a considerable effort on the part of all stakeholders involved, so parents must certainly be included. Families play an essential role in the development of the bilingual programme. That is why special attention has been paid to them in the current study.

A separate breakdown of the parent cohort, which conforms 13% of the qualitative sample, will now be presented. As for age, slightly more than half of them are older than 45 (51.7%), and the rest are younger than or actually 45 (48.3%) (cf. Table 17; Graph 20).

	Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage
<= 45 years old	14	29.2	48.3
> 45 years old	15	31.3	51.7
Total	29	60.4	100.0
Missing	19	39.6	
Total	48	100.0	

Table 17. Age of parents

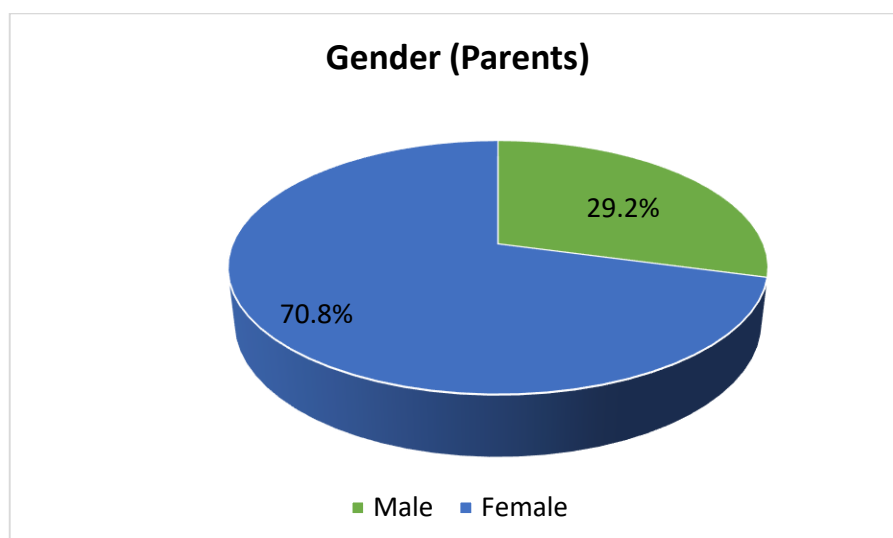


Graph 20. Age of parents

In terms of gender, most of the parents surveyed are female (70.8%), with only 29.2% fathers having filled in the questionnaires (cf. Table 18; Graph 21).

	Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage
Male	14	29.2	29.2
Female	34	70.8	70.8
Total	48	100.0	100.0

Table 18. Gender (Parents)

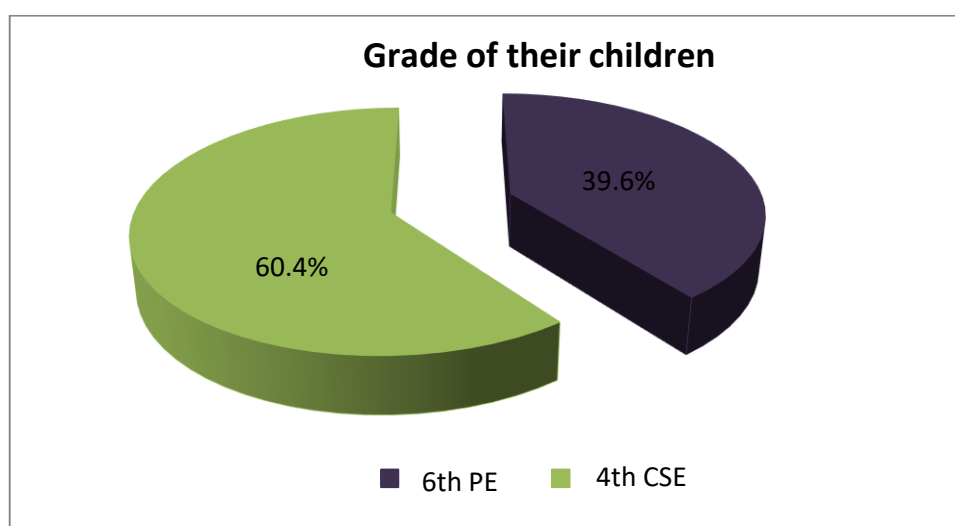


Graph 21. Gender (Parents)

Congruent with the student and teacher cohort, most of the parents participating in the project have their children studying in a Secondary Education school (60.4%), and the rest have children in Primary Education (39.6%) (cf. Table 19; Graph 22).

	Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage
Primary Education	19	39.6	39.6
Compulsory Secondary Education (CSE)	29	60.4	60.4
Total	48	100.0	100.0

Table 19. Grade of their children

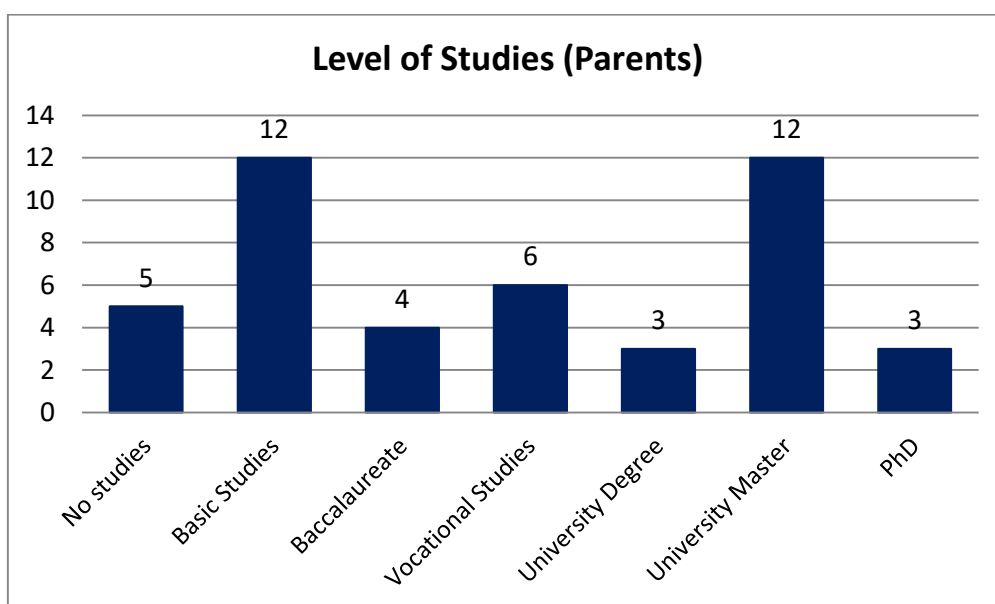


Graph 22. Grade of their children (Parents)

Information on the level of studies of parents has also been collected to further characterise this sample. From the questionnaires, it transpires that over a third of the cohort is in possession of a university degree (33.4%) and 26.7% of parents claim to have basic school qualifications. A lower percentage (13.3%) possess a certificate of Vocational Studies and only 6.7 % have a PhD. It is worth also mentioning that more than 10% of parents do not possess any certificate of studies (11.11%) (cf. Table 20; Graph 23).

	Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage
No studies	5	10.4	11.1
Certificate of Basic Studies	12	25.0	26.7
Certificate of Baccalaureate	4	8.3	8.9
Certificate of Vocational Studies	6	12.5	13.3
University Degree (Diplomatura)	3	6.3	6.7
University Master (Licenciatura)	12	25.0	26.7
PhD	3	6.3	6.7
Total	45	93.8	100.0
Missing	3	6.3	
Total	48	100.0	

Table 20. Level of studies (Parents)



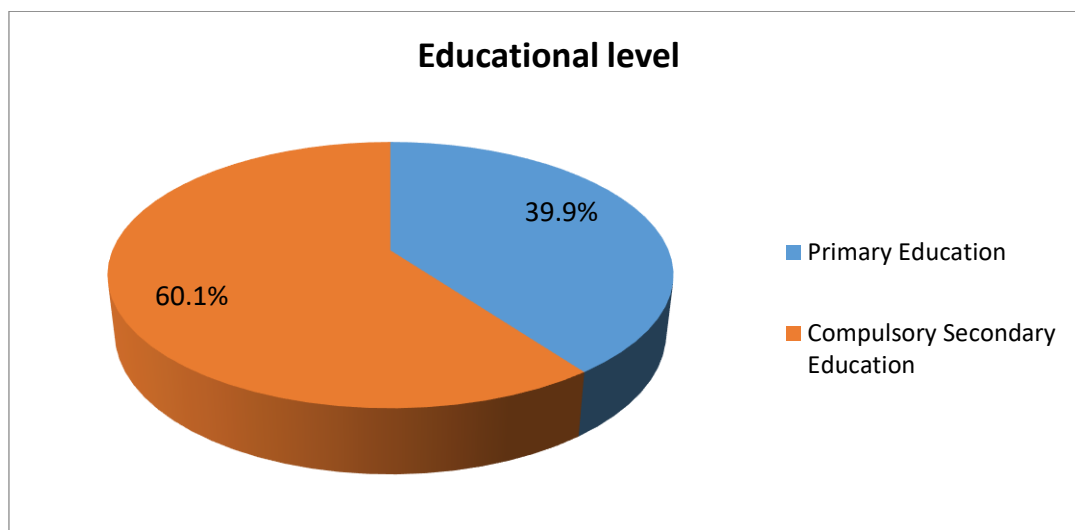
Graph 23. Level of studies (Parents)

4.3.2.2. Quantitative sample

In turn, the sample that took part in the quantitative part of our investigation was made up of 223 students, most of them studying 4th grade of Compulsory Secondary Education (60.1%). The rest are 6th grade of Primary Education students (39.9%) (cf. Table 21; Graph 24).

		Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Valid	Primary Education	89	39.9	39.9	39.9
	CSE	134	60.1	60.1	100.0
	Total	223	100.0	100.0	

Table 21. Educational level (Quantitative Sample)

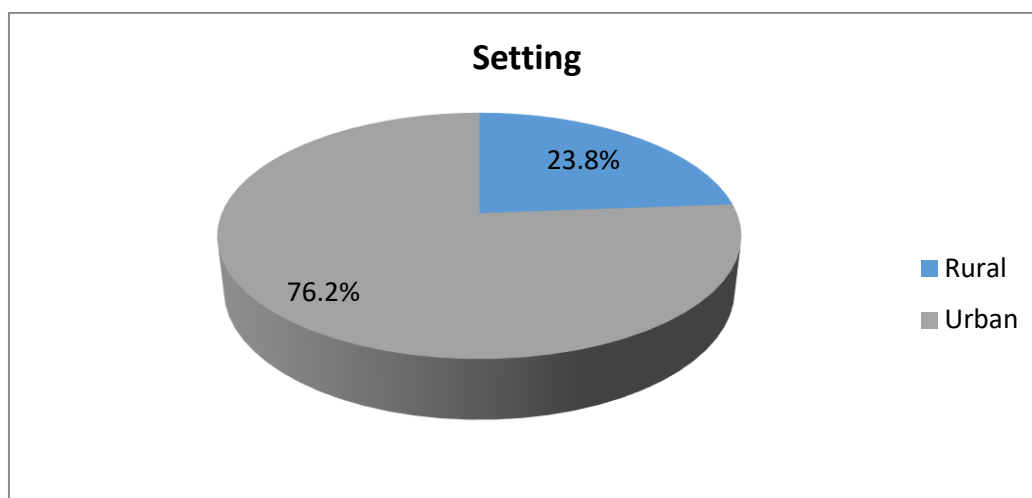


Graph 24. Educational level (Quantitative sample)

Coinciding with the data obtained in the qualitative side of the project, most of the learners participating in the investigation come from a urban setting (76.2%). The percentage of students belonging to a school placed in a rural area is 23.8% (cf. Table 22; Graph 25).

		Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Rural	53	23.8	23.8	23.8
	Urban	170	76.2	76.2	100.0
	Total	223	100.0	100.0	

Table 22. Setting (Quantitative Sample)

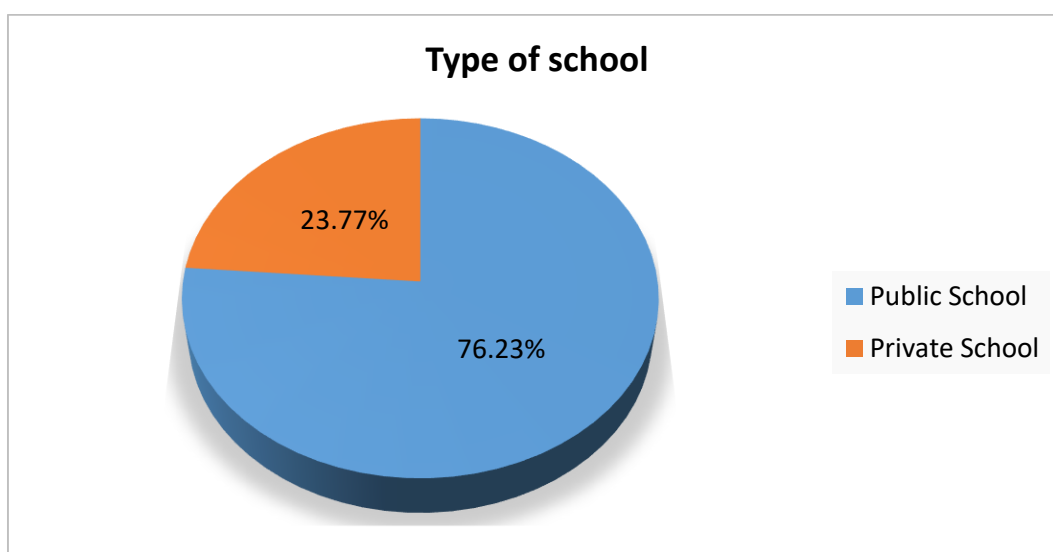


Graph 25. Setting (Quantitative sample)

As for the type of school where pupils are studying, it is worth mentioning that most of them belong to a public school (76.2%), while 23.8% are enrolled in a private school. This is understandable since there are not many private centres in the province of Jaén, public ones being much more common (cf. Table 23; Graph 26).

		Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Valid	Public School	170	76.2	76.2	76.2
	Private School	53	23.8	23.8	100.0
	Total	223	100.0	100.0	

Table 23. Type of school (Quantitative Sample)

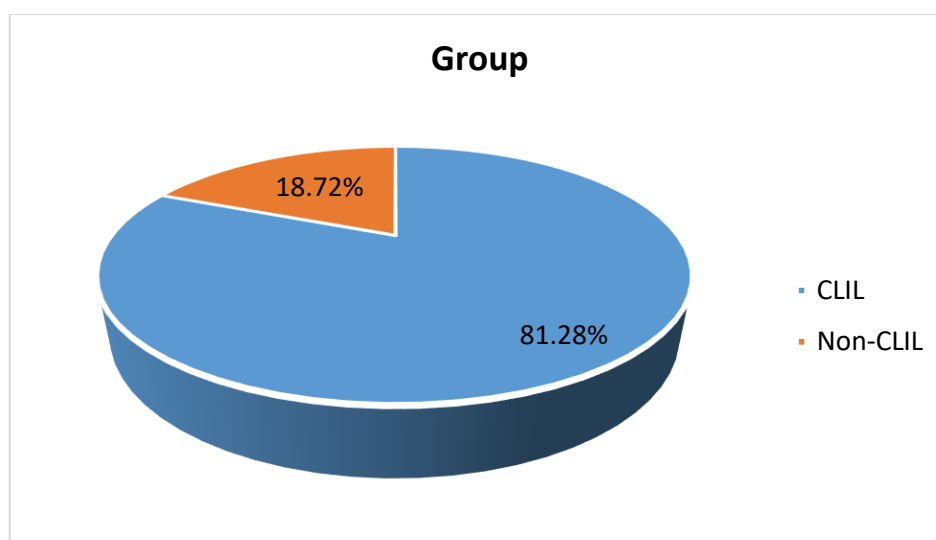


Graph 26. Type of school (Quantitative sample)

Considering that one of our main goals is to analyse the effects of CLIL on language and content learning, and to compare students' results when learning through a CLIL programme or through EFL, our quantitative sample has been divided into two groups: CLIL and non-CLIL students. As can be observed below, most of our participants belong to a CLIL section (81.3%), while the rest pupils learn through the traditional EFL programme (18.7%) (cf. Table 24; Graph 27).

		Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Valid	Non-CLIL	41	18.4	18.7	18.3
	CLIL	178	79.8	81.3	100.0
	Total	219	98.2	100.0	
Missing	System	4	1.8		
	Total	223	100.0		

Table 24. Group (Quantitative Sample)

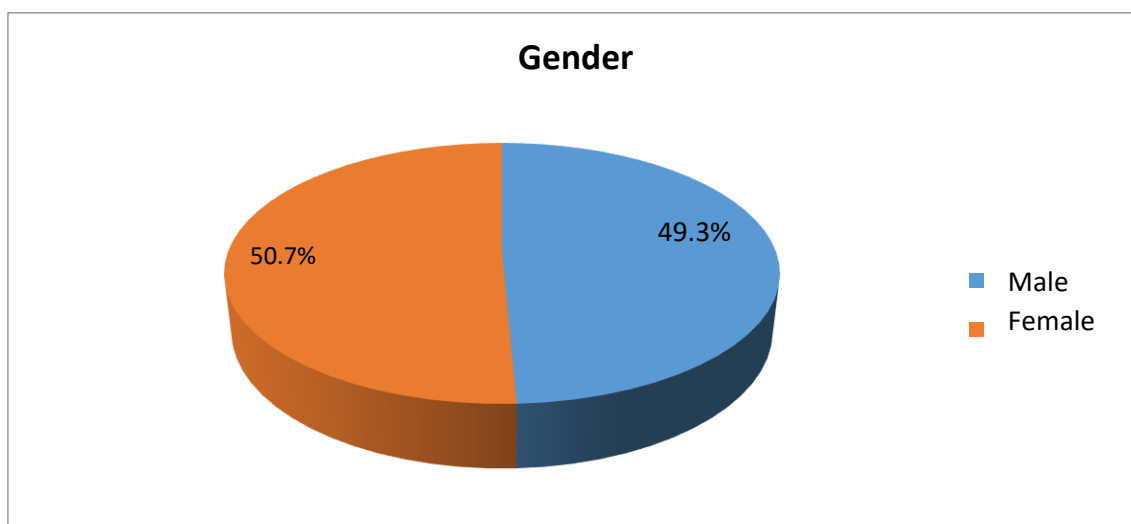


Graph 27. Group (Quantitative sample)

In relation to gender, the percentages are almost the same, since both are around 50%. However, there are slightly more female participants (50.7%) (cf. Table 25; Graph 28).

		Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Valid	Male	110	49.3	49.3	49.3
	Female	113	50.7	50.7	100.0
	Total	223	100.0	100.0	

Table 25. Gender (Quantitative Sample)



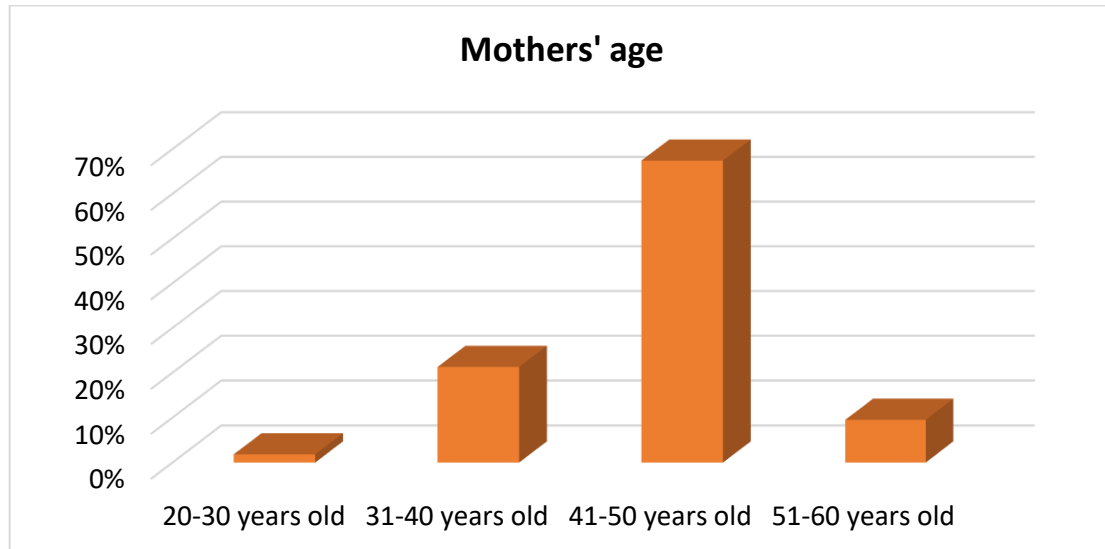
Graph 28. Gender (Quantitative sample)

The moderating variable of SES was also considered in the study, including some items in the tests dealing with the age of parents and their level of studies (the latter was taken as a proxy for SES). Concerning the first aspect, mothers as well as fathers are mostly between 41 to 50 years old (66.8% and 63.2%, respectively). However, fathers seem to be a little bit older than mothers in most cases, as the second age group for mothers would be that of 31 to 40 years old (21.1%), while in the case of fathers, the second group would be formed by those who are between 51 and 60 years old (21.5%) (cf. Tables 26 and 27; Graphs 29 and 30).

		Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Valid	20-30 years old	4	1.8	1.8	1.8
	31-40 years old	47	21.1	21.3	23.1
	41-50 years old	149	66.8	67.4	90.5
	51-60 years old	21	9.4	9.5	100.0

	Total	221	99.1	100.0	
Missing	System	2	,9		
Total		223	100.0		

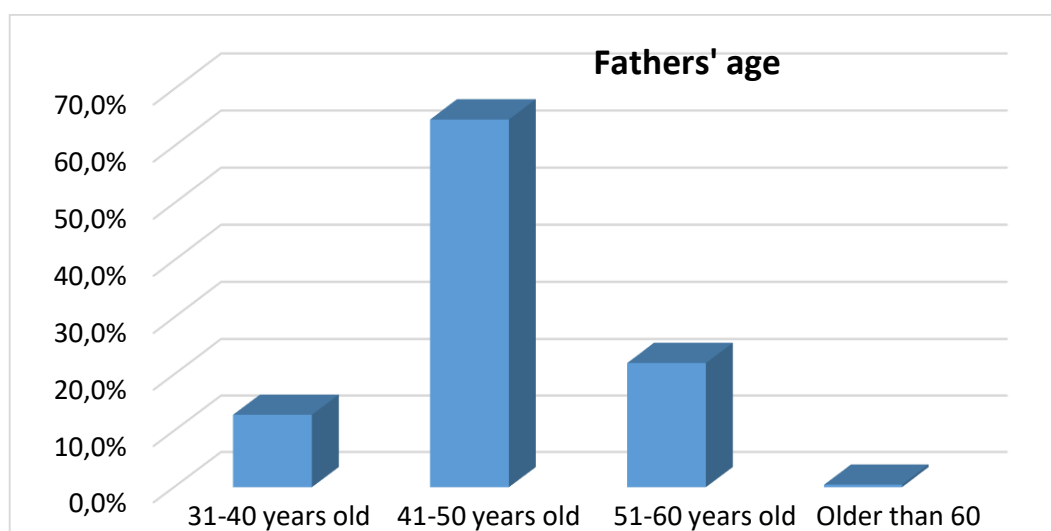
Table 26. Mother's age (Quantitative Sample)



Graph 29. Mothers' age (Quantitative sample)

		Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Valid	31-40 years old	28	12.6	12.8	12.8
	41-50 years old	141	63.2	64.7	77.5
	51-60 years old	48	21.5	22.0	99.5
	Older than 60	1	,4	.5	100.0
	Total	218	97.8	100.0	
Missing	System	5	2.2		
Total		223	100.0		

Table 27. Fathers' age (Quantitative Sample)



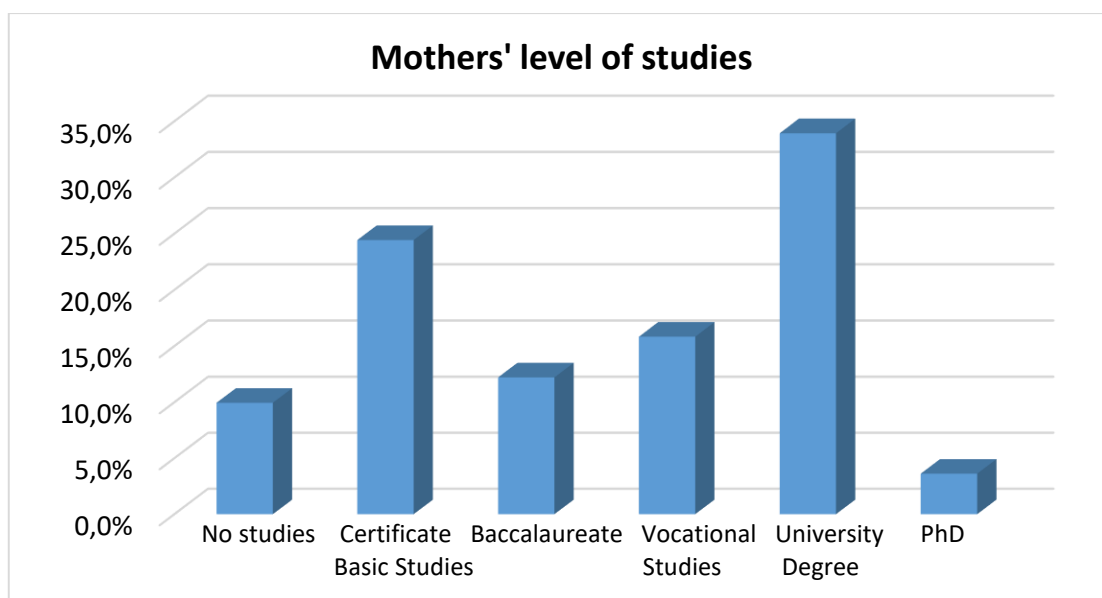
Graph 30. Father's age (Quantitative sample)

Regarding parents' level of studies, it is necessary to highlight that the percentages obtained coincide to a great extent with the ones provided for the qualitative sample. Moreover, data on mothers and fathers' level of studies are very similar. Thus, the highest percentage refers to those parents who have a university degree (33.9 % and 31.8%, respectively), followed by those who are in possession of a Certificate of Basic Studies (24.4% and 21.5%, respectively). In addition, there are some parents who have a Certificate of Vocational Studies (15.8% in the case of mothers and 19.4% in the case of fathers) and 12.1% of mothers and 14.7% of fathers have studied Baccalaureate. Surprisingly, almost 10% of the progenitors have not obtained any certificate of studies (10% of mothers and 8.8% of fathers) and only around 3.2% possess a Doctorate (cf. Tables 28 and 29; Graphs 31 and 32).

		Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Valid	No studies	22	9.9	10.0	10.0
	Certificate of Basic Studies	54	24.2	24.4	34.4
	Baccalaureate	27	12.1	12.2	46.6
	Vocational Studies	35	15.7	15.8	62.4
	University studies	75	33.6	33.9	96.4
	PhD	8	3.6	3.6	100.0
	Total	221	99.1	100.0	

Missing	System	2	,9		
Total		223	100.0		

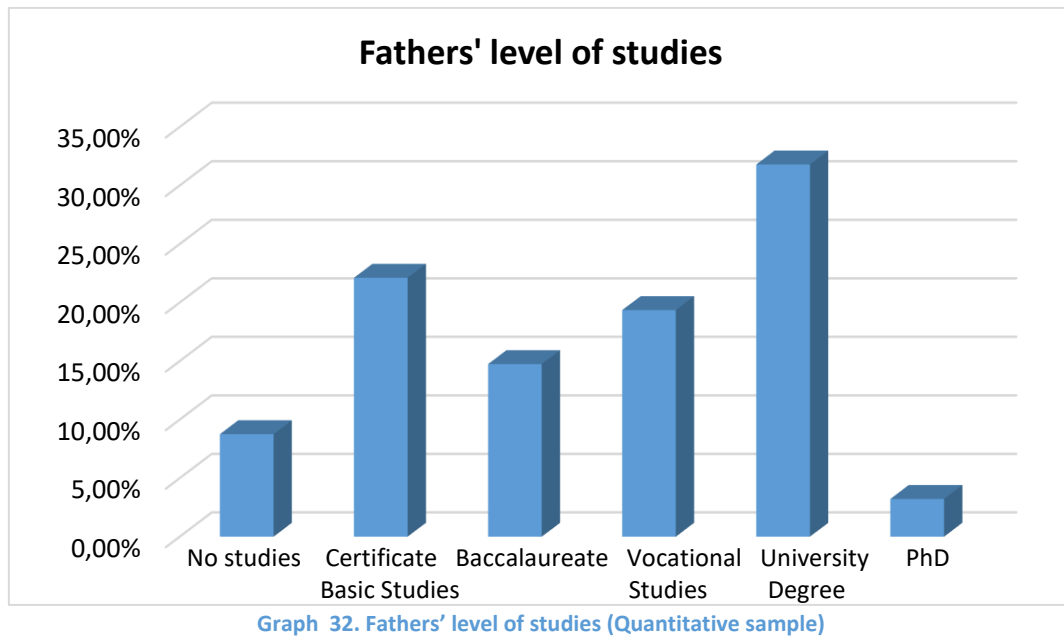
Table 28. Mothers' level of studies (Quantitative Sample)



Graph 31. Mothers' level of studies (Quantitative sample)

		Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Valid	No studies	19	8.5	8.8	8.8
	Certificate of Basic Studies	48	21.5	22.1	30.9
	Baccalaureate	32	14.3	14.7	45.6
	Vocational Training	42	18.8	19.4	65.0
	University studies	69	30.9	31.8	96.8
	Doctorate (PhD)	7	3.1	3.2	100.0
	Total	217	97.3	100.0	
Missing	System	6	2.7		
Total		223	100.0		

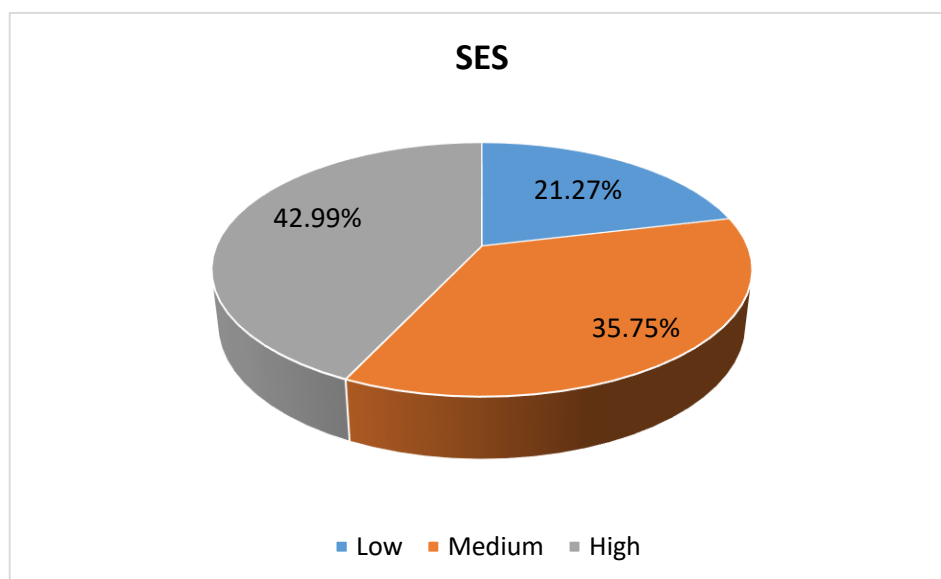
Table 29. Fathers' level of studies (Quantitative Sample)



Finally, when translating these levels into SES, most of the participants have a high socioeconomic status (43%), followed by those who have a medium social situation (35.7%). Only 21.1% of our respondents have a low SES (cf. Table 30; Graph 33). Parent's educational level has been taken as a proxy for SES. Thus, those parents who have no studies or a certificate of basic studies are included within the group of families with a low socioeconomic status, while those who are in possession of Baccalaureate or a certificate of Vocational Studies comprise the group of families in a medium social situation. Finally, parents holding a university degree or a PhD are considered to have a high socioeconomic status.

		Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Valid	Low	47	21.1	21.3	21.3
	Medium	79	35.4	35.7	57.0
	High	95	42.6	43.0	100.0
	Total	221	99.1	100.0	
Missing	System	2	.9		
Total		223	100.0		

Table 30. Socioeconomic status (SES) (Quantitative Sample)



Graph 33. Socioeconomic status (SES) (Quantitative sample)

To finish this section, it is necessary to highlight the fact that this sample was inevitably reduced when students were re-tested six months after the post-test phase was carried out. Thus, a total of 61 students took part in the delayed post-test phase: 49 students belonging to CLIL and 12 pupils following a traditional EFL programme.

4.3.3. Variables

The present study has considered a series of variables which help us achieve the objectives pursued.

Three different types of variables have been incorporated in the quantitative part of the study: dependent, independent and moderating.

The *dependent variables* include:

- The students' English language (FL) competence (grammar, vocabulary, receptive skills and oral productive skill)
- The students' Spanish language competence
- The students' level of mastery of the contents of the subject implemented through the FL (Science)

The *independent variable* corresponds to the CLIL programme implemented in the different types of schools (public and private).

Finally, the *moderating variables* are the following:

- Verbal intelligence
- Motivation
- Socioeconomic status
- Gender
- Type of school
- Exposure to English outside school
- Setting
- Teacher's linguistic competence
- Time of exposure to English in class

The qualitative part of the investigation incorporates a group of identification variables, elicited by a number of questions included in the first part of the questionnaires. Although the variables incorporated are analogous to facilitate the analyses, some of them are different from one questionnaire to the other. Below, a list of all the identification variables included in each questionnaire will be provided.

Students' Questionnaire:

- Age
- Gender
- Grade
- Nationality
- Level of studies
- Years studying in a bilingual programme
- Subjects taught in English
- Exposure to English outside school

Teachers' Questionnaire:

- Age
- Gender
- Nationality
- Type of teacher (FL, NLA...)
- Administrative situation

- Level in the FL
- Subjects taught in English
- Students' exposure to English inside the school
- Coordinator of the bilingual programme
- Overall teaching experience
- Bilingual teaching experience

Parents' Questionnaire:

- Grade of their children
- Age
- Gender
- Nationality
- Level of studies

4.3.4. Instruments

Different types of instruments have been used in the development of this Thesis; each one of them has been originally designed to collect the necessary data in three main stages. Below, a general description of all the instruments employed will be provided together with a justification of their adequacy.

- Phase 1: *Homogeneisation stage*: Initial Questionnaire, Verbal Intelligence and Motivation tests.
- Phase 2: *Qualitative stage*: Questionnaires (self-administered and group-administered) and protocols for semi-structured interviews.
- Phase 3: *Quantitative stage*: English language competence tests (grammar, vocabulary, receptive and productive skills); Spanish Language competence tests; and Science tests.

4.3.4.1. Phase 1: Homogeneisation stage

The first stage of our investigation was devised with the objective of selecting our final sample. Thus, a list of the bilingual public and private schools existing in the province, which possessed the characteristics we targeted in our investigation (two classes: one mainstream EFL and one CLIL), was requested to the Delegación de Educación and the provincial coordinator of bilingual programmes. After contacting the schools selected, the project was duly introduced, explaining its procedure and benefits, and schools signed their consent to participate in the investigation.

Different types of procedures were employed for the collection of data: a motivation test, a verbal intelligence test, and a set of background questions to elicit personal information including extramural exposure (cf. Appendix I). All of these were already-existing and validated instruments which belong to the language teaching and psychology research areas.

Before sitting the actual tests, pupils had to answer ten background questions, concretely, their name, school, year, group, age, gender, nationality and age and level of studies of parents. This biographical information was essential for both the characterisation of our sample and to be factored in as intervening variables.

The verbal intelligence test, which was part of the Evaluación Factorial de las Aptitudes Intelectuales (EFAI), designed by Santamaría et al. (2016), and the motivation tests (Pelechano, 1994) were applied in each of the schools over the course of an hour almost at the end of the academic year 2014-2015, after exactly ten years of CLIL implementation in our community.

Finally, an extramural exposure questionnaire was applied. It had been previously adapted by the Mon-CLIL group from Sundqvist and Sylvén's study (2014), and it asks students to reflect on the amount of contact they maintain with the English language outside the classroom, giving concrete examples. Hence, students were asked about the number of hours they devote to doing activities in English, reading books or magazines in the FL, listening to music or surfing the Internet, among many other activities.

After analysing these tests, statistically significant differences across groups were determined. Thus, those schools which showed homogeneity in terms of the variables included were selected as the final sample for our investigation.

4.3.4.2. Phase 2: Qualitative stage

In the second stage of our investigation, corresponding to the qualitative side of the project, two different instruments have been employed in order to guarantee methodological triangulation. Thus, three sets of questionnaires and protocols for semi-structured interviews were designed and validated. Together with these, some protocols for classroom observation were also created and validated, but they have not been incorporated in our current study.

Generally speaking, the three types of instruments are parallel, that is to say, they have been devised to collect the same kind of information, allowing the comparability of results and increasing the validity and the reliability of the data. As mentioned in the previous section, all of them include a series of identification variables for each cohort.

Focusing on the **questionnaires**, it is necessary to highlight that three different types (self-administered and group-administered questionnaires) were designed within the state-funded project Mon-CLIL (cf. Pérez Cañado, 2016d), one for each of the cohorts (students, teachers and parents). Before applying them in our study, the questionnaires underwent a double pilot process in which external experts gave some suggestions to improve the instruments. After introducing some modifications to improve their reliability, they were piloted with a representative sample of 263 participants similar to the target population of our study, and high Cronbach Alpha coefficients were obtained for each of the surveys: 0,940 for the student questionnaire; 0.931 for the teacher one, and 0.895 for the parent survey.

They were designed and validated in both Spanish and English and they included, following Patton (1987), *demographic or background questions* to collect biographical information from the respondents (which corresponds to the identification variables mentioned above) and *opinion or value questions* to discover their perspectives concerning CLIL. These questions are exemplified in the form of 50 items within the

student questionnaire, 61 items in the case of teachers' and 40 items within the parent questionnaire.

These questionnaires, categorised within what Brown (2001, p. 3) terms “survey tools”, incorporated fill-in and short answer questions in the first part of the questionnaire and, also, alternative answer and Likert-scale questions (from 1 to 4, in order to avoid the central tendency error). Hence, there is a predominance of closed-response items, favouring ease and speed of applicability. However, there are also some open-response questions at the end of each questionnaire for the cohort to be able to elaborate on those aspects they may find necessary. That way, the collection of objective and uniform information has been possible, and further details have also been obtained.

The principles of the plans for the promotion of plurilingualism existing in diverse monolingual contexts such as Andalusia, Extremadura or The Canary Islands, among others, have served as the basis for the questionnaire contents. Nevertheless, the items included are broad enough to be applicable to monolingual, bilingual or plurilingual settings (Pérez Cañado, 2016b, p. 83). Thus, each questionnaire can be divided into seven different blocks, each one of them related to important aspects of CLIL implementation (cf. Appendices II, III, IV):

- Block 1: Students' use, competence and development of English in class (14 items for the student and teacher cohort and 9 items for parents)
- Block 2: Methodology (4 items for students, 7 items for teachers and 3 items for parents).
- Block 3: Materials and resources (11 items for students, 12 items for teachers and 8 items for parents)
- Block 4: Evaluation (4 items for students and teachers, and 5 items for parents).
- Block 5: Teachers' use, competence and development of English in class / Teacher training (teachers) / Training and information (parents) (10 items for students, 15 items for teachers and 6 items for parents)
- Block 6: Mobility (3 items for students and parents, and 4 items for teachers).
- Block 7: Improvement and motivation towards English (students and parents) / Coordination and organisation (teachers) (4 items for students, 5 for teachers and 6 for parents).

Another survey tool has been employed with teachers and students in order to guarantee methodological triangulation: **interview protocols**, whose main objective is to obtain more detailed information about the curricular and organisational aspects of CLIL programmes for our SWOT analysis. These interview protocols, which also belong to the Mon-CLIL project (cf. Pérez Cañado, 2017), include the same topics of the questionnaires, thereby facilitating the comparability of the data. They also underwent a similar validation process and are also based on updated research on CLIL.

These semi-structured interviews incorporate unambiguous questions that try to reformulate the contents comprised in the questionnaires so that the data obtained can be complemented and completed. These protocols for teachers and students are divided into the following ten thematic blocks (cf. Appendices V and VI):

- Block 1: Use of the L2 in class
- Block 2: Development of the L2 in class: discursive functions
- Block 3: Development of competencies in class
- Block 4: Methodology and types of groupings
- Block 5: Materials and resources
- Block 6: Coordination and organisation
- Block 7: Evaluation
- Block 8: Teacher training and mobility
- Block 9: Motivation and workload
- Block 10: Overall assessment

The interviews lasted for about 30 minutes and they were carried out in groups. In the case of teachers, all of the educators involved in the bilingual programme were summoned and all their answers were recorded. The same happened with students, who were divided into smaller groups of 10 or 12 students. Their interviews were also recorded and data was coded, memoed and analysed using the Grounded Theory Approach, helping us find out more opinions about CLIL corresponding to its possible strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats.

It was our task to start the interview by contextualising the study, explaining the objective of the interviews and underlining that the confidentiality of the information was totally guaranteed. As they were semi-structured interviews, some guidelines were

necessary for both teachers and students in each block of questions, especially for Primary Education students, for whom some items could be more difficult to understand.

4.3.4.3. Phase 3: Quantitative stage

The third phase of our project, corresponding to the quantitative study of CLIL, aims at analysing students' progress in the L1, L2 and in content subjects when learning in a bilingual programme. Hence, it has evaluated the effects of CLIL on the English language competence (grammar, vocabulary, receptive skills and oral production), Spanish language competence and content knowledge of Natural Science subjects taught through the FL of Primary (6th grade) and Secondary (4th grade) Education students (Pérez Cañado, 2018a, p. 55). Moreover, it has also determined if these effects pervade six months after the programme is discontinued.

The English competence tests applied were originally devised for the project and incorporated three different batteries of six tests each (grammar, vocabulary, reading, writing, listening and speaking) which corresponded to the three different levels at which our study has been developed, namely, 6th grade of PE, 4th grade of CSE and 1st grade of Baccalaureate. As Madrid, Bueno and Ráez point out: “they are tailor-made tests, as opposed to standardised tests, such as those provided by institutions such as the British Council and Cambridge examinations” (2021, p. 76) (cf. Appendix VII).

Once the tests had been designed, following the principles established in the CEFR, the National Decrees, and the Regional Orders which determine the official curriculum for these stages, external experts critically assessed their length, adequacy, difficulty, variety of testing facets, types of inputs, clarity of rubrics and layout (Madrid, Bueno and Ráez, 2021, p. 72), analysing their suitability for each level. After introducing some improvements taking into account the experts' recommendations, the tests were administered to a representative sample of students from the same levels and of similar characteristics as our target participants in order to determine the internal consistency of their parts, their reliability, and their level of difficulty. Some other readjustments were made after this pilot phase so that the instruments finally meet the main testing requirements included in the specialised literature (content, construct, face and ecological validity, reliability and practicality). To this end, the following statistical operations were developed:

- The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient (or Pearson's r) was calculated to determine the internal consistency of each test, by correlating each of their main parts.
- The Kuder-Richardson reliability coefficient (KR 21), to calculate the reliability of the tests.
- The index of difficulty or facility value, and the discrimination index of the items included in the tests, to evaluate how difficult or easy they have been.

In this respect, Madrid, Bueno and Ráez (2021, p. 81, 82) provide an in-depth explanation of the procedures to validate the tests. Hence, they underscore the considerable internal consistency of results shown by the tests, something which was proved by the Cronbach alpha obtained. Moreover, the tests guaranteed content and construct validity, as they were designed to measure exactly what they were intended to measure in terms of content and linguistic and communicative constructs.

Items in the tests strived for authenticity, although even more authentic items were included in Secondary Education tests, since most of the activities carried out in Secondary Education were more connected to real-life situations. Furthermore, tests aimed to be practical and easy to implement, as they were designed to be completed in approximately one hour. In the same line, a high discrimination potential and an adequate item difficulty were proved to exist in the tests (Madrid, Bueno and Ráez, 2021, p. 84).

Apart from that, several rubrics were created to facilitate marking. The first one includes the FL skills test assessment criteria (cf. Appendix VIII), while two others were designed for the correction of the participants' oral production (Pérez Cañado and Lancaster, 2017). These rubrics have allowed us to identify a wide variety of sub-skills, increasing reliability. Moreover, the already existing scales used by the CEFR, Cambridge English Language Assessment and Trinity College London examination resources have also been taken into account and have served as the basis for the creation of this new rubric.

Five different assessment criteria have been considered for each one of the skills examined: grammatical range and accuracy, lexical range and accuracy, fluency and interaction, pronunciation, stress and intonation, and task fulfillment/ response suitability/ communicative effectiveness (cf. Appendices IX and X).

It is worth mentioning here that students' written production was also assessed in these tests, but it has not been possible to analyse their productions for the present study. This is one of the aspects that must be evaluated in future research.

4.3.5. Data collection and statistical methodology

Although it is possible to claim that the initial phase of the investigation started when contacting the educational authorities and schools in order to introduce our study and to ask for their consent, the true initial stage was set in motion approximately six months later, when we accessed the schools' facilities and were in contact with all the stakeholders.

As mentioned in section 4.3.2.1., a total of 372 participants were involved in this initial stage, concerning, as well, the qualitative part of the project. Three groups of Primary Education students were given the questionnaires with the same type of instructions. Two of these groups belonged to the private centres existing in the province (*Altocastillo* and *Guadalimar*), while the other group was made up of pupils belonging to the rural public school *Virgen de la Villa*, in Martos, a town 23 kilometres from the capital. As for Secondary students, two urban centres (*I.E.S. Auringis* and *I.E.S. Santa Catalina de Alejandría*, both in Jaén) and two rural schools (*I.E.S. Accabe* in Bedmar; and *I.E.S. Sierra Sur* in Valdepeñas) took part in the investigation. All public schools had been implementing CLIL with some of their students, while other classes received a traditional EFL teaching. However, the private centres were completely bilingual, so all students polled in these schools were being taught by means of CLIL.

Two investigators visited the schools on the day when the collection of data would take place in order to supervise everything was carried out as originally planned. All the students were told to complete the questionnaire in a maximum of 30 minutes. Some guidelines were also given to the students in each one of the sections included in the survey and they were reminded to ask any doubt to the investigators present there. The same happened with teachers' questionnaires, which were answered in the school on the same day as student ones.

As can be inferred from the information above, in all schools, the collection of qualitative data was carried out in a single day, except for the parents' questionnaire,

which was handed out to tutors in order to be returned to the school within a week. Hence, a longer period of time involving follow-up emails and phone calls was necessary to retrieve the parents' questionnaires. In the end, 48 informants were polled.

In order to complement the aforementioned questionnaires, two semi-structured interview protocols were used as the second qualitative tool. The teachers' and the students' interviews were all carried out face-to-face in focus groups. Subgroups of 10-12 students were formed for each CLIL class group, and they were taken in turns to an adjacent room. As an introduction, the objectives of the project were briefly explained and some instructions about participation and turn-taking were also given. Then, we started to ask the questions included in the protocol section by section and we recorded the answers in the form of personal notes and digital recordings. All the data collected was then analysed using Grounded Theory. As a conclusion for this qualitative data collection process, it is necessary to highlight that we employed a reliable set of instruments which allowed us to obtain solid information on stakeholder perspectives, meeting, thus, one of our most important objectives (cf. Section 4.2).

Turning now to the quantitative side of the project, the CLIL and non-CLIL groups of both Primary and Secondary schools sat the English language test devised for the analysis of pupils' competence in the L2. The test, which incorporated items related to use of English, vocabulary, listening, reading and writing, was taken in two different days. On the one hand, the written parts were tested in the students' usual classrooms or in the school's theatre (*I.E.S. Santa Catalina de Alejandría*). Their teachers were present during the realisation of the exam, but they did not obstruct its correct fulfillment in any of the groups. Some instructions were given before starting the test and questions were also solved. Students were given 45 minutes to complete the exam. When time was over, all the tests were collected for their subsequent marking and analysis.

On the other hand, one third of the pupils were selected to participate in the speaking part approximately two weeks later. The pupils, in pairs, were asked to answer different conversational tasks apart from answering some individual questions. Two researchers were present in this part of the test, recording the students' performance for further analysis and outlining the different tasks students were supposed to complete.

Since our study has not only focused on the effects of CLIL in the L2, information about students' performance in the L1 and in the content subject studied through English

was also needed. As Paran (2013, p. 323) claims: “researchers focus almost exclusively on a language, with content knowledge rarely examined or measured”. Moreover, Navarro Pablo and López Gándara (2020, p. 21) remind us about the fact that “the impact of CLIL on learners’ L1 development has been systematically neglected in the literature” (Dalton-Puffer, 2011; Lasagabaster, 2017; Lasagabaster and Sierra, 2010; Merino and Lasagabaster, 2015 as cited in Navarro Pablo and López Gándara, 2020), something which was totally understandable due to the fact that CLIL is a methodology mainly aimed at improving students’ FL competence.

This is exactly the starting point of our next step. Thus, CLIL and non-CLIL students’ end-of-the-year results in the Spanish Language and Literature subject and in the subject of Natural Sciences were collected and compared. These outcomes included a summative assessment marked on a scale of 0-10, being 5 the minimum mark to pass. All these data were analysed and processed by means of the statistical software SPSS Version 23.0. Both central tendency (mean) and dispersion measure (standard deviation) were calculated. T-tests and ANOVA tests were also employed to calculate the possible statistically significant differences between CLIL and non-CLIL groups within and across-cohorts.

Six months later, we returned to the schools to carry out the so called “follow-up” phase. At that moment, students who belonged to the 4th grade of Compulsory Secondary Education were then almost finishing the first term of the 1st grade of Baccalaureate. Inevitably, some of the students who had participated in the project had left the school or had moved to different classes. However, the majority of them were ready to continue the study. Exactly the same procedures and the same instruments were employed as in the post-test phase, so, on this occasion, the remaining students re-took the same tests in an identical manner.

Regarding statistical methodology, it has already been mentioned that the data obtained from all the tests and the questionnaires has been analysed with the aid of the SPSS programme 23.0 version. For metaconcern 1 (objective 1), both central tendency (mean, median and mode) and dispersion measures (range, low-high, standard deviation) have been calculated. More concretely, in order to determine the existence of any statistically significant differences within and across groups in terms of the different identification variables considered (metaconcern 1- objectives 2, 3, 4, 5), assessment of normality and homoscedasticity has been carried out via the Kolmogorov-Smirnov and

Bartlett tests, respectively. Subsequently, the ANOVA, T-test, Mann-Whitney U test and Tukey's HSD or the Bonferroni post hoc test have been employed. Furthermore, successive discriminant analyses have been carried out to establish which variable(s) are truly responsible for the differences detected. Finally, when dealing with stakeholder perspectives, both qualitative and quantitative analysis techniques have been implemented, as Grounded Theory Analysis (Glaser and Strauss, 1967) has been employed to analyse and decode the interview protocols. In turn, in the quantitative part of our investigation (metaconcerns 2, 3 and 4), percentages, raw data and graphical displays have been incorporated to illustrate the results obtained.

CHAPTER V:

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The following chapter presents the results obtained after analysing statistically the data collected on the basis of the research design described in the previous chapter. Thus, the research questions formulated at the beginning of the project (cf. Section 4.2.) have been addressed. Both qualitative and quantitative outcomes will be decoded and discussed, making also reference to the specialised literature reviewed in chapters two and three. The description of our results has been organised in different sections and subsections congruent with the metaconcerns and the research questions mentioned above.

5.1. Qualitative results

5.1.1. Introduction

In the following subsections, a detailed explanation of the results obtained in the qualitative phase of our study will be provided in order to address our first metaconcern, expressed in research questions RQ1, RQ2, RQ3, RQ4 and RQ5 (cf. Section 4.2.). After analysing the information collected on the seven thematic blocks included in each of the questionnaires and taking into account the various identification variables assigned to each stakeholder, the main perceptions that students, teachers and parents have on CLIL will be presented and discussed, making reference to the previously mentioned statistical methodology and to the specialised literature (cf. Chapter II). To begin with, results having to do with the student cohort will be laid out, followed by teachers' and parents'. All the outcomes will be analysed from a global and a specific point of view. To identify any statistically significant difference between cohorts, a comparison will also be made among them on all the questionnaire items. These findings will be then complemented with the data obtained from the face-to-face interviews maintained with both teachers and students, which will also help us support or refute questionnaire outcomes.

It is important to highlight that both questionnaires and interviews are going to be canvassed together as they have been organised into different thematic blocks which guarantee the comparability of the instruments. Thus, the triangulation-based analysis of the stakeholders' opinions on the implementation of the bilingual programme is made possible. Since some authors had disputed the validity of questionnaires considering them as a non-representative statistical tool (Heras and Lasagabaster, 2015), interviews will also be considered here, in order to corroborate the questionnaires' findings.

5.1.2. Questionnaires and interviews

5.1.2.1. Students

We will start our analysis with the student cohort because students clearly outnumber the sample size of teachers and parents.

5.1.2.1.1. Global results

In order to fully understand the global results obtained for students, they will be reported on according to the different thematic blocks included in the questionnaires and interviews. Thus, we will begin by determining the trends pertinent to *students' use, competence and development of English in class*. At first sight, most of the students agree that their English level has increased due to their participation in a bilingual programme (item 2, 3.34/4), something that is not so clear when speaking about the improvement of Spanish language (item 4, 2.45/4). Moreover, the majority of pupils reveal that their knowledge of content subjects taught in English has also increased, together with their improvement in understanding how language works and how languages are interconnected (items 5 and 6). These outcomes coincide with the ones obtained in previous studies carried out by Lorenzo et al. (2009) and Madrid and Hughes (2011), who claimed that L2 skills improved as a result of studying in a bilingual programme.

However, a high percentage of students consider that there should not be an increase in the amount of English used in class (item 11, 2.34/4), coinciding with Lancaster (2016) and Oxbrow (2020). The latter attributed this negativity to limits in students' confidence when using English (p. 107). Mixed opinions appear as well when

dealing with the degree of self-confidence and participation inside the bilingual class (items 8, 9), with the means obtained for these items scoring below 3 (2.63 and 2.84/4, respectively). Thus, around 35% of pupils feel they are not confident enough in the bilingual class and they do not participate actively in the lessons, something that other important scholars in the Spanish scenario had already documented (Cabezas Cabello, 2010; Lasagabaster, 2009; Navarro Pablo and García Jiménez, 2018; Oxbrow, 2018; Rubio Mostacero, 2009; Pascual Bajo, 2018) (cf. Table 31; Graph 34).

Turning to the interviews, students corroborate most of the aforementioned findings. In this respect, it is important to mention that all participants agree that their teachers' English level is adequate to take part in the bilingual programme and they mostly consider their own level in the FL has increased due to their participation in a CLIL programme. However, there are some discrepancies regarding the amount of English used in class, as it fluctuates from 25% to 75% depending on the centre. As for content learning, most of the students consider that it is not much more difficult to learn content subjects in English as they are progressively getting used to it:

“No es más difícil aprender los contenidos en inglés. Además, los profesores se esfuerzan para que entendamos los contenidos correctamente”.

Mirroring the questionnaires' results, different perceptions were collected when dealing with the degree of participation in class.

“Participar nos cuesta más porque estamos utilizando un idioma que no es el nuestro, pero se intenta”.

“La verdad es que no participamos mucho, y si lo hacemos, es en español”.

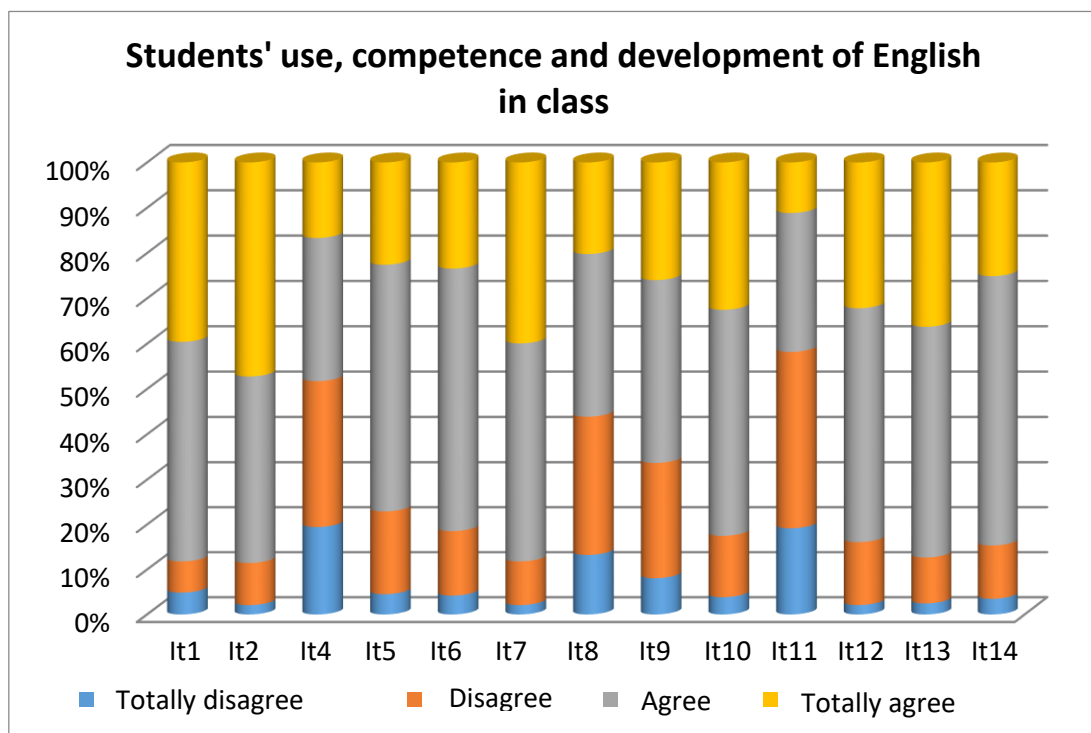
On the contrary, there is a general agreement that English is used to give instructions, introduce the topic, give explanations, do activities and correct them, organise the class and ask questions in class. Apart from that, most of the students claim that translation is a common technique in the classroom and they affirm that when there is a doubt about the contents or they have to revise the topic, Spanish language is normally used.

“El inglés se utiliza para todo, pero las dudas se resuelven en español”.

“A la hora de repasar, a veces utilizamos el español”.

Items	Mean	Standard Deviation
It 1	3.23	.781
It 2	3.34	.733
It 4	2.45	.987
It 5	2.95	.768
It 6	3.01	.740
It 7	3.26	.717
It 8	2.63	.951
It 9	2.84	.904
It 10	3.11	.778
It 11	2.34	.913
It 12	3.14	.726
It 13	3.21	.722
It 14	3.06	.712

Table 31. Students' use, competence and development of English in class



Graph 34. Students' use, competence and development of English in class (Students)

As for the results obtained in the block entitled *methodology*, all of them seem to be generally positive. Thus, we can infer that students are getting used to CLIL teaching, in which they play the essential role. Regarding collaborative learning, most of the pupils agree that tasks are frequently developed in class (item 15, 3.44/4), whereas work based on projects is slightly less popular among them (item 16, 3.14/4). A high percentage of

students states the preference given to vocabulary in the CLIL classroom (item 17, 3.32/4). However, some kind of disagreement appears when dealing with group-work (item 18, 2.85/4), coinciding with the results obtained by Pascual Bajo (2018) (cf. Table 32; Graph 35).

Similar results were obtained in this respect during the face-to-face interviews, in which methodological issues were dealt with in two different sections. Thus, students were asked about aspects related to the development of competences inside the classroom and about the different types of groupings employed. Most of the students consider vocabulary is given a lot of importance in the CLIL class and task-based learning is generally acknowledged among pupils.

“Aprendemos mucho vocabulario específico de cada asignatura”.

Mixed opinions appear when dealing with projects, thereby coinciding with the results obtained from the questionnaires. Moreover, according to pupils, cooperative learning is not normally employed, as most of the tasks are developed individually. Although group-work and pair-work seem to be employed for isolated tasks, students usually work autonomously.

The four skills are clearly developed in class (reading, writing, listening and speaking), giving priority to those activities which entail thinking and understanding, instead of simply memorising. Language aspects are sometimes taught in non-linguistic subjects, increasing students' metalinguistic awareness. Finally, it is important to highlight that students' critical thinking is also fostered in the CLIL class and socioeconomic aspects are also sometimes dealt with.

“En historia, por ejemplo, sí se trabaja la conciencia metalingüística. El otro día repasamos el uso de los comparativos”.

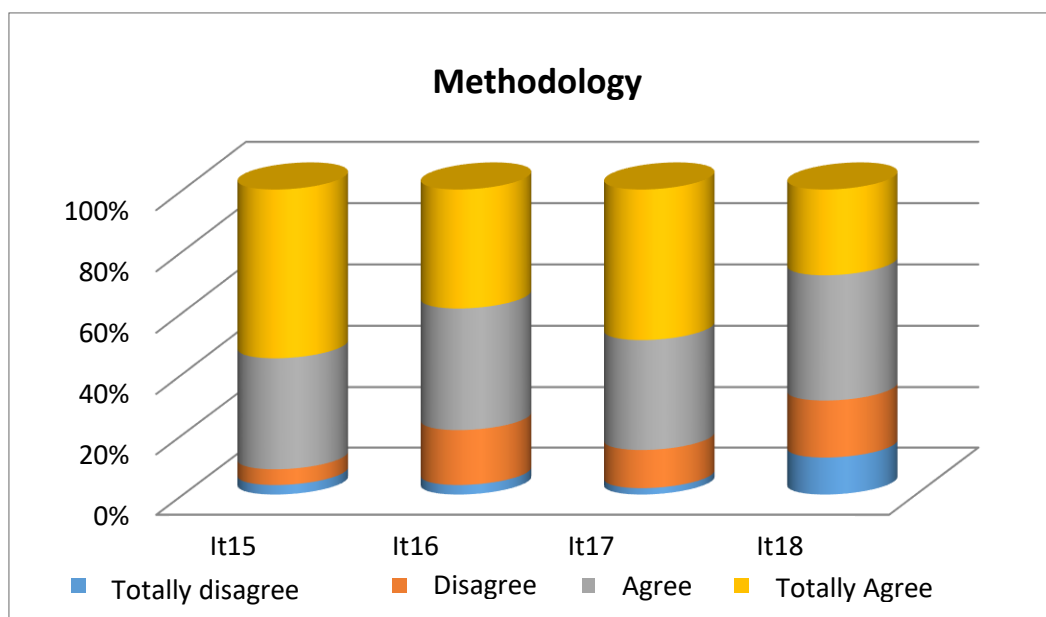
“En clase se trabajan todas las destrezas y se fomenta la capacidad crítica, por ejemplo, haciendo debates”.

“Sobre todo hay preguntas abiertas que implican comprender y analizar, pero depende de la asignatura; también hay preguntas de respuesta única”.

Items	Mean	Standard Deviation
It 15	3.44	.735
It 16	3.14	.823

It 17	3.32	.774
It 18	2.85	.968

Table 32. Methodology (Students)



Graph 35. Methodology (Students)

Congruent with the previous block, the general view on *materials, resources and ICTs* also reveals encouraging results, although more negative views on some of the items have also been detected. On the one hand, more than a half of the students agree that materials are authentic (item 19, 2.79/4) and adapted (item 20, 2.98/4). However, mixed opinions appear when asking if the materials are interesting and innovative (item 21, 2.63/4). Similar opinions have been obtained about the fact that CLIL materials foster communication in the foreign language within the classroom (item 23, 2.95/4) and cater to diversity (item 24, 2.92/4).

On the other hand, a more negative outlook is perceived on aspects related to the employment of ICTs in the classroom. Although most of the students acknowledge that materials based on software and online references are employed during the lessons (items 25 and 26), the use of blogs, wikis and webquests (item 27, 2.37/4) does not appear to be very popular as it is not the use of interactive whiteboards (item 28, 2.82/4). As many students recognised during the interviews:

“No se utilizan blogs, ni wikis, ni webquests. Además en algunas clases ni siquiera hay pizarra digital”.

“Se utilizan pocos recursos en la web. A veces vemos algún video relacionado con el tema que estamos dando en la asignatura”.

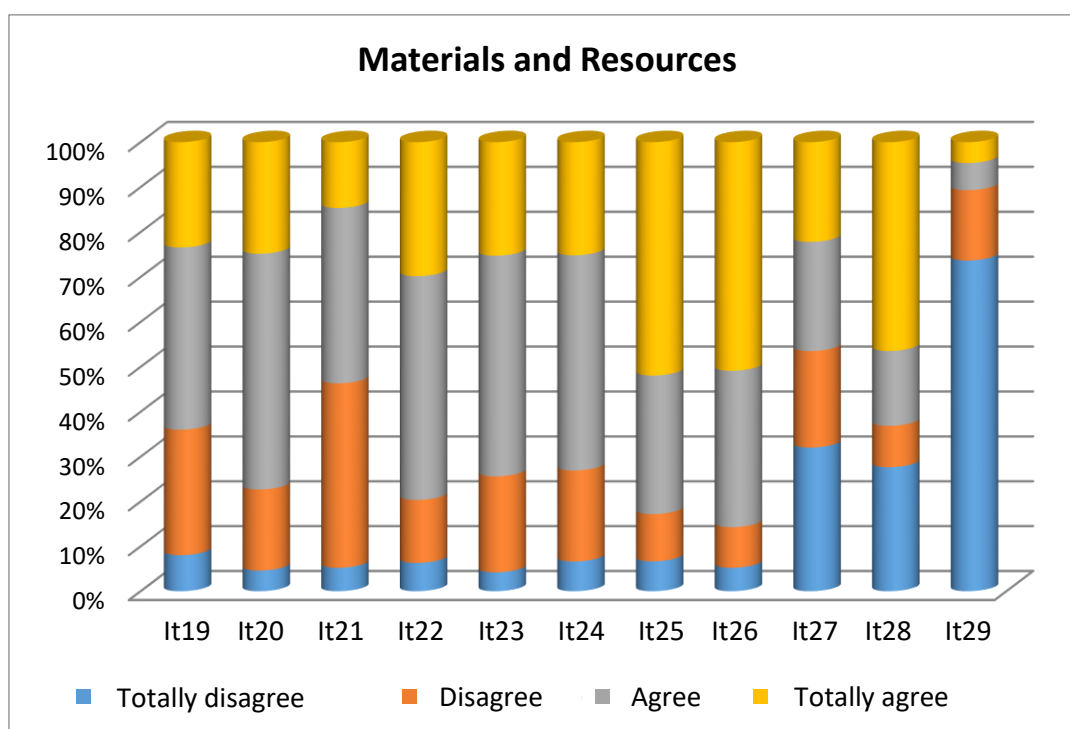
In the same way, computer-mediated communication does not seem to be incorporated (item 29), as the lowest mean is obtained for this item (1.42/4). These outcomes are in agreement with the ones obtained by Ruiz Gómez (2015), Pérez Cañado (2016d) and Pascual Bajo (2018), who already mentioned the lack of CLIL resources available.

“No existen convenios con otros colegios para establecer ninguna comunicación (e-Twinning)”.

Finally, it is worth also mentioning that, in line with previous studies (Cabezas Cabello, 2010; Lorenzo, Casal and Moore, 2009; Sánchez Torres, 2014; and Pascual Bajo, 2018), satisfactory results have also been documented regarding teacher collaboration in the preparation of CLIL materials (item 22, 3.03/4) (cf. Table 33; Graph 36).

Items	Mean	Standard Deviation
It 19	2.79	.892
It 20	2.98	.784
It 21	2.63	.795
It 22	3.03	.832
It 23	2.95	.797
It 24	2.92	.846
It 25	3.28	.903
It 26	3.31	.844
It 27	2.37	1.149
It 28	2.82	1.279
It 29	1.42	.802

Table 33. Materials and resources (Students)



Graph 36. Materials and resources (Students)

The results obtained from the block on *evaluation* are, once again, essentially positive. As can be seen in the graph below, most of the students polled coincide in the fact that all contents taught in the CLIL programme are assessed (item 30, 3.11/4). Moreover, from their responses, we can infer that priority is generally given to content over linguistic competence (item 31, 2.96/4) and continuous evaluation is usually applied (item 33, 2.88/4). As for oral testing, different opinions have been detected, although almost 60% of the pupils agree that it is normally undertaken (item 32, 2.82/4) (cf. Table 34; Graph 37). The oral interviews with the students also allow us to corroborate these findings.

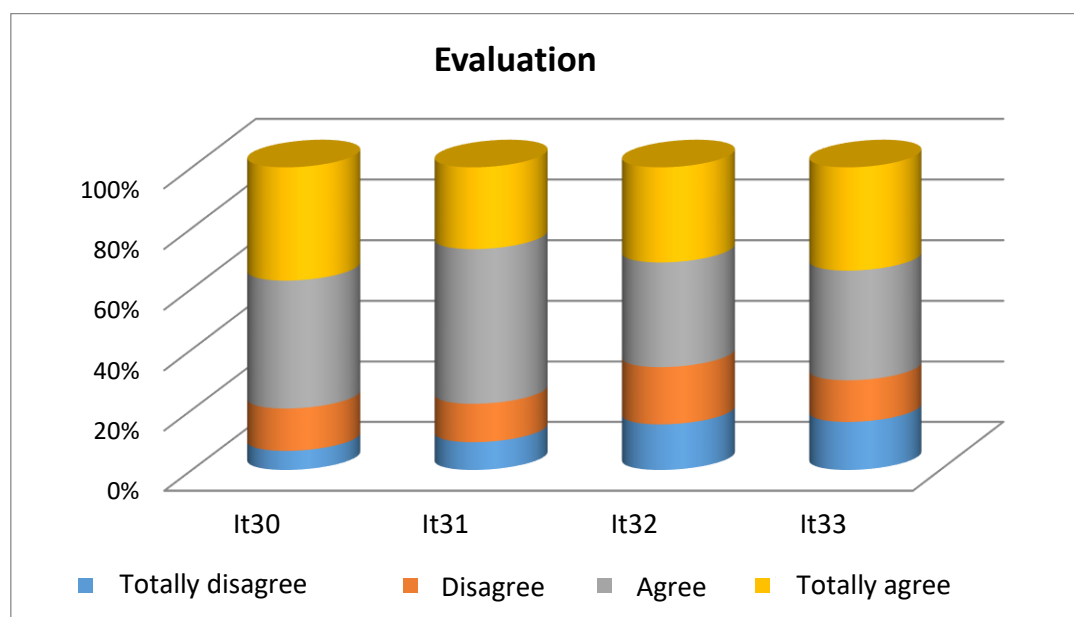
“Se da más importancia al contenido sobre la lengua, casi siempre centrándonos en los aspectos escritos”.

“Dependiendo de la asignatura, el profesor da más importancia a los aspectos orales o escritos. Por ejemplo, en música tienen más importancia los aspectos orales, mientras que en asignaturas como biología o tecnología, son más importantes los aspectos escritos”.

Finally, it is worth mentioning that in the interviews, students were asked about the use of the self-evaluation in class. Most of them claimed that it is not normally employed in the non-linguistic subjects, but it is commonly developed in the English class at the end of each unit.

Items	Mean	Standard Deviation
It 30	3.11	.871
It 31	2.96	.876
It 32	2.82	1.040
It 33	2.88	1.052

Table 34. Evaluation (Students)

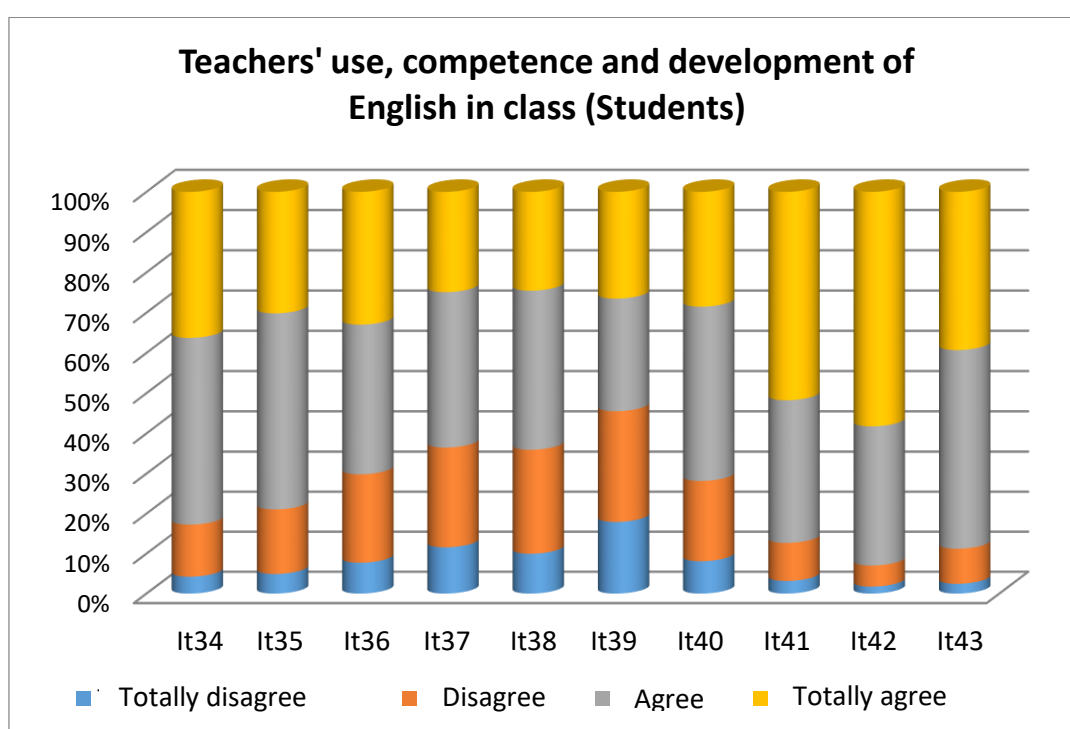


Graph 37. Evaluation (Students)

Results for *teachers' use, competence and development of English in class* are mainly positive, as most of the students agree with the 10 items included in this block. As a consequence, we can infer that they are quite satisfied with their teachers, although some items present some negativity. Coinciding with Pascual Bajo (2018), motivation is the principal weak point for pupils. As can be clearly seen below, the lowest means, and as a result, the most negative results are detected when dealing with the degree of motivation and encouragement among students, with language assistants being the most criticised on this score (items 37, 38 and 39). In turn, mixed results appear when enquiring into the collaboration between students and language assistants (item 40, 2.92/4), and about the way language assistants actually teach (item 36, 2.95/4). Nevertheless, most of the students affirm that language and content teachers have an adequate level in all respects, something that was subsequently corroborated in the interviews. (items 34, 35, 41, 42, 43) (cf. Table 35; Graph 38).

Items	Mean	Standard Deviation
It 34	3.15	.801
It 35	3.04	.813
It 36	2.95	.928
It 37	2.77	.954
It 38	2.79	.928
It 39	2.63	1.061
It 40	2.92	.898
It 41	3.36	.783
It 42	3.49	.680
It 43	3.26	.718

Table 35. Teachers' use, competence and development of English in class (Students)



Graph 38. Teachers' use, competence and development of English in class (Students)

The block on *mobility* presents one of the most negative results within the student cohort, with all the means obtained scoring lower than 3. Thus, around 80% of the students claim that they have not participated in exchange programmes (item 44, 1.77/4), coinciding with the findings by Gálvez Gómez (2013), Lancaster (2016) and Pascual Bajo (2018). Moreover, heterogeneous results appear when asked if they feel encouraged by families and/or teachers to participate in such initiatives. In this case, more than 40% of the pupils surveyed do not feel enough support by educators and relatives to take part in these kinds of programmes (items 45, 2.56/4 and 46, 2.55/4). As a consequence, increased

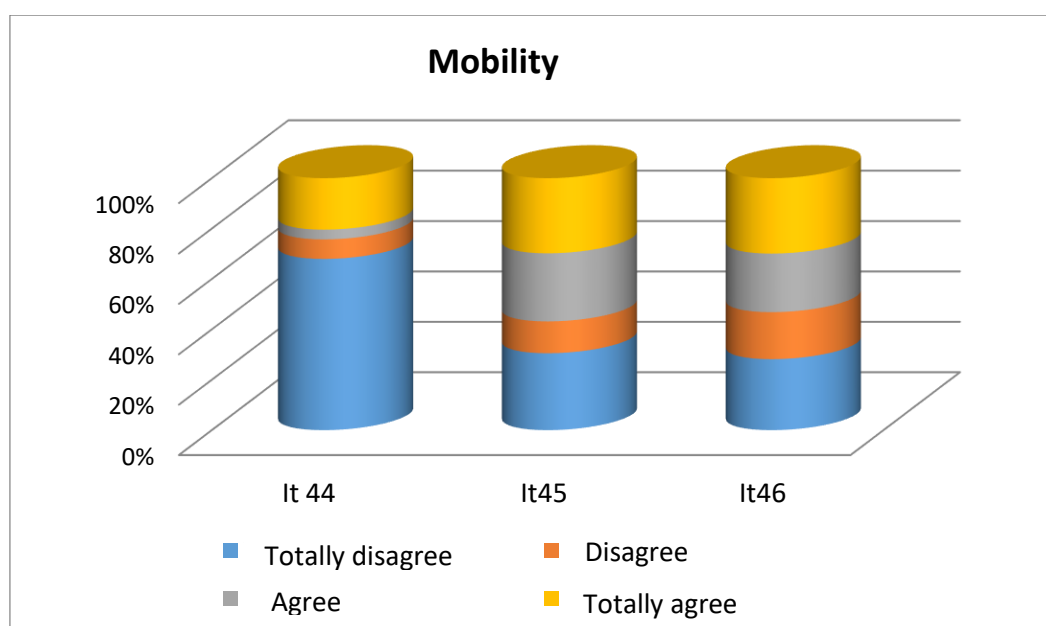
measures must be put into practice if we want these results to change (cf. Table 36; Graph 39).

Mirroring these outcomes, during the interviews, most of the students claimed that they had not participated in any exchange programme and their families do not encourage them to do it mainly because of the lack of information. Those who had done so affirmed that this practice should be wide spread because they have found it totally advantageous.

“El año pasado fuimos de intercambio. Fue una experiencia muy beneficiosa en todos los aspectos”.

Items	Mean	Standard Deviation
It 44	1.77	1.219
It 45	2.56	1.208
It 46	2.55	1.189

Table 36. Mobility (Students)



Graph 39. Mobility (Students)

The final block, entitled *improvement and motivation towards learning English*, also presents very positive results, thereby attesting to the success of CLIL. Here, most students agree that it is worth taking part in a bilingual programme in spite of the increased workload (item 47, 3.24/4) and they claim that their English learning has improved as a consequence of belonging to it (item 48, 3.24/4). Furthermore, motivation

towards learning a foreign language has enhanced (item 49, 2.97/4), a result which accords with Rubio Mostacero's (2009), Cabezas Cabello's (2010) and Pascual Bajo's (2018). Lastly, a high mean is also obtained when asked if they have an adequate access to English materials outside school (item 50, 3.28/4) (cf. Table 37; Graph 40). In the same vein, students' responses in the interviews continue to be extremely positive.

“Aunque participar en un programa bilingüe ha supuesto una mayor carga de trabajo, sí ha merecido la pena”.

“La verdad es que valoramos el programa bilingüe de manera positive, aunque hay aspectos a mejorar como la continuidad de las asignaturas, ya que van cambiando cada año”.

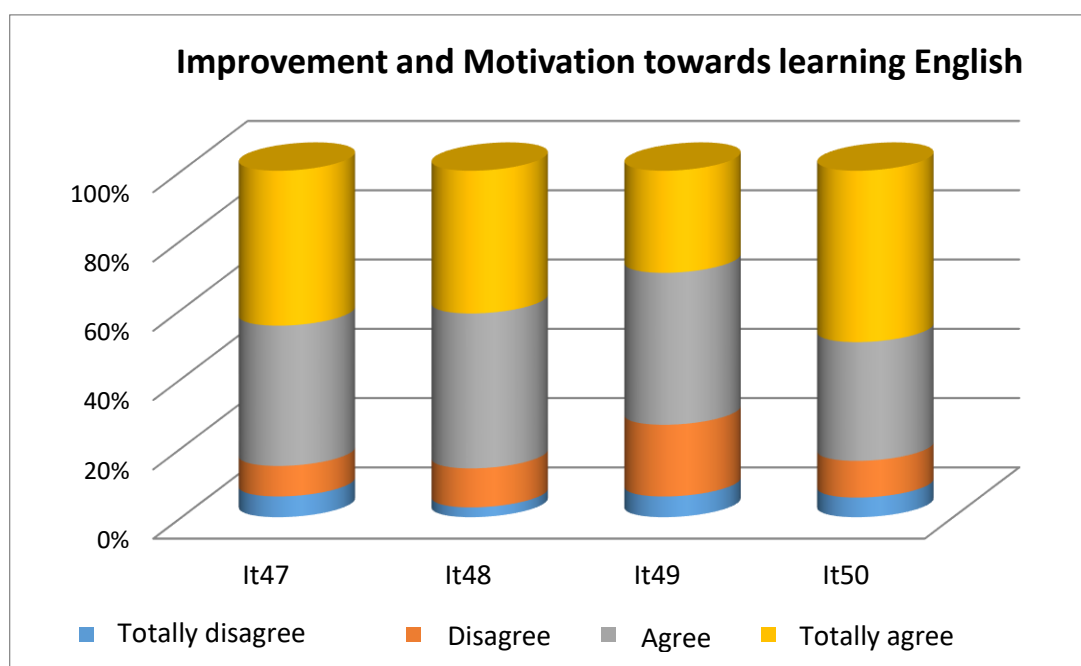
“No ha supuesto un esfuerzo muy alto pertenecer al programa bilingüe y estudiar las asignaturas en inglés, por lo que nuestra motivación también ha sido más alta”.

“Habría que mejorar ciertos aspectos como el uso de las TICs y la puesta en marcha de iniciativas como e-Twinning e intercambios. Pero en general, es muy beneficioso participar en un programa bilingüe”.

“Creo que las principales ventajas de pertenecer a un programa bilingüe están relacionadas con el aprendizaje de vocabulario y la posibilidad de expresarse en un idioma extranjero, lo cual mejora nuestras oportunidades de futuro”.

Items	Mean	Standard Deviation
It 47	3.24	.848
It 48	3.24	.762
It 49	2.97	.861
It 50	3.28	.868

Table 37. Improvement and motivation towards learning English



Graph 40. Improvement and motivation towards learning English (Students)

5.1.2.1.2. Specific results

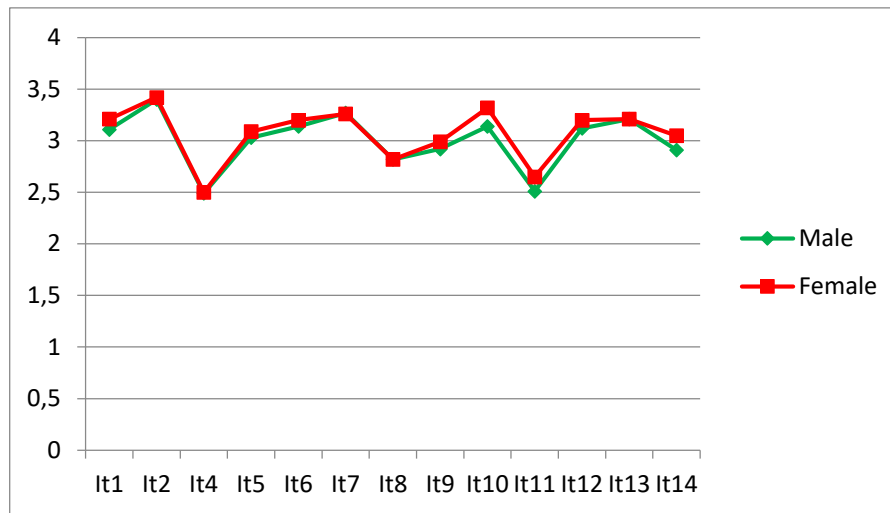
With a view to answering **RQ4**, students' perspectives on CLIL have been compared in terms of the identification variables outlined in the section 4.3.3. As a result, many statistically significant differences have been detected within this initial cohort. Variables such as *gender*, *grade*, *type of school*, *location*, *number of subjects studied in English* and *years belonging to a bilingual section* are worthy of mention because they have yielded substantial significant differences.

Regarding *gender*, eleven items of the questionnaire present statistically significant differences, evincing that female participants generally seem to be more optimistic about the bilingual programme. Thus, in the first block of the questionnaire, dealing with *students' use, competence and development of English in class*, girls consider that their level of understanding about how Spanish and English are interconnected (item 7, 3.35/4) is higher. In the same way, they feel they have a more suitable knowledge about socioeconomic aspects (item 14, 3.18/4) and they affirm key competences are developed in class to a greater extent than boys do (item 1, 3.34/4). As for *materials and resources*, female respondents harbour a more positive outlook in the sense that they claim to use more authentic materials (item 19, 2.92/4), which are also

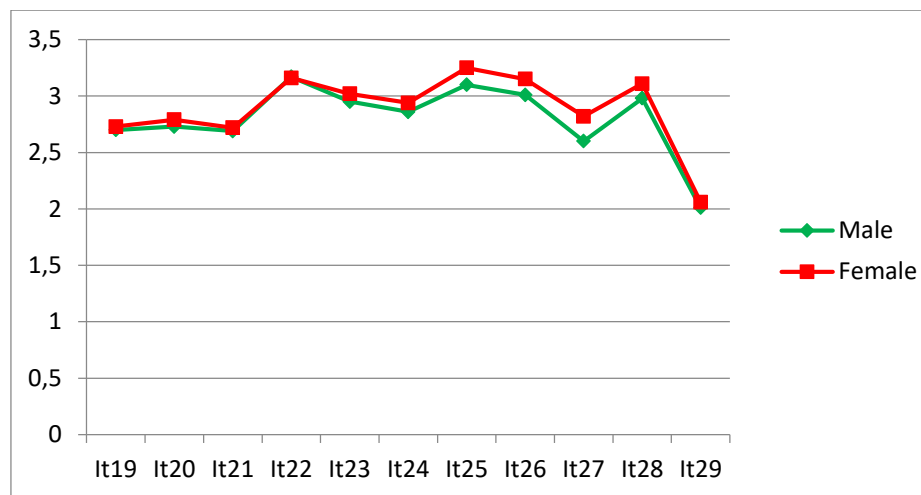
said to foster real communication in the classroom (item 23, 3.08/4). Moreover, female students say they use blogs, wikis and ICTs more than male pupils (items 25, 3.50/4 and 26, 3.46/4), a fact that differs from the results obtained concerning the use of online communication in class (e-Twinning), for which boys maintain a more positive attitude (item 29, 1.51/4), although still negative generally speaking. When asked about *teachers' use, competence and development of English in class*, girls seem to collaborate more actively with linguistic assistants than boys (item 40, 3.04/4). Finally, female students have a better opinion on the CLIL programme on the whole, saying that it is worth participating in a bilingual section regardless of the increased workload it implies (item 47, 3.37/4) (cf. Table 38).

Items	Mean		Standard deviation		p value
	Male	Female	Male	Female	
It 1	3.13	3.34	.738	.814	.002
It 7	3.18	3.35	.727	.696	.038
It 14	2.96	3.18	.760	.635	.012
It 19	2.69	2.92	.914	.853	.022
It 23	2.84	3.08	.839	.729	.014
It 24	2.78	3.07	.813	.860	.003
It 25	3.09	3.50	1.029	.670	.001
It 26	3.19	3.46	.923	.721	.019
It 29	1.51	1.31	.886	.680	.041
It 40	2.81	3.04	.930	.848	.044
It 47	3.12	3.37	.933	.722	.037

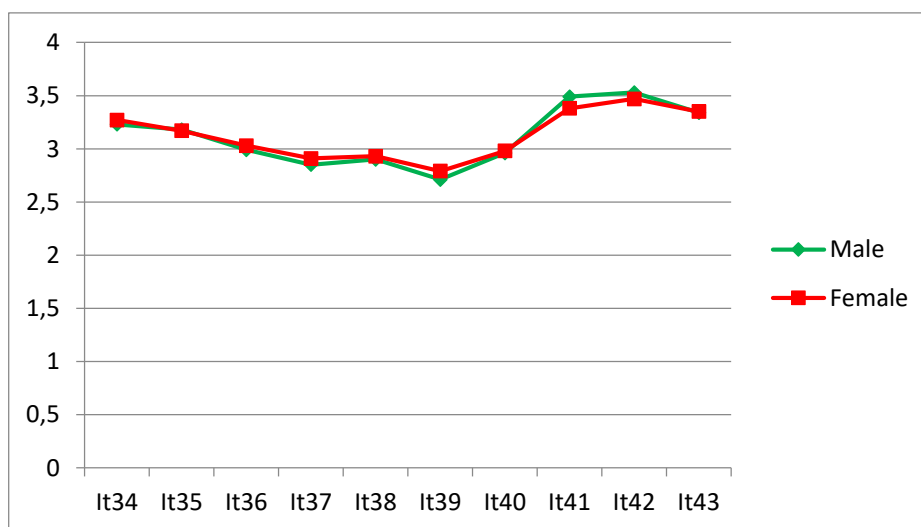
Table 38. Statistically significant differences in terms of gender (Students)



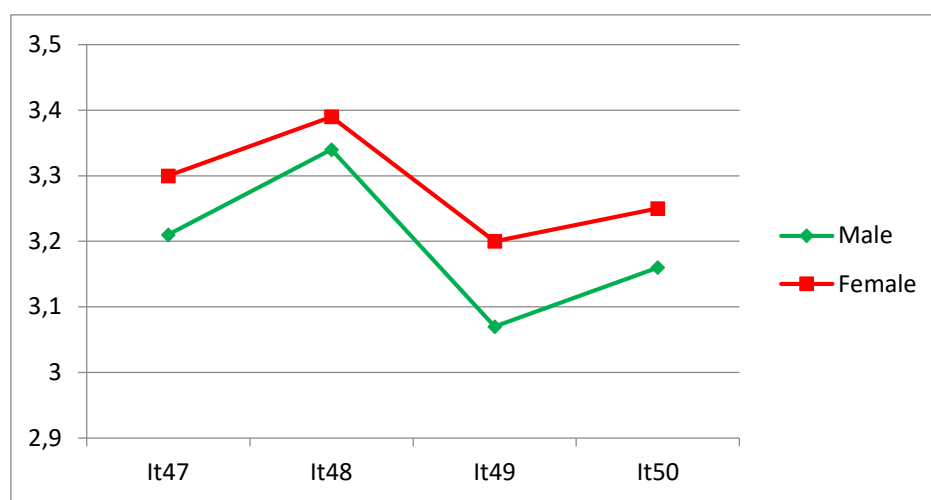
Graph 41. Stakeholder perspectives: Within-cohort comparison. Gender variable I (Block I)



Graph 42. Stakeholder perspectives: Within-cohort comparison. Gender variable I (Block III)



Graph 43. Stakeholder perspectives: Within-cohort comparison. Gender variable I (Block V)



Graph 44. Stakeholder perspectives: Within- cohort comparison. Gender variable I (Block VII)

An abundant number of significant differences have emerged across all blocks of the questionnaire in terms of the *grade* in which students are, showing that Primary Education students are much more optimistic about the bilingual programme than Secondary students.

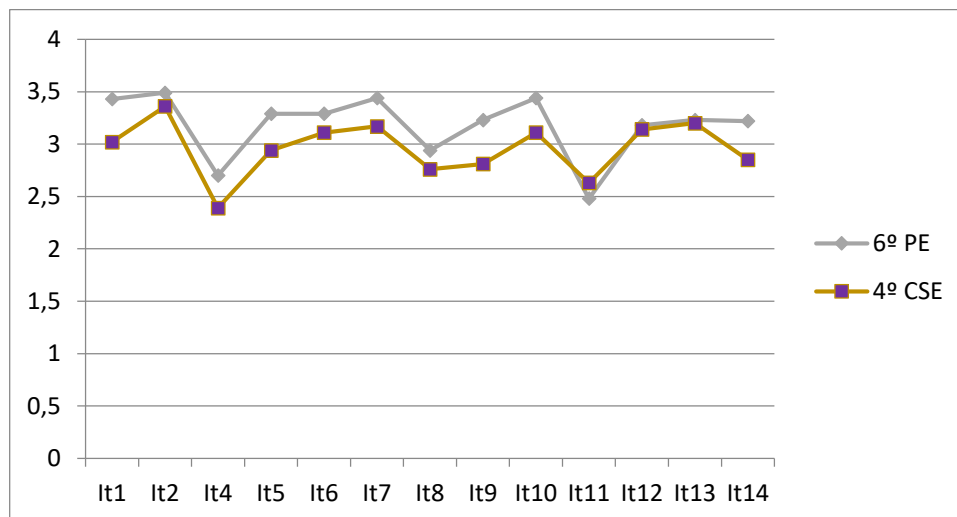
Taking into account the thematic blocks included in the questionnaires, Primary Education students are found to be more positive towards most of the items dealing with *students' use, competence and development of English in class* (items 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 12 and 14). Thus, pupils of the Primary schools are more satisfied with their development in both English and Spanish (items 2, 3.67/4 and 4, 3.05/4). They also claim to be more confident and participative within the bilingual classroom (items 8, 3.01/4 and 9, 3.25/4) and they think their oral skills in the FL are more adequate (item 12, 3.26/4). The same tendency can be discerned when speaking about *CLIL methodology*. Statistically significant differences have been found in three out of the four items included in this block (items 15, 16 and 17), confirming that tasks and projects are developed in the Primary Education classes more than in Secondary schools and that Primary Education students learn vocabulary to a greater extent. In the same vein, all items in the block about *materials and resources* except one present statistically significant differences (items 19, 20, 21, 22, 23, 24, 25, 26, 27 and 28), evincing once again that Primary Education pupils have a more positive view of CLIL and the resources used in the bilingual classroom. However, the tendency changes when speaking about *mobility*. In this case, Secondary students claim to be more motivated towards taking part in a mobility programme (item 46, 2.67/4), and the number of students that have already

participated in such initiatives is also higher in Secondary Education than in Primary. These results could be considered obvious because of the age of students. It is normal that older students are more encouraged to travel abroad in order to learn a FL than children. Finally, it is worth emphasising that Primary Education students are more satisfied with the evaluation carried out by CLIL teachers, as more items included in block four present statistically significant differences (items 30, 32 and 33). Moreover, Primary students consider there has been a greater improvement in their English knowledge and their own motivation towards learning a FL thanks to their participation in a bilingual section (items 47, 48 and 49) (cf. Table 39). Similar results were found by Cenoz (2001), whose study analysed the attitudes towards English of three different groups of students (fourth year Primary Education students, second year Secondary Education students, and first year Baccalaureate learners), discovering that the youngest age group possessed significantly more positive attitudes towards learning in a bilingual programme. Other studies, such as the ones developed by Lasagabaster and Sierra (2009), Cenoz, Genesee and Gorter (2013), and Oxbrow (2018) also revealed significant differences in favour of Primary Education students.

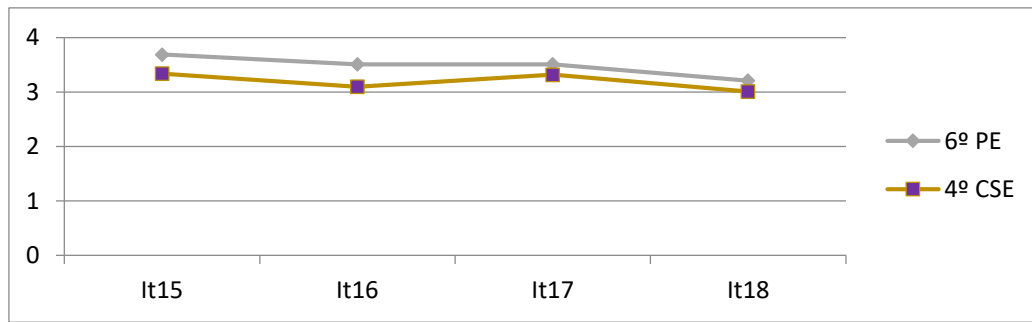
Items	Mean		Standard Deviation		p value
	Primary Education	Compulsory Secondary Education	Primary Education	Compulsory Secondary Education	
It 1	3.68	3.02	.553	.781	<0.001
It 2	3.67	3.18	.557	.754	<0.001
It 4	3.05	2.17	.894	.900	<0.001
It 5	3.22	2.83	.608	.804	<0.001
It 6	3.28	2.88	.700	.724	<0.001
It 7	3.59	3.11	.649	.697	<0.001
It 8	3.01	2.45	.943	.903	<0.001
It 9	3.25	2.65	.779	.896	<0.001
It 10	3.43	2.96	.668	.781	<0.001
It 12	3.26	3.08	.728	.720	.039
It 14	3.33	2.94	.681	.693	<0.001
It 15	3.79	3.27	.433	.787	0.001
It 16	3.63	2.91	.549	.832	0.001
It 17	3.70	3.15	.485	.821	0.001
It 19	2.95	2.72	.953	.855	0.31
It 20	3.18	2.88	.797	.762	.002
It 21	3.04	2.44	.837	.696	0.001
It 22	3.26	2.92	.828	.814	0.001
It 23	3.22	2.83	.796	.768	0.001

It 24	3.40	2.69	.712	.807	0.001
It 25	3.90	2.99	.300	.944	0.001
It 26	3.87	3.05	.398	.872	0.001
It 27	2.62	2.24	1.397	.991	.019
It 28	3.92	2.29	.401	1.217	0.001
It 30	3.45	2.94	.761	.875	<0.001
It 32	3.30	2.59	.886	1.030	<0.001
It 33	3.51	2.59	.673	1.072	<0.001
It 34	3.48	2.99	.620	.831	<0.001
It 35	3.41	2.87	.666	.818	<0.001
It 36	3.50	2.69	.763	.887	<0.001
It 37	3.26	2.53	.754	.952	<0.001
It 38	3.24	2.57	.735	.933	<0.001
It 39	3.32	2.31	.878	.987	<0.001
It 40	3.42	2.68	.745	.867	<0.001
It 41	3.71	3.19	.543	.823	<0.001
It 42	3.76	3.37	.521	.710	<0.001
It 43	3.49	3.15	.620	.736	<0.001
It 44	1.32	1.98	.787	1.327	<0.001
It 46	2.29	2.67	1.263	1.136	.013
It 47	3.57	3.08	.762	.844	<0.001
It 48	3.59	3.08	.632	.765	<0.001
It 49	3.36	2.78	.764	.844	<0.001
It 50	3.25	3.29	1.071	.756	.266

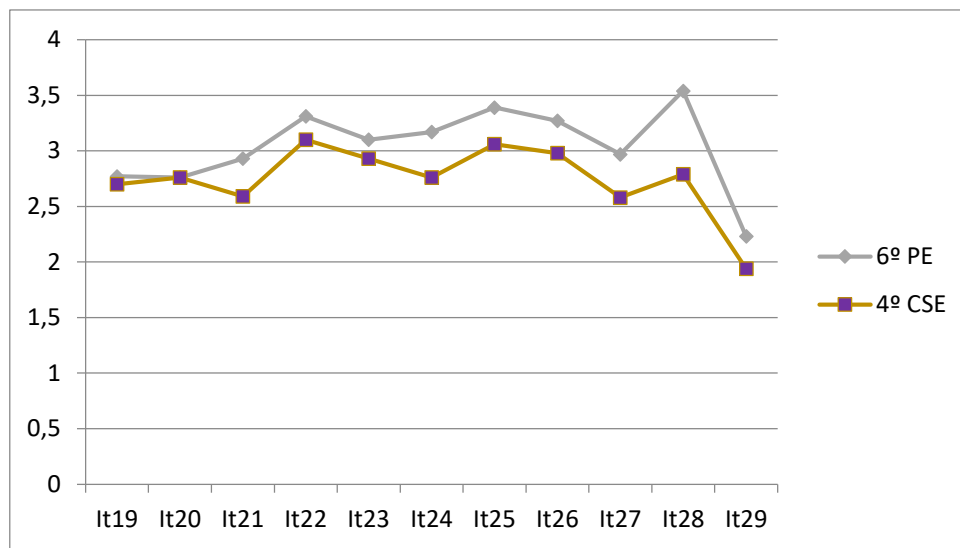
Table 39. Statistically significant differences in terms of grade (Students)



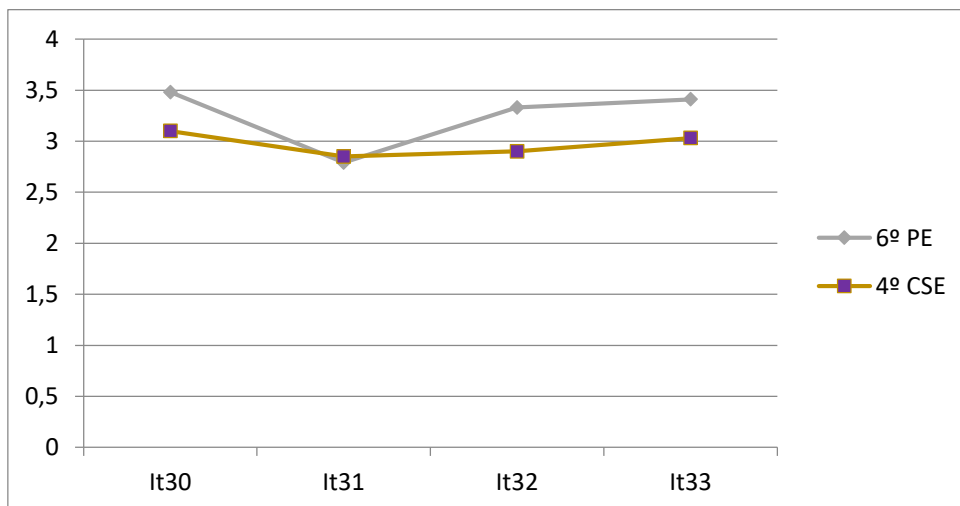
Graph 45. Stakeholder perspectives: Within-cohort comparison. Grade variable I. (Block I)



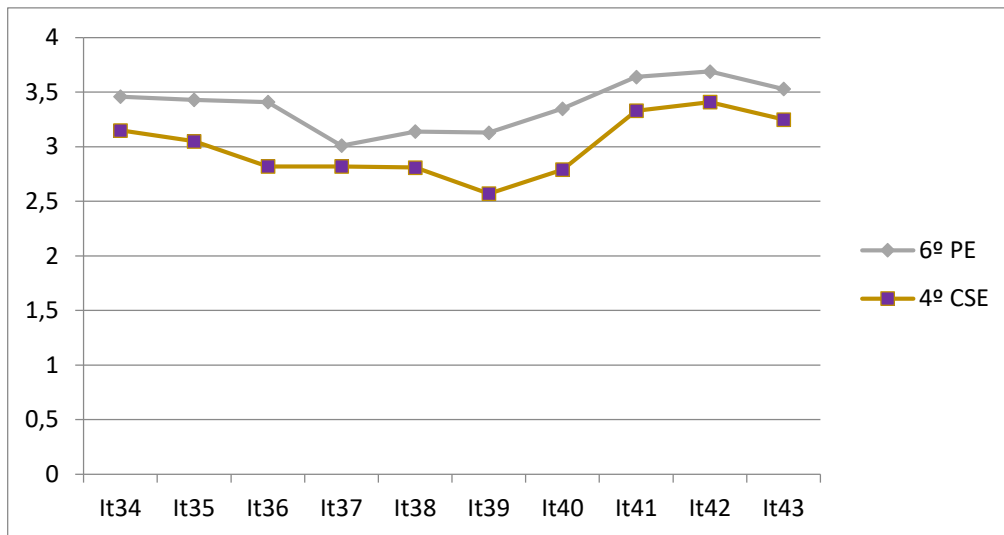
Graph 46. Stakeholder perspectives: Within-cohort comparison. Grade variable I. (Block II)



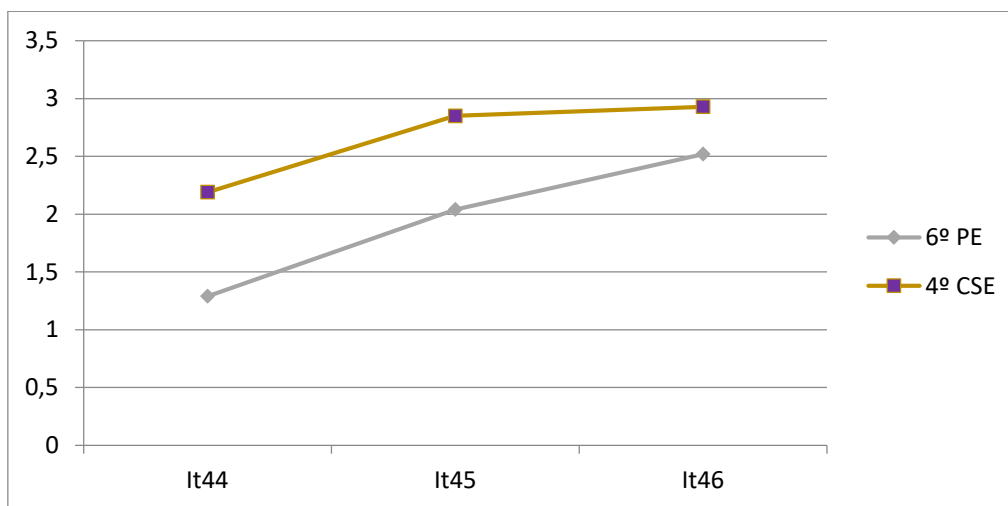
Graph 47. Stakeholder perspectives: Within-cohort comparison. Grade variable I. (Block III)



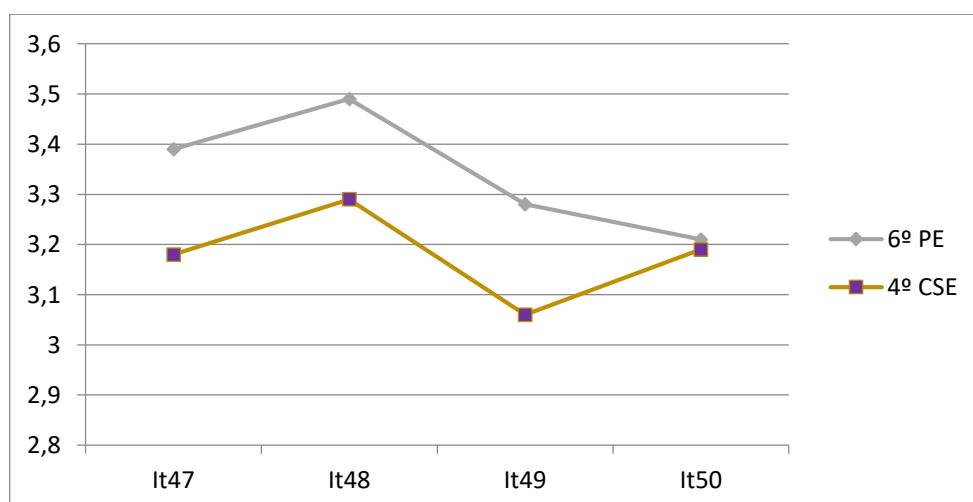
Graph 48. Stakeholder perspectives: Within-cohort comparison. Grade variable I. (Block IV)



Graph 49. Stakeholder perspectives: Within-cohort comparison. Grade variable I. (Block V)



Graph 50. Stakeholder perspectives: Within-cohort comparison. Grade variable I. (Block VI)



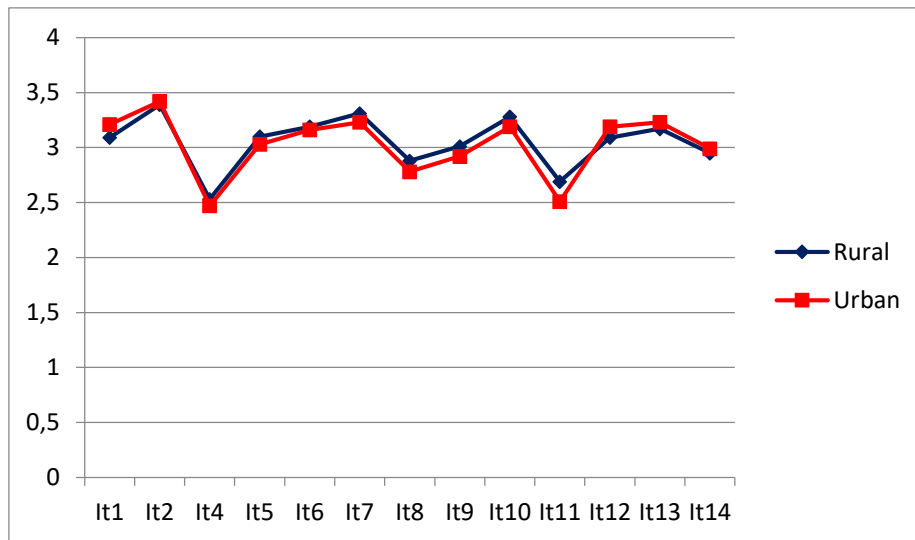
Graph 51. Stakeholder perspectives: Within-cohort comparison. Grade variable I. (Block VII)

Vis à vis *location* (rural vs. urban schools), many statistically significant differences have also been detected, showing heterogeneous results throughout all the blocks of the questionnaire. In block one, urban students are more optimistic about the development of the key competences in class (item 1, 3.32/4), although rural students consider they have a higher sociocultural knowledge (item 14, 3.30/4) and their knowledge of the Spanish language has improved to a greater extent than that of their urban counterparts (item 4, 2.76/4). Dealing with methodology, rural students seem to work in groups more than urban students do (item 18, 3.43/4). Block three, concerning materials and resources, is the one which presents more statistically significant differences. In this case, students belonging to a rural school are found to be more enthusiastic about the materials used within the bilingual classroom, as the means obtained are higher on all items (item 21, 22, 23, 24, 25, 27 and 28). They consider CLIL materials are more interesting and innovative, and they also claim to make a greater use of digital tools and digital whiteboards in the class. These results run counter to Oxbrow's findings (2018, p. 153), according to which students from urban centres had a greater access to ICT tools in class sessions, making a more frequent use of them than learners in rural areas, with the exception of the digital whiteboard. However, students in urban schools are more optimistic about the use of online communication (e-Twinning). It is also important to mention that only one item from the block of evaluation presents statistically significant differences (item 32), namely, the employment of oral assessment. In this respect, urban school pupils affirm they take part in oral examinations more than rural pupils (2.90/4). Moving on to the block about teacher training, although not many differences have been found, rural students are shown to be more content with the work developed by their NLA teachers and the linguistic assistants (items 37, 3.13/4 and 39, 2.88/4) and their teachers' sociocultural knowledge (item 43, 3.45/4). In turn, urban school students are found to have a better access to suitable materials outside the classroom (item 50, 3.34/4), something which is in agreement with previous studies (Oxbrow, 2018; Pavón Vázquez, 2018), in which less access to English materials and exposure to the FL outside the class is reported for students in rural areas. Lastly, the block on mobility presents different results. As we have observed above, in terms of location, heterogeneous results have been obtained, but the optimism shown by rural students could be considered a little bit higher in all the blocks of the questionnaire. However, this does not happen when dealing with mobility programmes, about which children studying in an urban centre feel more motivated. Thus, all items in this block present statistically significant differences in

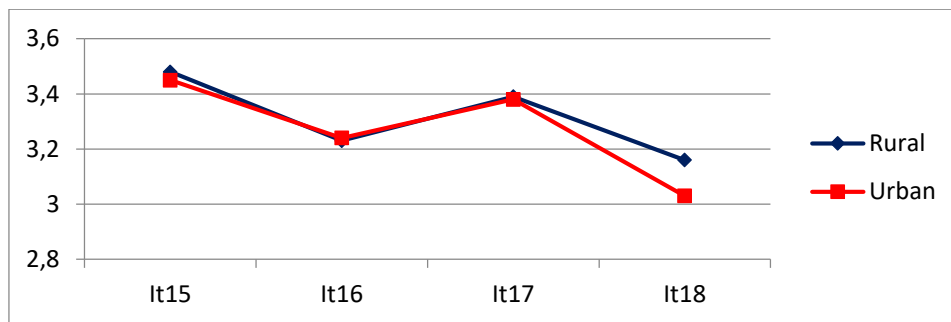
favour of these urban school students (items 44, 45 and 46). Generally speaking, people from urban areas tend to have a better access to airports and other means of transport. Moreover, a stronger economic mobilisation exists in cities, where people are used to travelling more frequently than rural inhabitants. These factors could help us understand the more optimistic outlook obtained by students from urban areas regarding mobility. However, further attention should be given to these results in order to inform and encourage rural learners and their families to participate in such initiatives, which are so beneficial for students' personal growth (cf. Table 40).

Items	Mean		Standard Deviation		<i>p</i> value
	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban	
It 1	2.93	3.32	.876	.727	<0.001
It 4	2.76	2.36	1.074	.942	.004
It 14	3.30	2.99	.603	.728	.002
It 15	3.43	3.44	.925	.669	.226
It 16	3.15	3.14	1.048	.744	.296
It 17	3.28	3.33	.901	.733	.924
It 18	3.43	2.67	.763	.955	<0.001
It 21	2.87	2.56	.796	.783	.009
It 22	3.25	2.96	.682	.863	.020
It 23	3.18	2.89	.737	.804	.006
It 24	3.13	2.85	.716	.873	.018
It 25	3.54	3.20	.659	.953	.019
It 26	3.48	3.26	.682	.883	.129
It 27	2.88	2.21	1.200	1.088	<0.001
It 28	3.80	2.52	.401	1.305	<0.001
It 29	1.15	1.50	.472	.864	.002
It 30	3.09	3.11	1.055	.809	.518
It 31	2.73	3.03	1.009	.820	.061
It 32	2.55	2.90	.974	1.047	.008
It 33	3.07	2.82	.942	1.079	.120
It 37	3.13	2.66	.833	.963	0.001
It 39	2.88	2.55	.977	1.076	.030
It 43	3.45	3.20	.585	.745	.020
It 44	1.09	1.98	.288	1.317	<0.001
It 45	1.34	2.94	.808	1.054	<0.001
It 46	1.51	2.87	.877	1.085	<0.001
It 50	3.07	3.34	.910	.847	.021

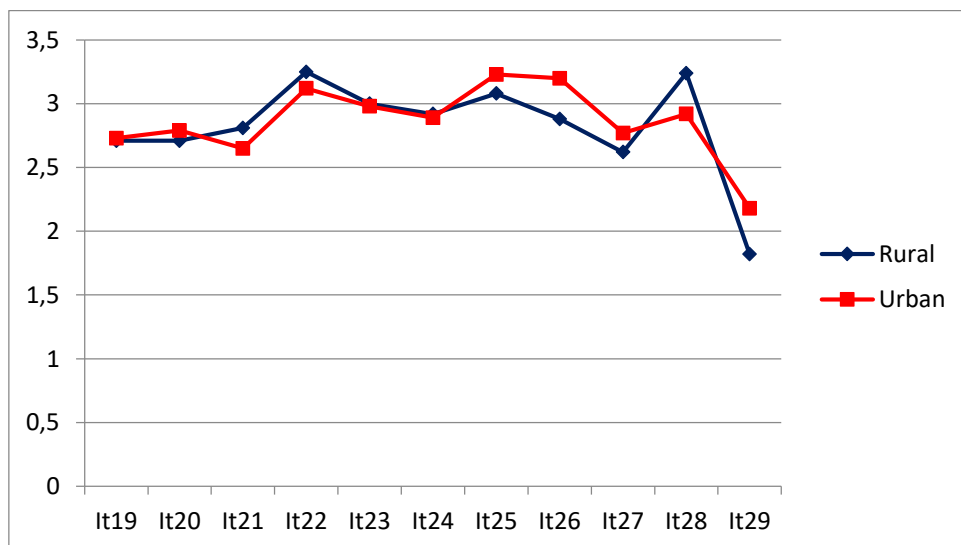
Table 40. Statistically significant differences in terms of setting (Students)



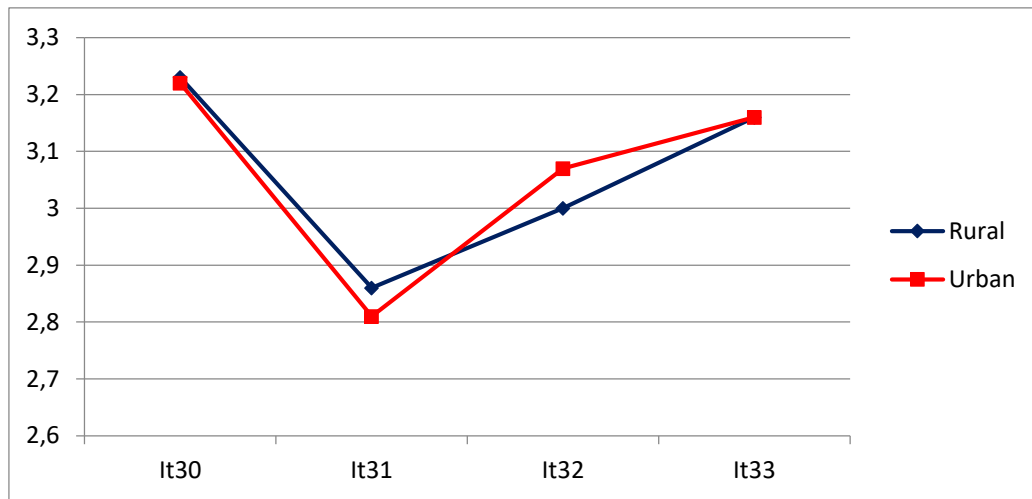
Graph 52. Stakeholder perspectives: Within-cohort comparison. Setting variable (Block I)



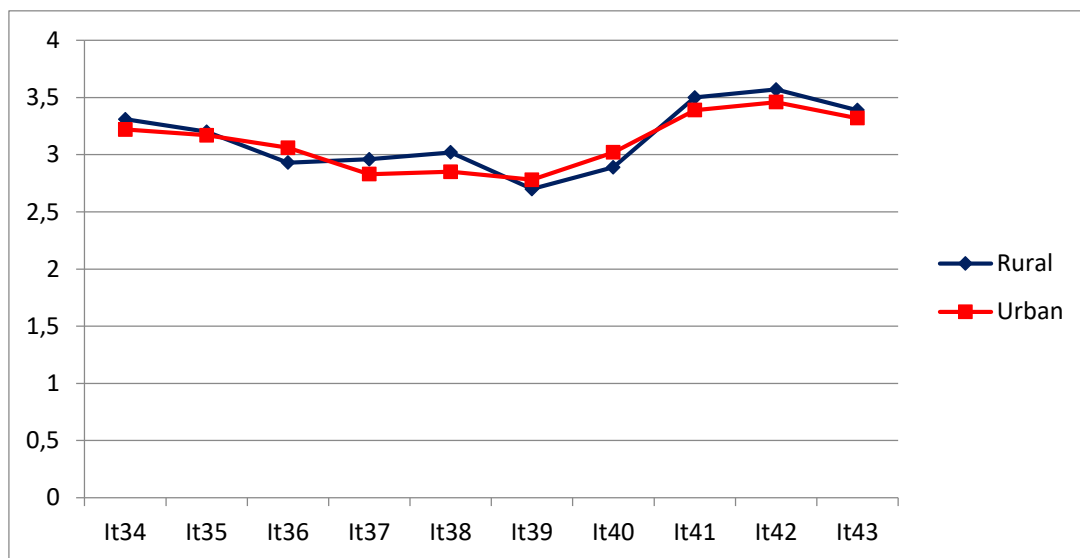
Graph 53. Stakeholder perspectives: Within-cohort comparison. Setting variable (Block II)



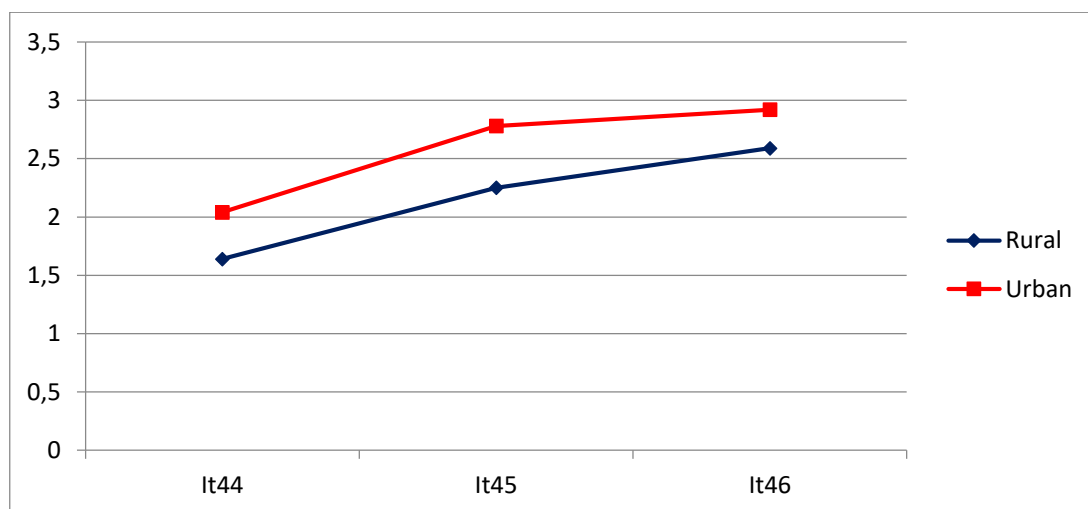
Graph 54. Stakeholder perspectives: Within-cohort comparison. Setting variable (Block III)



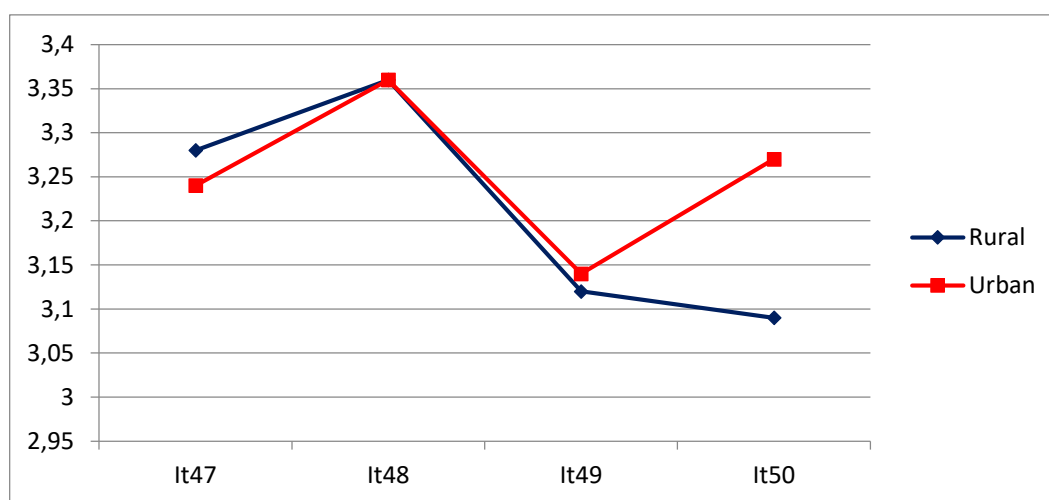
Graph 55. Stakeholder perspectives: Within-cohort comparison. Setting variable (Block IV)



Graph 56. Stakeholder perspectives: Within-cohort comparison. Setting variable (Block V)



Graph 57. Stakeholder perspectives: Within-cohort comparison. Setting variable (Block VI)



Graph 58. Stakeholder perspectives: Within-cohort comparison. Setting variable (Block VII)

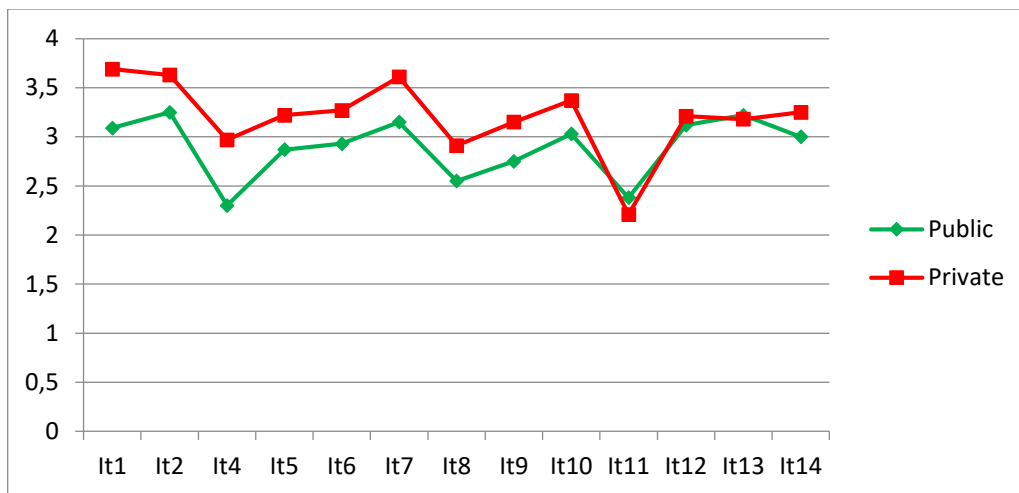
Taking the variable *type of school* into consideration, a total of thirty-seven items present statistically significant differences, which evinces that students enrolled in a private school are generally more optimistic about the bilingual programme than those studying in a public centre. To start with, private school students feel more satisfied with their own *use, competence and development of English in class* (items 1, 2, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10 and 14). They consider their level of English as well as their Spanish competence has improved thanks to their participation in a bilingual programme to a greater extent than public school students. Moreover, they claim to have a better knowledge of sociocultural aspects in the FL. The same tendency is repeated in the block on methodology, where most of the items present statistically significant differences in favour of private school pupils. However, public school learners are found to work in groups more than private school students (item 18, 3.02/4). Seven items present significant differences in block three which focuses on *materials and resources* (items 20, 21, 24, 25, 26, 27 and 28), confirming once again the greater optimism shown by private school students, whose access to resources is also higher. In contrast, public school pupils claim to make a greater use of digital tools such as blogs, wikis or webquests in class (item 27, 2.44/4). When asked about *evaluation*, students from private schools practise oral assessment as well as continuous and final evaluation to a greater extent than pupils from public centres (items 32 and 33). The same happens in block five on *teachers' use, competence and development of English in class* (items 34, 35, 36, 37, 38, 39, 40, 41, 42 and 43) and in block seven on *improvement and motivation towards learning English* (items 47, 48 and 49). Surprisingly, students from public schools are more

optimistic about *mobility* and claim to have participated in exchange programmes within the bilingual section more than pupils from a private centre (item 44, 1.88/4). This result must be regarded as another CLIL objective which has been fulfilled, as bilingual programmes are cancelling out differences among students (Pérez Cañado, 2017b, Lorenzo, Granados and Rico, 2020), that is to say, CLIL is offering students the opportunity to travel abroad in order to expand their horizons regardless of their social and economic background. At the beginning, CLIL was seen as an elitist programme (Paran, 2013; Bruton, 2011a, 2011b, 2013, 2015; Pérez Cañado, 2016c, 2019), but now, not only private school students, whose SES tends to be higher, but also public school learners are willing to or have already taken part in these initiatives, which are so beneficial for their own personal growth (cf. Table 41).

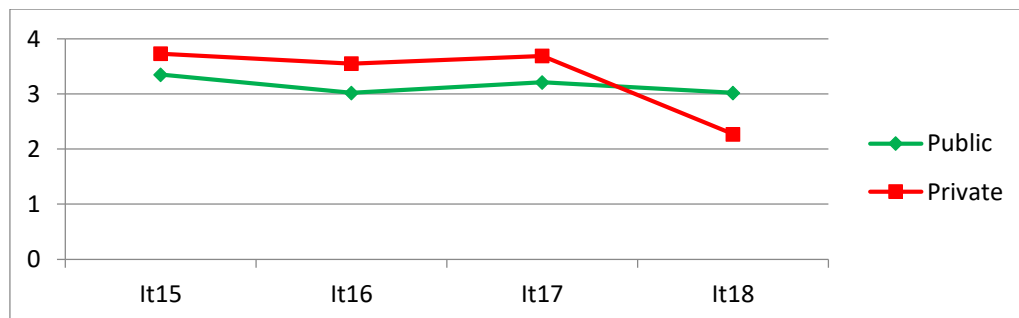
Items	Mean		Standard Deviation		<i>p</i> value
	Public	Private	Public	Private	
It 1	3.09	3.69	.781	.583	<0.001
It 2	3.25	3.63	.749	.599	<0.001
It 4	2.30	2.97	.959	.904	<0.001
It 5	2.87	3.22	.807	.546	.001
It 6	2.93	3.27	.738	.687	.001
It 7	3.15	3.61	.690	.695	.000
It 8	2.55	2.91	.943	.933	.004
It 9	2.75	3.15	.914	.803	.002
It 10	3.03	3.37	.804	.624	.002
It 14	3.00	3.25	.712	.682	.009
It 15	3.35	3.73	.776	.479	<0.001
It 16	3.02	3.55	.851	.558	<0.001
It 17	3.21	3.69	.814	.465	<0.001
It 18	3.02	2.27	.911	.931	<0.001
It 20	2.92	3.15	.765	.827	.019
It 21	2.56	2.87	.765	.851	.006
It 24	2.79	3.34	.832	.750	<0.001
It 25	3.10	3.89	.941	.310	<0.001
It 26	3.15	3.85	.876	.399	<0.001
It 27	2.44	2.13	1.083	1.325	.040
It 28	2.48	3.91	1.264	.452	<0.001
It 32	2.59	3.58	1.002	.762	<0.001
It 33	2.71	3.44	1.087	.682	<0.001
It 34	3.03	3.52	.813	.636	<0.001
It 35	2.93	3.40	.837	.605	<0.001
It 36	2.72	3.70	.894	.578	<0.001
It 37	2.65	3.16	.983	.730	<0.001
It 38	2.65	3.23	.939	.740	<0.001

It 39	2.38	3.51	1.008	.716	<0.001
It 40	2.72	3.57	.859	.701	<0.001
It 41	3.23	3.77	.818	.457	<0.001
It 42	3.40	3.81	.719	.398	<0.001
It 43	3.17	3.52	.729	.612	<0.001
It 44	1.88	1.41	1.284	.894	.013
It 47	3.17	3.47	.855	.789	.004
It 48	3.15	3.55	.780	.610	<0.001
It 49	2.84	3.37	.855	.756	<0.001

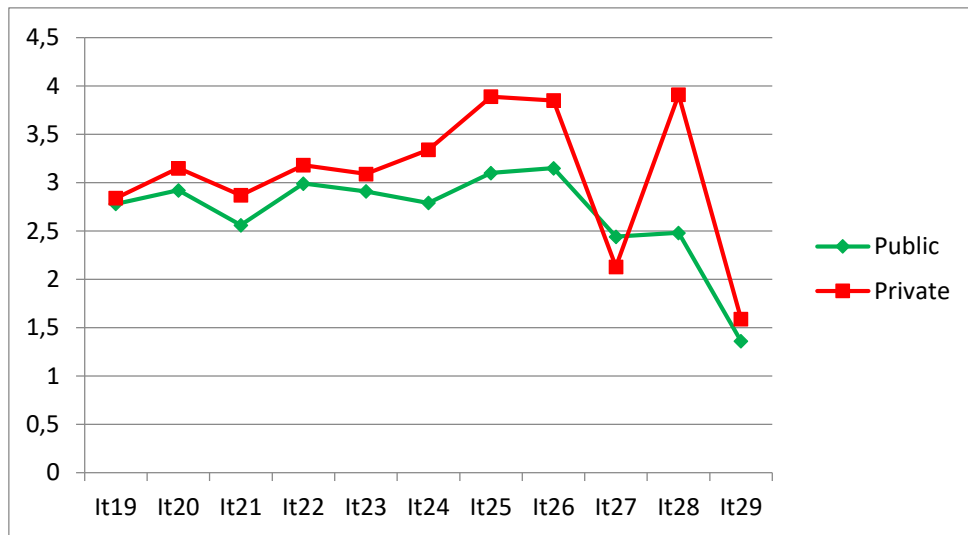
Table 41. Statistically significant differences in terms of type of school (Students)



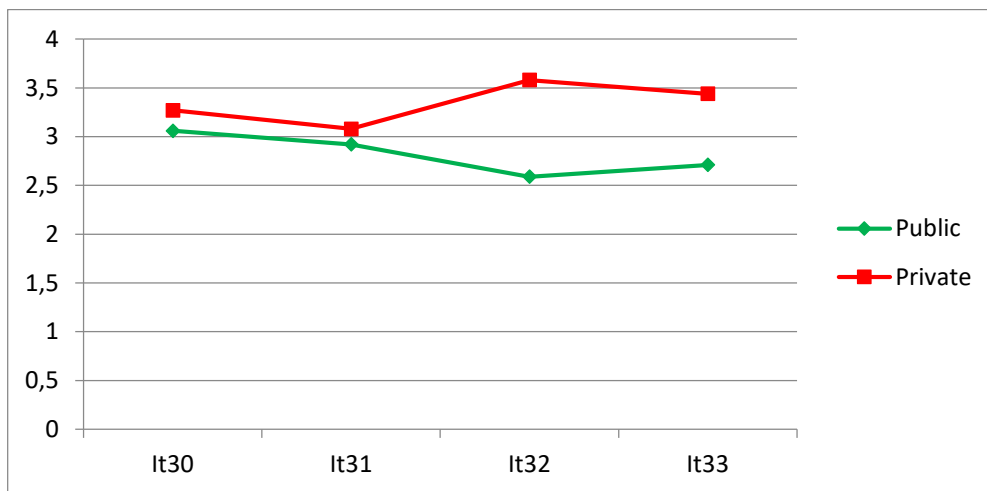
Graph 59. Stakeholder perspectives: Within-cohort comparison. Type of school variable (Block I)



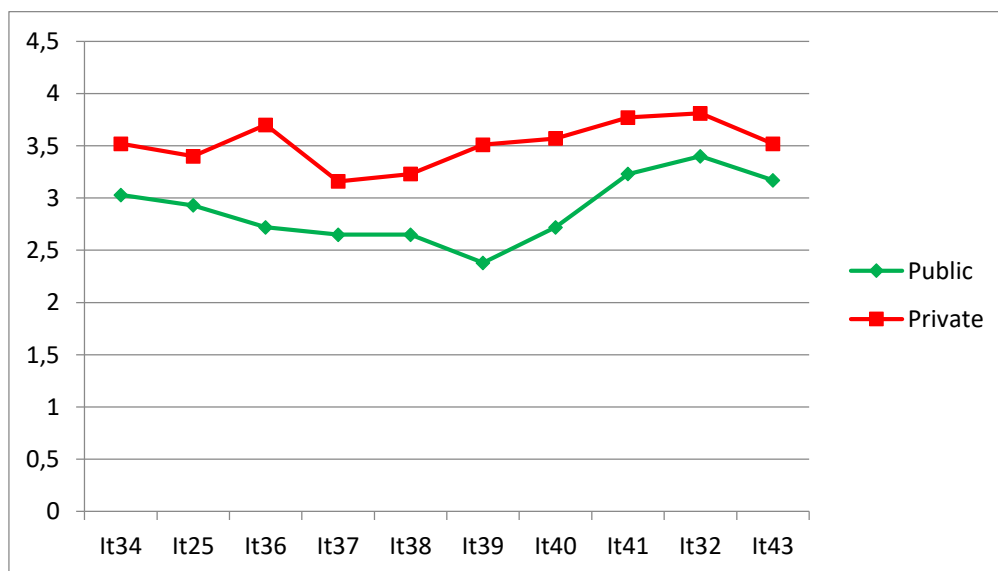
Graph 60. Stakeholder perspectives: Within-cohort comparison. Type of school variable (Block II)



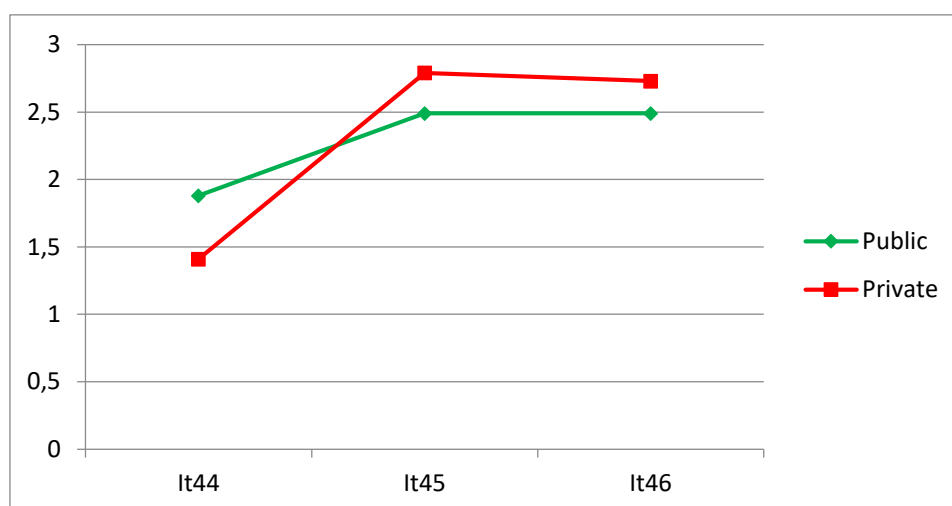
Graph 61. Stakeholder perspectives: Within-cohort comparison. Type of school variable (Block III)



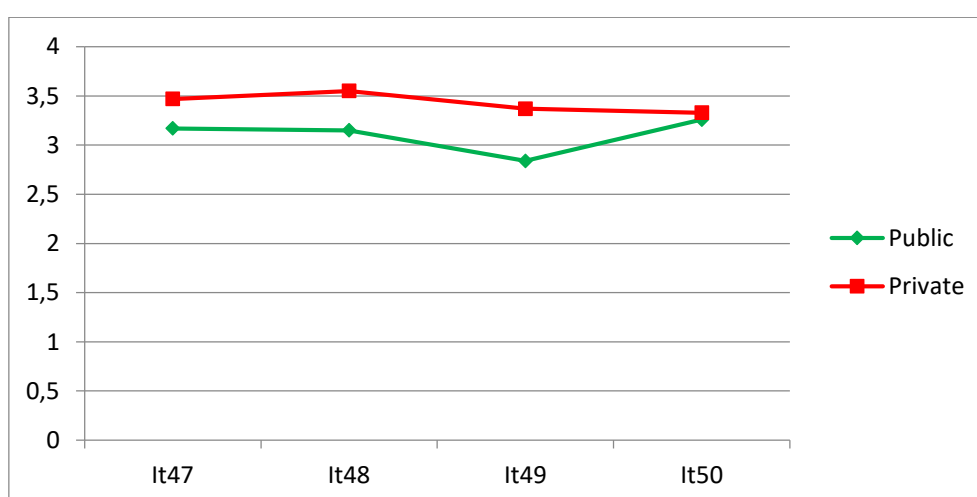
Graph 62. Stakeholder perspectives: Within-cohort comparison. Type of school variable (Block IV)



Graph 63. Stakeholder perspectives: Within-cohort comparison. Type of school variable (Block V)



Graph 64. Stakeholder perspectives: Within-cohort comparison. Type of school variable (Block VI)



Graph 65. Stakeholder perspectives: Within-cohort comparison. Type of school variable (Block VII)

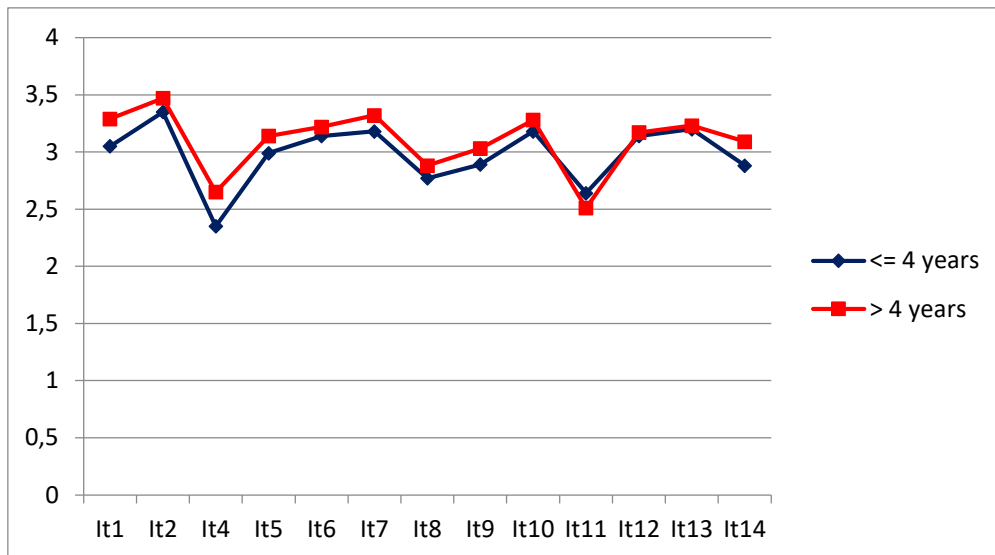
Another identification variable that has yielded substantial significant differences has been that of *years studying in a bilingual programme*. Thus, taking into account if students have participated in a bilingual section for more than four years, or if, on the contrary, they have been involved in CLIL for four years or less, different tendencies have been discovered. On the whole, it can be acknowledged that the more years students have been taking part in a bilingual section, the more enthusiastic they are about it. However, students who have belonged to a bilingual class for four or fewer years are found to be more optimistic about mobility programmes and they claim to be more motivated towards participating in exchange programmes by both parents and teachers (items 44, 45 and 46).

All sections in the questionnaire incorporate some items which present significant differences in favour of more experienced CLIL students, coinciding in this sense with

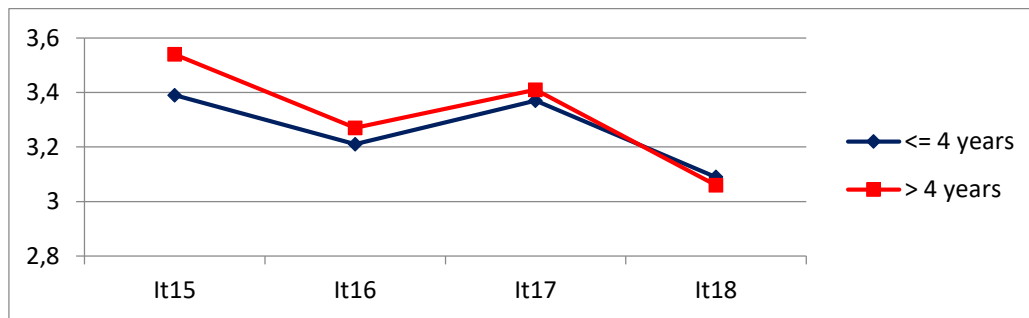
Oxbrow (2018, 2020), who considers this “familiarity” (2019, p. 110) with the CLIL approach has a significant impact on the way students perceive the effectiveness of such programmes in the development of their linguistic and intercultural skills. Hence, these students seem to be more content with the development of the key competences in class (item 1, 3.32/4) or with their own English and Spanish knowledge (items 2, 3.41/4 and 4, 2.66/4). Moreover, students who have been enrolled in a bilingual programme for more years appear to be more conscious of the relationship between languages (item 7, 3.37/4) and they consider themselves to be more interested, more confident and more participative in the bilingual class (items 8, 9 and 10). The same happens when dealing with methodology, about which more experienced pupils are very optimistic. Hence, they say they develop a greater amount of tasks and projects within the programme and they claim to learn more vocabulary (items 15, 16 and 17). In the same vein, pupils studying for four or more years in a bilingual section are more satisfied with the use they make of materials and resources inside the classroom (items 19, 21, 22, 23, 24, 25, 26 and 28), and they also practise continuous and final evaluation to a greater extent (item 33, 3.00/4). Following with the analysis of differences, it is worth mentioning that all items included in block five on teacher training present statistically significant differences, once again in favour of those students who have taken part in a bilingual programme for more than four years (items 34, 35, 36, 37, 38, 39, 40, 41, 42, and 43). Finally, the more experienced students affirm there has been a greater improvement in their English language learning due to their participation in a bilingual programme (item 48, 3.33/4) and their own motivation towards learning foreign languages has also increased (item 49, 3.07/4), something which runs counter to Madrid’s findings (2002, as cited in Oxbrow, 2018, p. 155), according to which students’ motivation diminished with time (cf. Table 42). From these results, a clear tendency can be elicited: CLIL takes time to take root. Experience seems to be one of the lynchpins for CLIL success, as it makes students more aware of the benefits of learning in a bilingual programme and, obviously, it makes their progress increase over the years.

Items	Mean		Standard Deviation		<i>p</i> value
	<= 4	> 4	<= 4	> 4	
It 1	3.10	3.32	.693	.806	.002
It 2	3.22	3.41	.727	.728	.020
It 4	2.10	2.66	.891	.989	<0.001
It 5	2.80	3.05	.833	.703	.008
It 7	3.06	3.37	.765	.667	<0.001
It 8	2.41	2.76	.927	.943	.002
It 9	2.68	2.93	.914	.888	.020
It 10	2.96	3.19	.832	.739	.021
It 14	2.82	3.20	.723	.654	<0.001
It 15	3.29	3.53	.683	.748	<0.001
It 16	3.02	3.21	.774	.843	.021
It 17	3.21	3.38	.788	.764	.045
It 19	2.65	2.87	.830	.907	.038
It 21	2.41	2.76	.736	.805	.001
It 22	2.86	3.12	.856	.805	.018
It 23	2.79	3.03	.788	.788	.011
It 24	2.67	3.05	.812	.838	<0.001
It 25	2.91	3.49	.986	.766	<0.001
It 26	2.91	3.54	.945	.694	<0.001
It 28	2.13	3.23	1.116	1.189	<0.001
It 33	2.68	3.00	1.039	1.042	.008
It 34	2.86	3.32	.837	.730	<0.001
It 35	2.87	3.14	.767	.826	.002
It 36	2.66	3.13	.873	.918	<0.001
It 37	2.40	2.99	.904	.915	<0.001
It 38	2.52	2.94	.888	.922	<0.001
It 39	2.27	2.85	.948	1.074	<0.001
It 40	2.62	3.10	.856	.881	<0.001
It 41	3.21	3.46	.739	.779	.001
It 42	3.32	3.61	.677	.646	<0.001
It 43	3.02	3.40	.710	.664	<0.001
It 44	2.22	1.51	1.411	1.014	<0.001
It 45	2.88	2.38	1.131	1.219	<0.001
It 46	2.80	2.40	1.110	1.215	.009
It 48	3.09	3.33	.830	.714	.019
It 49	2.79	3.07	.977	.780	.031

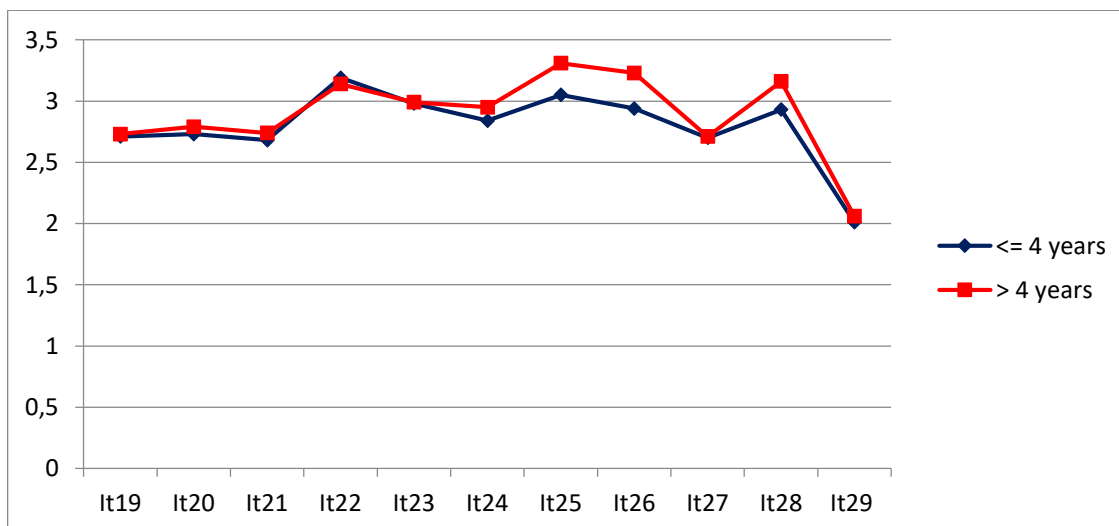
Table 42. Statistically significant differences in terms of years studying in a bilingual programme



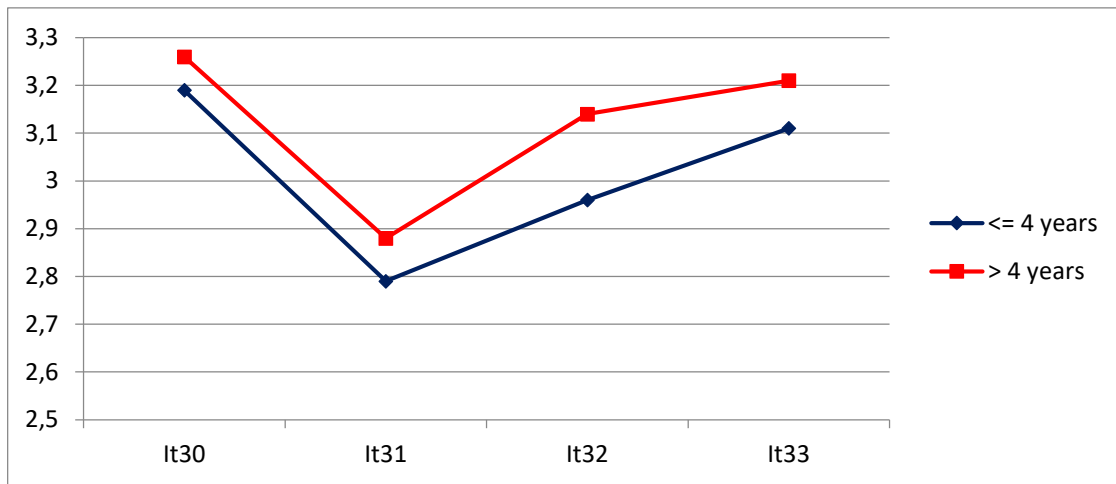
Graph 66. Stakeholder perspectives: Within-cohort comparison. Number of years studying in a bilingual programme (Block I)



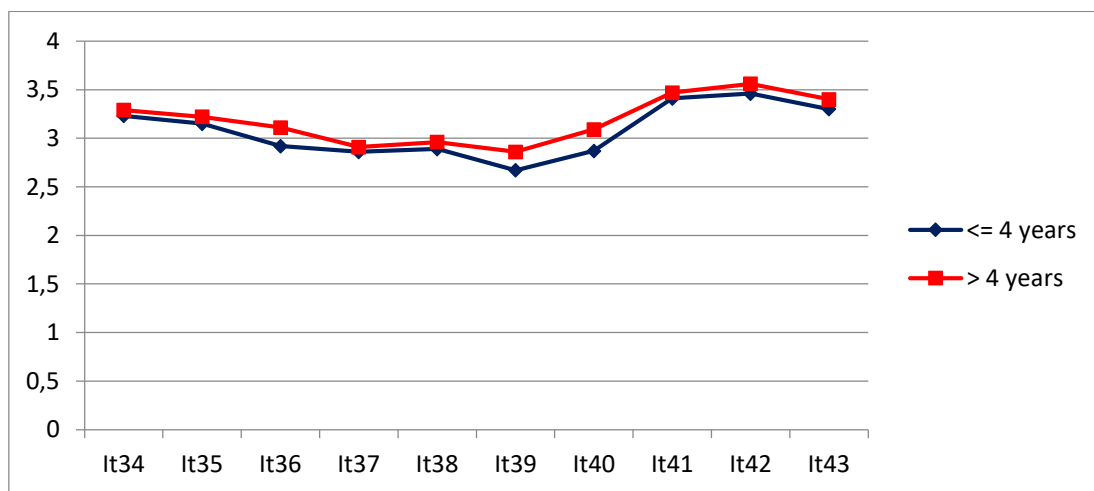
Graph 67. Stakeholder perspectives: Within-cohort comparison. Number of years studying in a bilingual programme (Block II)



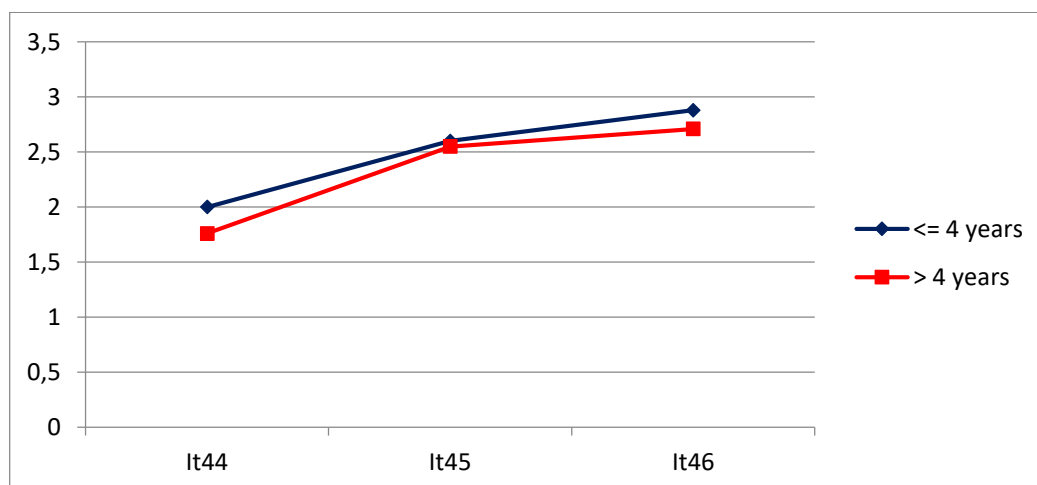
Graph 68. Stakeholder perspectives: Within-cohort comparison. Number of years studying in a bilingual programme (Block III)



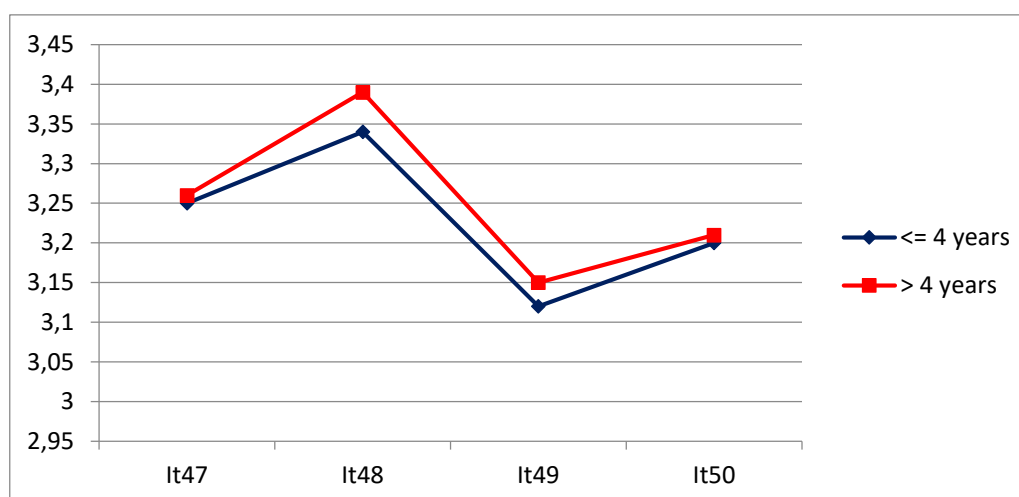
Graph 69. Stakeholder perspectives: Within-cohort comparison. Number of years studying in a bilingual programme (Block IV)



Graph 70. Stakeholder perspectives: Within-cohort comparison. Number of years studying in a bilingual programme (Block V)



Graph 71. Stakeholder perspectives: Within-cohort comparison. Number of years studying in a bilingual programme (Block VI)



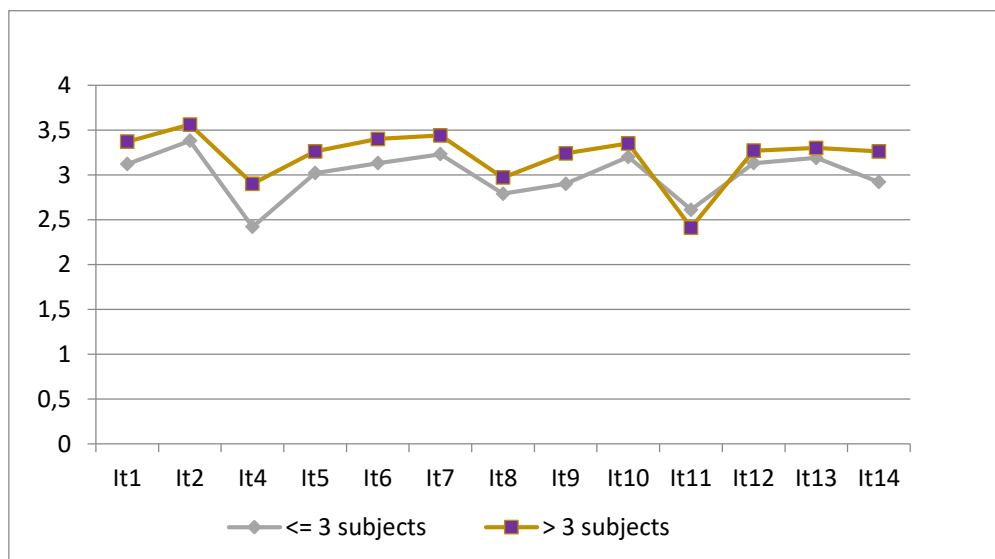
Graph 72. Stakeholder perspectives: Within-cohort comparison. Number of years studying in a bilingual programme (Block VII)

As might be predicted, the aforementioned tendency is repeated when taking into consideration the variable of *number of subjects taught through English*: the more subjects students are taught in English, the more enthusiastic they are about CLIL. Thus, pupils who have been enrolled in a CLIL programme for more time and whose exposure to English inside the classroom is higher have a better perception of the programme as a whole. Hence, those pupils are found to be more optimistic on all blocks of the questionnaire, except for block six, which focuses on mobility programmes, where lower means have been obtained (items 44, 45 and 46) (cf. Table 43).

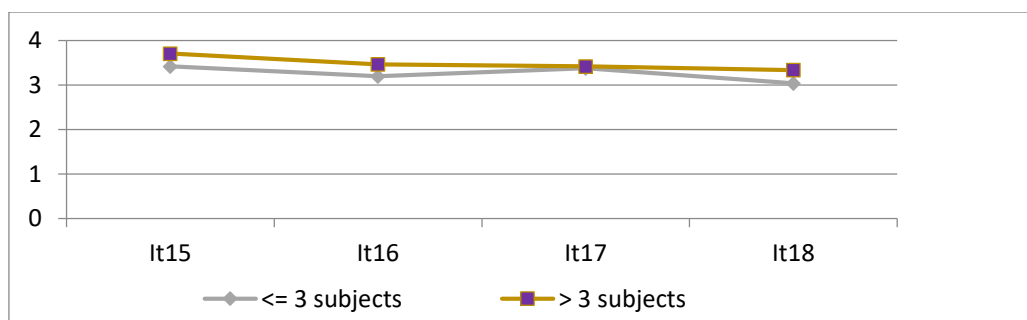
Items	Mean		Standard Deviation		p value
	<= 3	> 3	<= 3	> 3	
It 1	3.18	3.69	.791	.471	.001
It 2	3.29	3.77	.739	.514	.001
It 4	2.38	3.19	.971	.849	.000
It 6	2.96	3.46	.734	.647	.001
It 8	2.56	3.31	.937	.838	<0.001
It 9	2.77	3.56	.900	.583	<0.001
It 10	3.06	3.68	.775	.557	<0.001
It 12	3.10	3.54	.734	.508	.003
It 13	3.17	3.58	.725	.578	.004
It 14	3.02	3.54	.707	.582	<0.001
It 15	3.39	3.88	.750	.326	<0.001
It 16	3.07	3.88	.821	.326	<0.001
It 17	3.29	3.69	.785	.549	.008
It 18	2.77	3.58	.946	.902	<0.001
It 20	2.95	3.27	.785	.724	.046
It 21	2.55	3.42	.766	.643	<0.001

It 22	2.97	3.62	.833	.571	<0.001
It 23	2.90	3.50	.771	.860	<0.001
It 24	2.86	3.50	.847	.583	<0.001
It 25	3.23	3.81	.910	.634	<0.001
It 26	3.26	3.85	.855	.464	<0.001
It 27	2.24	3.58	1.090	1.027	<0.001
It 28	2.73	3.76	1.285	.723	<0.001
It 30	3.03	3.85	.873	.368	<0.001
It 33	2.80	3.69	1.053	.618	<0.001
It 35	3.00	3.46	.802	.811	.002
It 37	2.69	3.58	.943	.643	<0.001
It 38	2.74	3.23	.933	.765	.012
It 42	3.47	3.77	.689	.514	.018
It 44	1.83	1.12	1.254	.431	.004
It 45	2.69	1.27	1.173	.667	<0.001
It 46	2.67	1.38	1.149	.941	<0.001
It 47	3.18	3.85	.855	.464	<0.001
It 48	3.19	3.73	.760	.604	<0.001
It 49	2.93	3.31	.862	.788	.026

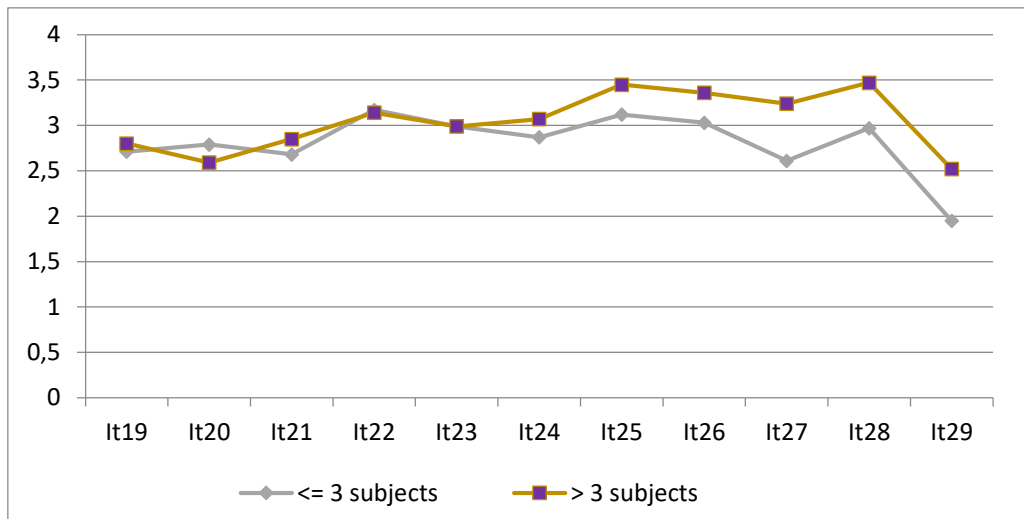
Table 43. Statistically significant differences in terms of number of subjects taught through CLIL



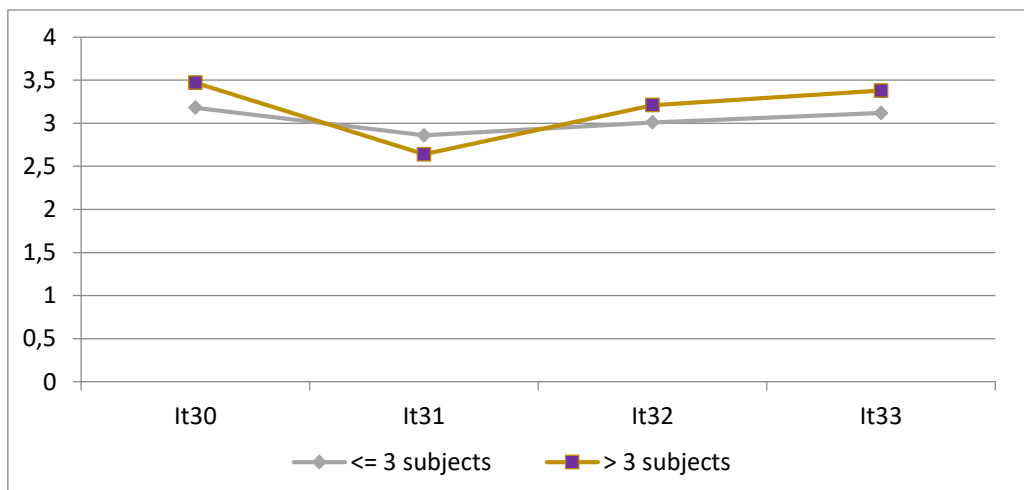
Graph 73. Stakeholder perspectives: Within-cohort comparison. Number of subjects taught through CLIL (Block I)



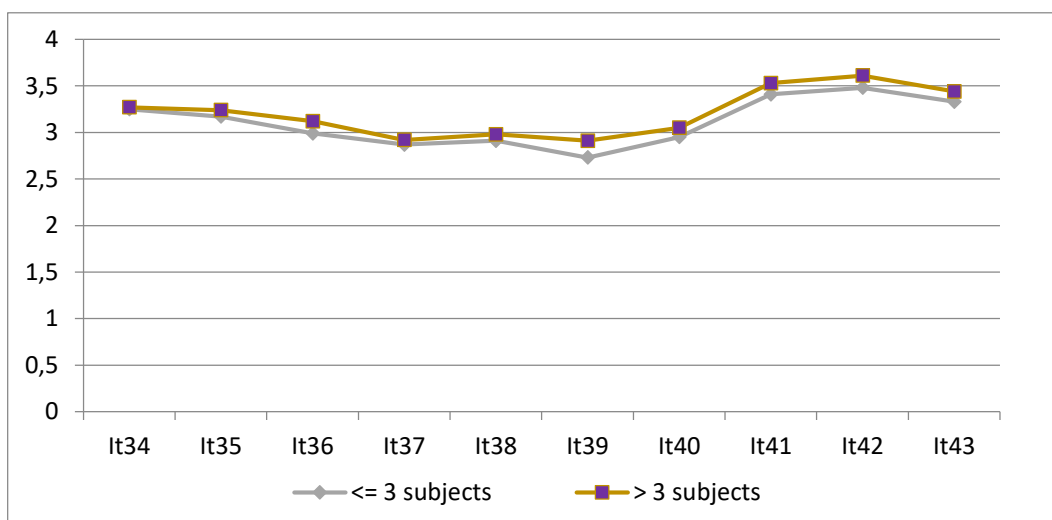
Graph 74. Stakeholder perspectives: Within-cohort comparison. Number of subjects taught through CLIL (Block II)



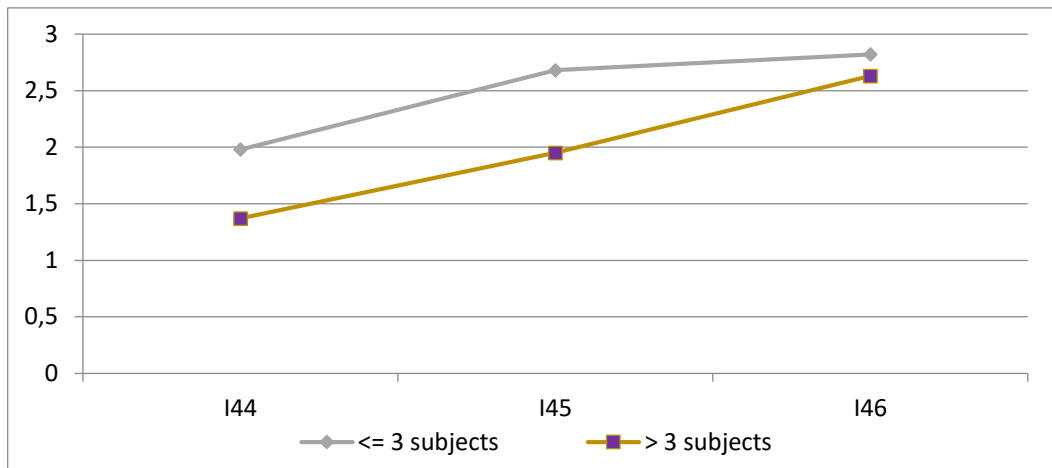
Graph 75. Stakeholder perspectives: Within-cohort comparison. Number of subjects taught through CLIL (Block III)



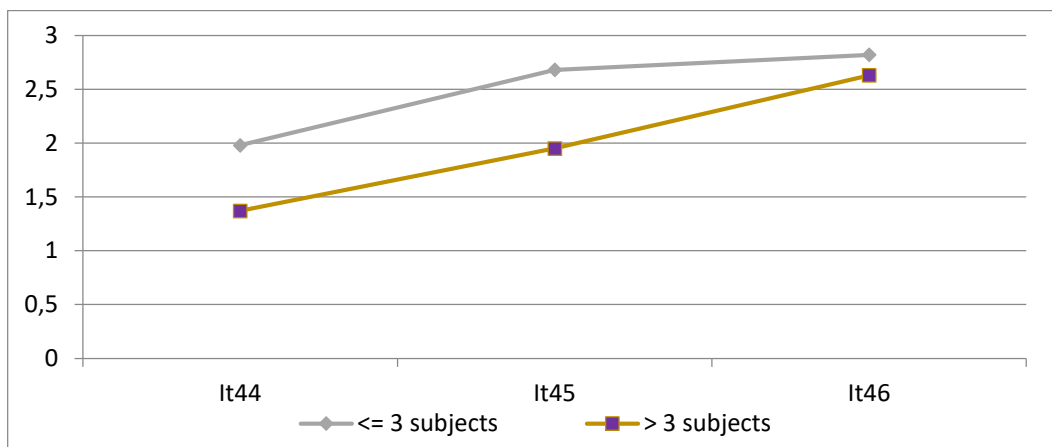
Graph 76. Stakeholder perspectives: Within-cohort comparison. Number of subjects taught through CLIL (Block IV)



Graph 77. Stakeholder perspectives: Within-cohort comparison. Number of subjects taught through CLIL (Block V)



Graph 78. Stakeholder perspectives: Within-cohort comparison. Number of subjects taught through CLIL (Block VI)



Graph 79. Stakeholder perspectives: Within-cohort comparison. Number of subjects taught through CLIL (Block VII)

5.1.2.2. Teachers

After analysing students' results both globally and specifically, we will now turn to the teacher cohort. Although the sample is quite reduced in comparison with students and parents, some valuable conclusions can be drawn from it. As will be seen below, most of the findings coincide with the ones described in the section devoted to students' perceptions. Hence, teachers continue to be generally optimistic about CLIL. However, teachers are a little bit more pessimistic about some of the items which are directly related to teaching itself and to how the programme is being carried out in the community. In this respect, corroborating the questionnaire outcomes, teachers also provide their opinions in

the oral interviews carried out in each centre, and these responses have also been included in our dissertation.

5.1.2.2.1. Global results

In the first block of the questionnaire *-students' use, competence and development of English in class-*, teachers mostly agree with the positive outcomes of the students, with all the means obtained being around 3 out of 4, indicating a high level of agreement. Some similarities with regard to the former cohort can be found in that teachers also believe that students' foreign language level has increased due to their participation in a bilingual programme (item 2, 3.36/4) and in that the key competences are developed inside the CLIL classroom (item 1, 3.28/4), something which is corroborated in the interviews:

“Cuando evaluamos la asignatura de inglés, nos damos cuenta que el rendimiento académico ha mejorado muchísimo a raíz de ser bilingües. El inglés ha pasado de ser una asignatura difícil a una asignatura más cercana”.

They also concur with students in that the latter have improved their abilities to recognise how language works (item 6, 3.17/4) and the connection between languages (item 7, 3.36/4). Apart from being congruent with the pupils' responses, these results are in line with many other previous investigations that praise the metalinguistic awareness-arising of bilingual programmes (Coyle, 2006; Heras and Lasagabaster, 2015; Lancaster, 2016; Lasagabaster, 2011; Lorenzo, Casal and Moore, 2009; Merisuo-Storm, 2007; Seikkula-Leino, 2007; Pascual Bajo, 2018; Oxbrow, 2020).

In addition, although a slightly lower mean has been obtained when referring to Spanish language, teachers also have a largely positive vision of students' first language competence (item 4, 2.91/4) and they also claim that students' participation, self-confidence and interest within the classroom is gradually increasing (items 8, 9, 10). In the interviews, teachers corroborated this and affirmed that in spite of the initial shyness, students take the plunge to speak in English as they see it as a natural form of communication.

“Su actitud hacia el inglés ha cambiado, y por eso ahora se lanzan a hablar y participar más, porque lo ven como una herramienta, no como algo que les va a hacer suspender”.

“En general, los alumnos que se preocupan por las asignaturas suelen participar en clase e intentan hacerlo en inglés. El que no participa, no lo hace ni en inglés ni en castellano, aunque bien es cierto que a nivel de participación, en una clase de treinta alumnos hay muchos matices. Depende de la clase y de la asignatura en cuestión. Normalmente los mayores hablan menos que los pequeños por el factor vergüenza”.

In contrast, mixed results appear when tapping into the amount of English used in class. Thus, half of the teachers polled consider their pupils would not like more use of English within the classroom (item 11, 2.61/4), something which was already confirmed by previous investigators such as Lancaster (2015, 2016) and Milla Lara and Casas Pedrosa (2018). Mirroring these results, different opinions were collected in the interviews about the amount of FL employed within the classroom. The teachers in the private centres were the only ones who claimed to use English throughout the whole lesson, while the rest of the teachers interviewed agreed that the percentage of English used in class varies from 30% to 50%, depending on the grade of the students and the content subject taught.

“Los alumnos llegan a secundaria con una actitud muy negativa hacia el inglés. por lo que el porcentaje de uso del inglés en clase se va incrementando progresivamente, es decir, cuanto más alto es el curso, mayor es el porcentaje de uso del inglés”.

Overall, most educators affirm their pupils have an adequate level in all the different skills and competences developed in class, with slightly better results for reading and writing (item 13, 2.97/4), followed by the oral skills and the students' knowledge of sociocultural issues (items 12 and 14) (cf. Table 44; Graph 80).

To finish with this block, it is important to highlight that generally positive perceptions are collected in the questionnaires regarding content learning. Hence, most of the educators claim that their students' knowledge of the contents taught through English has also improved thanks to their belonging to a bilingual section (item 5, 3.06/4). However, teachers seem to be more cautious in the oral interviews when dealing with this issue. Thus, although a great number of teachers claim that the learning of contents by pupils improves progressively as they get to superior educational stages, some other educators consider that contents are not always the same in the bilingual and in the non-bilingual sections, in line with Rodríguez Sabiote et al. (2018), in whose investigation teachers recognised that teaching and learning processes were more time-consuming in CLIL classes, as there was more need for repetition, emphasising and simplifying of

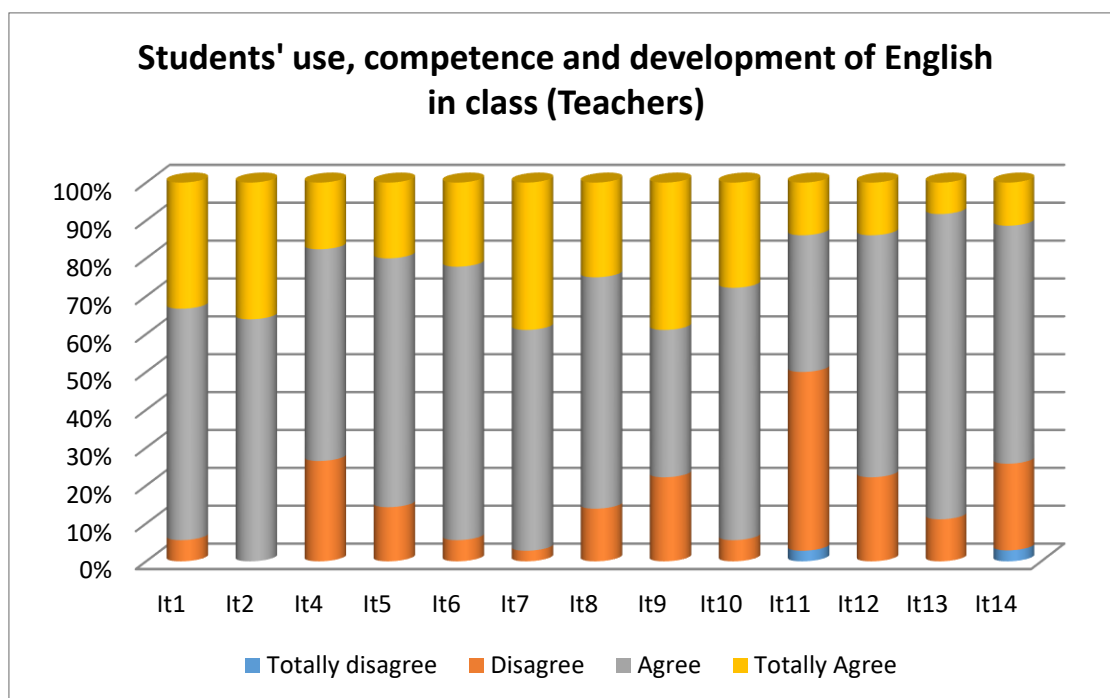
explanations, in order for the programme to be successful (as cited in Hughes and Madrid, 2020, p. 4):

“Los contenidos de las asignaturas en un entorno bilingüe son siempre menores, ya que tienes que adaptarlos para que ellos los entiendan en una segunda lengua. Por ello, no puedes ir al mismo nivel de detalle”.

“El aprendizaje de contenidos no ha mejorado por estudiar en un programa bilingüe. No afecta. Ni ha mejorado ni ha empeorado”.

Items	Mean	Standard Deviation
It 1	3.28	.566
It 2	3.36	.487
It 4	2.91	.668
It 5	3.06	.591
It 6	3.17	.507
It 7	3.36	.543
It 8	3.11	.622
It 9	3.17	.775
It 10	3.22	.540
It 11	2.61	.766
It 12	2.92	.604
It 13	2.97	.446
It 14	2.83	.664

Table 44. Students' use, competence and development of English in class (Teachers)



Graph 80. Students' use, competence and development of English in class (Teachers)

A generally optimistic outlook has been reported on the block of *methodology*, although some negativity has also transpired on some of the items included. Thus, coinciding with some previous studies (Pena Díaz and Pérez Requejo, 2008; Pérez Cañado, 2016b; 2016d), CLIL methodology seems to continue being a somewhat problematic area on which further investigations need to be conducted.

Heterogeneous answers have been given by teachers in this block. Hence, although most CLIL instructors claim to use projects within the class, more than 30% of them admit to have never used them (item 16, 2.92/3). Mirroring Milla Lara and Casas Pedrosa's (2018) and Pascual Bajo's results (2018), teachers report not giving too much priority to the lexical dimension in their lessons (item 17, 2.71/4), but the majority agree to use a task-based learning methodology in the classroom (item 15, 3.17/4), where the students also learn collaboratively (item 18, 3.08/4). Moreover, most of the instructors state that they try to implement and follow the recommendations of the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (item 20, 3.14/4) and the European Language Portfolio (item 21, 3.06/4) (cf. Table 45; Graph 81).

When asked about methodology in the oral interviews, teachers claim that the innovative CLIL methodology is being applied progressively at schools, since they are getting used to giving students the main role within the classroom, although on some

occasions, and especially in the highest stages of Secondary Education, the teacher continues having the leading role, as (s)he is in charge of giving explanations and solving problems. One of the most difficult aspects they highlight is the fact that in the same classroom there are students following a different pace or even with learning difficulties, coinciding with many previous studies (Pérez Cañado, 2016a, 2016c, 2018b; Bauer-Marschallinger et al., 2021; Pena Díaz and Porto Requejo, 2008; Fernández and Halbach, 2011). That is why they admit they try to implement cooperative learning, as it has many advantages if groups are carefully designed. In this respect, Madrid and Pérez Cañado (2018) offer an overview of the most important strategies to cater for diversity, including splitting the class into small flexible groupings with mixed abilities, which would help students construct subject-specific knowledge (Pérez Cañado, 2021, p. 3).

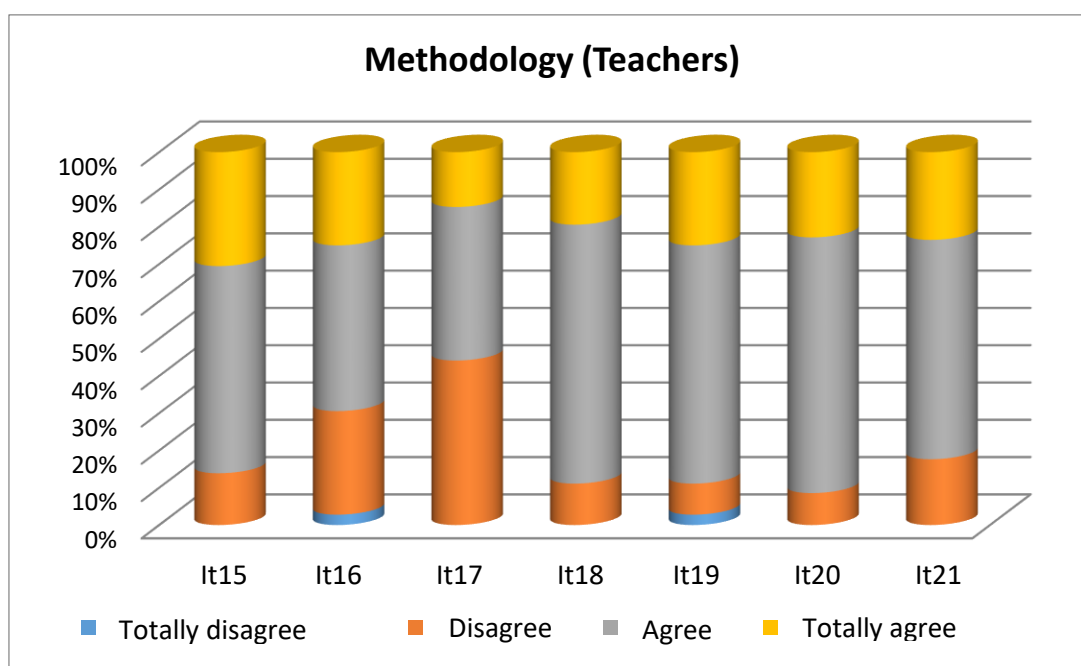
“La metodología sigue siendo tradicional, pero se intentan utilizar materiales y técnicas más innovadoras. Es un cambio bastante significativo. Hace años no se hablaba inglés en clase, mientras que ahora los alumnos están constantemente interactuando, no solo en clase sino fuera de ella”.

“Con grupos concretos se está implantando el aprendizaje cooperativo en ocasiones puntuales, como por ejemplo para la realización de un proyecto o una tarea determinada”.

“La metodología es innovadora. Intentamos que todo el sistema de aprendizaje esté basado en la comunicación”.

Items	Mean	Standard Deviation
It 15	3.17	.655
It 16	2.92	.806
It 17	2.71	.719
It 18	3.08	.554
It 19	3.11	.667
It 20	3.14	.550
It 21	3.06	.649

Table 45. Methodology (Teachers)



Graph 81. Methodology (Teachers)

As for the block on *materials and resources*, there is a general agreement among teachers that authentic and adapted materials are used in the CLIL classroom (items 22, 3.17/4 and 23, 3.14/4), something which is corroborated in the interviews:

“Aunque se utilizan materiales auténticos en cursos concretos, la mayoría de los materiales son adaptados”.

It is also worth mentioning that authentic materials seem to be used especially in Secondary Education classes because of the difficulty some of them can have for students.

“En primaria no se utilizan materiales originales. Casi todo es adaptado”.

Moreover, more than 80% of the educators surveyed think bilingual materials are interesting and motivating (item 24, 3.17/4), which surprisingly differs from teachers' responses in the interviews, where they openly complain about the lack of suitable materials for the bilingual lessons, coinciding in this sense with Pladevall-Ballester (2015):

“Los materiales existentes no se adecúan al nivel real de competencia de los alumnos. Por ejemplo, en la asignatura de biología hay varios libros en los que las explicaciones aparecen con estructuras gramaticales que los alumnos ni siquiera han visto en clase”.

“Algunos de los libros son meras traducciones del castellano al inglés y los alumnos no pueden seguirlos con facilidad. Por ello, no se utilizan libros de texto en las asignaturas bilingües. Se trabajan con fichas y materiales creados por el profesor”.

“Echo de menos más recursos. Se han utilizado algunos manuales, pero son simples traducciones, y crear tus propios materiales requiere mucho tiempo del que no disponemos”.

On the contrary, those educators working in private centres claim to have very good materials to work with in the bilingual classes. They affirm these materials contain topics and explanations that interrelate grammar, vocabulary, reading and writing. Thus, there is a complete integration of the skills. Moreover, in these schools, each student has an iPad where they have access to digital books and some apps to revise.

A more positive outlook is perceived regarding collaboration between teachers (item 25, 3.31/4), who mostly agree that CLIL materials follow communicative principles (item 26, 3.39/4), something which coincides with the results obtained by Pascual Bajo (2018). However, mixed opinions transpire when dealing with catering for diversity. Hence, almost half of the teachers claim CLIL materials are not adapted enough to adjust to all the different learning paces students may present (item 27, 2.27/4). These lacunae were already acknowledged by Fernández and Halbach (2011), Pena Díaz and Porto Requejo (2008), Pérez Cañado (2016a, 2016c, 2018b), Milla Lara and Casas Pedrosa (2018) and Roiha (2014), who underline this clear scarcity of resources and materials to attend to mixed ability groups, where students with special needs or latecomers to the programme are included. In the same vein, Pérez Cañado concluded that teachers complained about the lack of methodological guidelines to cater for diversity (2016a, 2016c, as cited in Pérez Cañado, 2021, p. 4).

Regarding collaboration and cooperation, most of the teachers agree that it is adequate, and a fluent communication is said to be maintained among all educators, mirroring Milla Lara and Casas Pedrosa's results (2018).

“Hay sesiones de coordinación en las que se plasman los objetivos, los problemas encontrados el curso anterior y las líneas de actuación en cada etapa”.

However, a high number of the interviewees claim that they lack of time to guarantee the coordination which is needed to successfully implement the bilingual programme.

“Si dispusiéramos de más tiempo, nos coordinaríamos mucho mejor. Si no nos reunimos más, no es por falta de voluntad sino de tiempo. La mayoría de las reuniones se hacen de manera informal, ya que por problemas de horario es prácticamente imposible coincidir todos. Nos facilitaría la coordinación establecer una reducción horaria y utilizar una hora y un día concreto para reuniones específicas del profesorado bilingüe”.

The most negative items identified in this block have to do with the use of computer-mediated communication (item 32, 2.19/4) and the adaptation of materials including guidelines in Spanish for parents (item 33, 1.97/4). Thus, congruent with the students’ results and with the outcomes obtained by previous investigators (Cabezas Cabello, 2010; Pérez Cañado, 2011; Gálvez Gómez, 2013; Lancaster, 2015; Milla Lara and Casas Pedrosa, 2018; Pascual Bajo, 2018), most teachers agree to use electronic whiteboards (item 31, 3.25/4), software materials (item 28, 3.47/4) and online references in class (item 29, 3.28/4), but they report on rarely using electronic tools such as blogs, wikis or webquests, and e-twinning has not been widely incorporated in the bilingual class.

“Las webquests y las wikis solo se utilizan de forma esporádica con grupos concretos”.

“Acabamos de crear una cuenta de e-Twinning, pero la verdad es que aún no la hemos puesto en funcionamiento”.

“Sí se utiliza el software específico que incluyen algunos de los materiales que usamos en clase y en la asignatura de Science hay un blog, pero no se usan las wikis ni las webquests”.

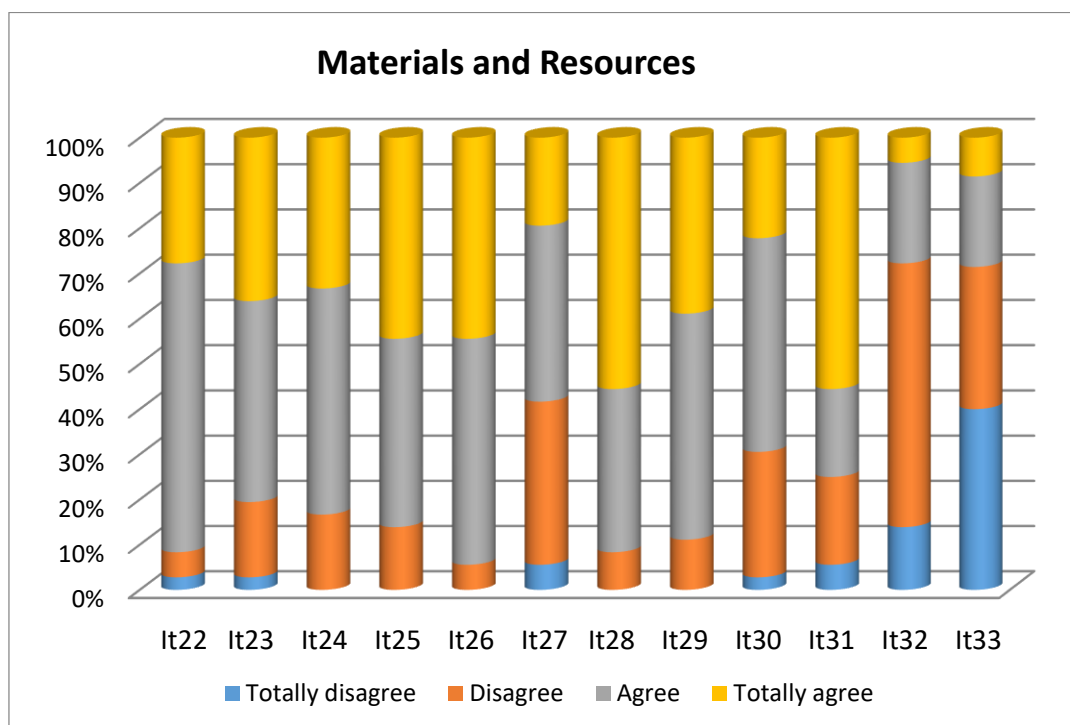
“Se intentan utilizar wikis, blogs y recursos online, pero siempre depende de la disponibilidad y de las habilidades del profesor, por supuesto”.

In the same line, teachers point to the lack of parent-friendly homework tasks, as the already-existing materials do not include guidelines in Spanish for parents to follow. In this respect, Ráez Padilla (2018, p. 188) points to the necessity of taking further action on this front “so as to make families feel empowered to participate in their children’s bilingual education” (cf. Table 46; Graph 82).

Items	Mean	Standard Deviation
It 22	3.17	.655
It 23	3.14	.798
It 24	3.17	.697
It 25	3.31	.710
It 26	3.39	.599

It 27	2.72	.849
It 28	3.47	.654
It 29	3.28	.659
It 30	2.89	.785
It 31	3.25	.967
It 32	2.19	.749
It 33	1.97	.985

Table 46. Materials and resources (Teachers)



Graph 82. Materials and resources (Teachers)

The next block, on *evaluation* also reveals encouraging results. On all the items included, teachers seem to harbour a very positive view, although some negativity appears when speaking about the inclusion of an oral component in the evaluation process (item 36, 2.94/4), corroborating the findings by Lancaster (2016), Milla Lara and Casas Pedrosa (2018) and Pascual Bajo (2018).

“Aunque intentamos incluir tareas que evalúen las destrezas orales, tienen mucho más peso las destrezas escritas y la autoevaluación rara vez se pone en práctica”.

Most teachers agree that formative and summative evaluation is used (item 37, 3.17/4) taking into account all contents taught (item 34, 3.25/4). Furthermore, contents are given priority over linguistic competence when assessment is carried out (item 35, 3.14/4) (cf. Table 47; Graph 83).

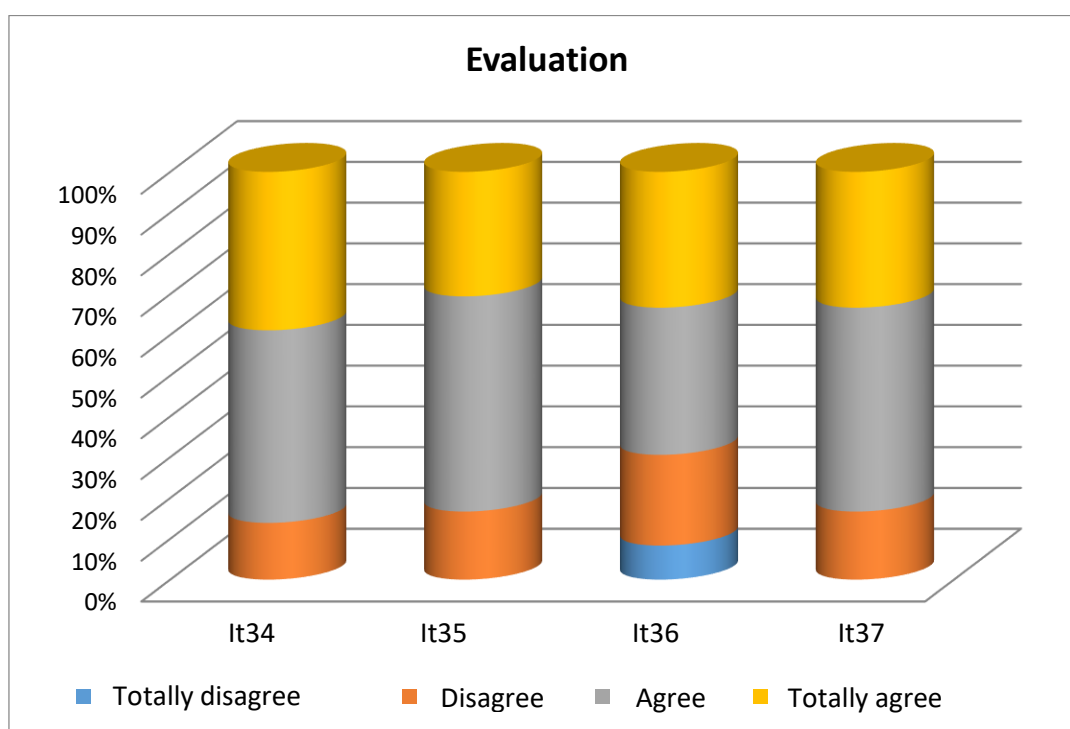
“La evaluación es continua y final teniendo en cuenta e incluyendo aspectos en inglés y en castellano. Por ley, prima el contenido sobre la lengua y se trabajan sobre todo las destrezas escritas”.

“El inglés se utiliza como una herramienta de comunicación, pero no se tiene en cuenta negativamente a la hora de la evaluación”.

“En todos los cursos hay pruebas escritas, cuyo peso se va incrementando en cada curso. Estos exámenes incluyen sobre todo preguntas abiertas que implican comprender y analizar. Sin embargo, también aparecen preguntas cerradas; depende de la asignatura y del nivel”.

Items	Mean	Standard Deviation
It 34	3.25	.692
It 35	3.14	.683
It 36	2.94	.955
It 37	3.17	.697

Table 47. Evaluation (Teachers)



Graph 83. Evaluation (Teachers)

The outcomes of the next thematic block on *teacher training* are more heterogeneous but they still continue to be optimistic similarly to the ones obtained in the previous block. Some of the items included in this block correspond to an equivalent section on *teachers' use, competence and development of English in class* in the students'

questionnaire. Apart from these similar items, some others have been reformulated or incorporated to deepen into specific issues belonging to the teaching context, about which students may not have information since they are not directly involved.

As for the necessity of further training, different perceptions appear, with language assistants being the most affected in this respect. According to the results, FL teachers feel they do not need to improve their skills (item 38, 2.69/4), something which does not happen when speaking about NLA teachers (item 39, 3.03/4) or language assistants (item 40, 3.33/4), with the means obtained being slightly higher in the last two items mentioned.

“Como profesor de área no lingüística, considero que tenemos un nivel de inglés adecuado para trabajar en el programa bilingüe. Sin embargo, la Administración cada vez exige más. El problema es que ese nivel que nos demandan, después no se puede aplicar en clase”.

“Trabajar enseñando un idioma requiere que nos reciclemos, aunque a veces no disponemos de tiempo para ello”.

Regarding language assistants, most of the teachers interviewed coincide in the fact that they sometimes lack the necessary training to be working in a bilingual school, of course, not because of the language, but due to the subject content they have to teach. This problem was already documented by Hibler (2010), Scobling (2011), Tobin and Abello-Contesse (2013), Gerena and Ramírez Verdugo (2014), and Buckingham (2018), who affirm that all language assistants tend to have the same role in bilingual schools, with their previous training being disregarded. That is why, on some occasions, these assistants feel ill-prepared and insecure about what they must do in class (Buckingham, 2018, p. 240).

Taking this situation into consideration, teachers ask the educational authorities to control the selection of these language assistants in order to guarantee the lessons in which they take part are truly bilingual. In Buckingham's words: “an overhaul of the language assistant training is needed” (2018, p. 241).

“La figura del auxiliar de conversación es esencial. Los alumnos agradecen mucho poder trabajar con personal nativo con el que puedan comunicarse en la lengua extranjera de una manera más real. Sin embargo, el lector a veces carece de la formación necesaria para impartir ciertos contenidos. Debe haber un control de eso. Sobre todo en el área de ciencias. Si el auxiliar tiene formación específica en eso, podrá desarrollar una clase verdaderamente bilingüe”.

“Debería haber un control más exhaustivo de los auxiliares de conversación ya que algunos no vienen con la formación necesaria. Sería necesaria una formación del profesor nativo. Es decir, que vinieran profesores de ANL nativos para impartir clases aquí. Eso haría que el nivel de idioma subiera tanto para los niños como para los profesores. Es lo que se conoce como “profesor nativo titulado como apoyo al profesorado de ANL”. Esta iniciativa, sabemos, que ya se está implantando en otras comunidades, como Madrid”.

Very similar and positive results are obtained in the next three items, which refer to motivation. Thus, all teachers involved claim to motivate students in the CLIL class (items 41, 42 and 43). In spite of the afore-mentioned perceptions, the figure of the linguistic assistant is praised here, as most educators claim that they collaborate with both teachers and students to make the most of their bilingual experience (items 44 and 45). However, the teachers claim that the educational authorities are reducing the number of language assistants who work in our community, something which clashes directly with the opening of new bilingual schools every year.

“El contacto con personal nativo es primordial, y lamentablemente cada vez hay menos auxiliares”.

“No tenemos acceso a auxiliares de conversación y los alumnos están perdiendo esa oportunidad tan beneficiosa”.

“Cada vez hay menos auxiliares de conversación en Andalucía y creo que con el tiempo esta figura tenderá a desaparecer. Vamos al contrario: si se están incrementando las líneas bilingües, debería haber más auxiliares, no reducirlos”.

“Hay veces en las que el auxiliar de conversación se comparte entre varios centros, por lo que las horas de permanencia en el colegio no son suficientes. Para todas las líneas bilingües existentes, no es suficiente un único auxiliar de conversación”.

“Antes disponíamos de una hora con un auxiliar de conversación nativo, que nos ayudaba en la creación de materiales. Los revisaba e incluso corregía los posibles errores. Ahora estamos sufriendo recortes en el número de auxiliares y se echa de menos el apoyo de una persona nativa que colabore contigo en la preparación de las clases”.

When asked about their own knowledge and skills, most teachers seem to feel confident in relation to their productive and receptive skills (items 46, 3.36/4 and 47, 3.50/4), showing a slightly less enthusiasm towards their sociocultural knowledge (item 48, 3.22/4). The last four items in this block offer the most negative responses, although still positive. Thus, around 30% of teachers think they do not have enough knowledge

about the regional Plan of Plurilingualism (item 49, 3.00/4) and they lack of information about the basic principles and inner workings of CLIL (item 50, 3.08/4).

“El CEP ha organizado algunos cursos sobre metodología AICLE pero sería necesario realizar alguna formación relativa a la enseñanza de las dinámicas comunicativas en el aula”.

“Se necesita más formación en las bases teóricas de AICLE para comprenderlo mejor y poder desarrollarlo más adecuadamente”.

Finally, a significant percentage of educators claim to have participated in some language upgrade courses in the Official Languages Schools (EOI) (item 52, 2.94/4) and they state they have taken part in at least one teacher training initiative (item 51, 3.03/4).

“Valoramos positivamente la formación ofrecida desde el CEP y el apoyo que se nos está dando desde ahí. Además se está intentando implantar la formación en el centro durante el horario matinal”.

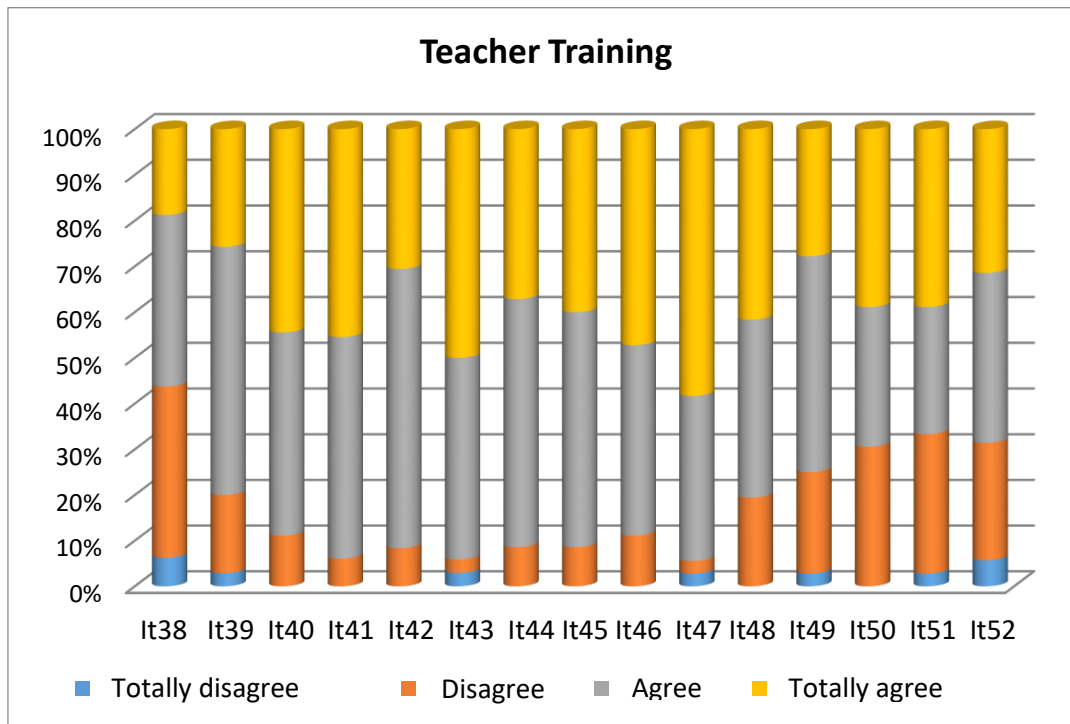
However, teachers from the private centres complain that they cannot participate in educational initiatives for training in the Andalusian Teacher Training Centres (CEP). That is why they have their own training initiatives and some mobility programmes for private schools.

Although our results about teacher training are quite optimistic, there is a significant number of teachers who call for a more suitable teacher training provision (items 38, 2.69/4 and 39, 3.03/4), something which has already transpired in many previous studies (Rubio Mostacero, 2009; Cabezas Cabello, 2010; Lancaster, 2012; Gálvez Gómez, 2013; Pérez Cañado, 2012, 2015b, 2016b; Pérez Cañado and Ráez Padilla, 2015; Milla Lara and Casas Pedrosa, 2018; Pascual Bajo, 2018), and which was also corroborated in the oral interviews. Thus, teacher training still constitutes a real problem that has to be properly addressed (cf. Table 48; Graph 84).

Items	Mean	Standard Deviation
It 38	2.69	.859
It 39	3.03	.747
It 40	3.33	.676
It 41	3.39	.609
It 42	3.22	.591
It 43	3.41	.701
It 44	3.29	.622
It 45	3.31	.631
It 46	3.36	.683

It 47	3.50	.697
It 48	3.22	.760
It 49	3.00	.793
It 50	3.08	.841
It 51	3.03	.910
It 52	2.94	.906

Table 48. Teacher training (Teachers)



Graph 84. Teacher training (Teachers)

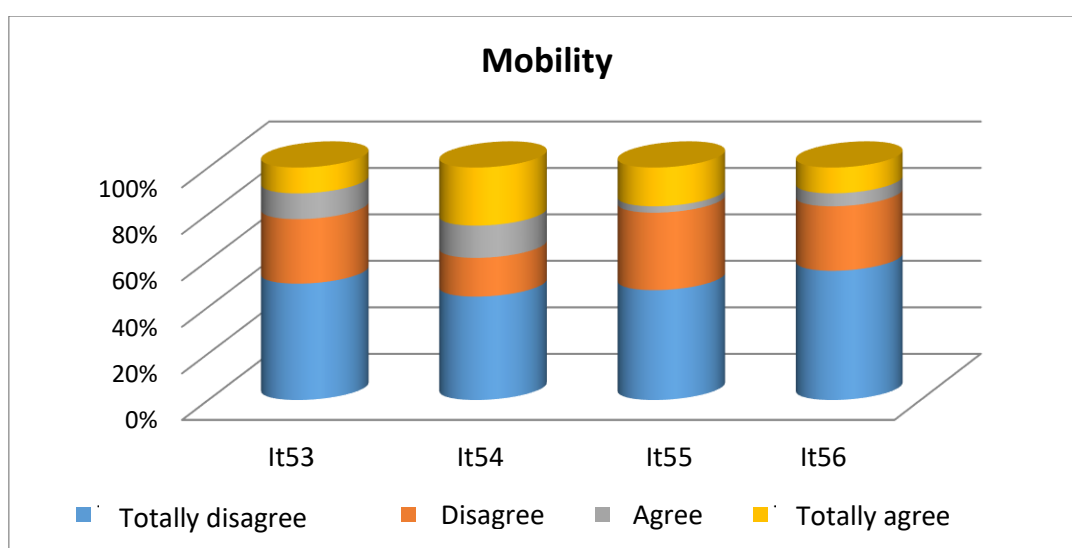
The sixth thematic block addresses the topic of *mobility*, and it reveals the most negative results obtained in the questionnaires, as most of the teachers deny taking part in mobility initiatives, which coincides with students' perceptions in this respect. In the case of exchange programmes (item 53, 1.83/4), only 20% of the teachers say they have participated, while around 30% of the educators claim they have taken part in linguistic courses abroad (item 54, 2.19/4). In the last two items, similar means are obtained, both below 2 out of 4. Hence, the graph below shows that more than 80% of the teachers have not participated in methodological courses abroad and they have not obtained any study licenses (items 55 and 56) (cf. Table 49; Graph 85).

This alarming situation, which was already described in previous investigations (Cabezas Cabello, 2010; Lancaster, 2012; Pérez Cañado, 2012; Gálvez Gómez, 2013; Pascual Bajo, 2018), needs to be reconsidered, and greater emphasis must be placed on

mobility, since it constitutes an essential aspect of teacher development, especially if we want to have specialised educators who can work successfully in a CLIL classroom.

Items	Mean	Standard Deviation
It 53	1.83	1.028
It 54	2.19	1.261
It 55	1.89	1.090
It 56	1.72	1.003

Table 49. Mobility (Teachers)



Graph 85. Mobility (Teachers)

The last block included in this questionnaire deals with aspects related to the *coordination and organisation* of the bilingual section and heterogeneous results have been obtained. To start with, most of the teachers say it is worth participating in a bilingual programme in spite of the increased workload it implies (item 57, 3.11/4), coinciding in this sense with previous researchers (Cabezas Cabello, 2010; Lorenzo et al. 2009; Rubio Mostacero, 2009). Moreover, all teachers polled consider they totally fulfill their functions within the regional Plurilingualism Plan (item 59, 3.42/4), confirming what Pascual Bajo (2018) already found out in her study.

“En general la valoración es positiva, ya que los alumnos mejoran su conocimiento de lenguas a la vez que van adquiriendo los contenidos de las distintas materias”.

“Participar en el programa bilingüe ha incrementado de forma significativa nuestra carga de trabajo, pero al final compensa y merece la pena”.

However, very negative results transpire when dealing with the support received by the educational authorities (item 61, 2.23/4). In this respect, educators consider they do not receive enough regional administrative support, something which was already acknowledged by important investigators such as Pladevall-Ballester (2015), Durán Martínez and Beltrán Llavador (2016), San Isidro and Lasagabaster (2018), and Milla Lara and Casas Pedrosa (2018). Teachers' plea for a continuous support from educational authorities and clearer guidelines to implement the programme seems to have fallen on deaf ears, which, in Pérez Cañado's words (2011, p. 398), causes "serious discrepancies between education policies and real teaching contexts".

"No se recibe el apoyo adecuado por parte de las autoridades educativas. Principalmente porque no hay control ni supervisión de este tipo de iniciativas. No hay nadie que te diga cómo impartir ni cómo aplicar el programa en clase. Te dan una serie de orientaciones generales, pero no hay un seguimiento continuado".

"No hay ningún tipo de reconocimiento por parte de la administración por pertenecer al programa bilingüe. Se trabaja mucho, pero no se reconoce".

"Nos formamos por nuestra cuenta, creamos nuestros propios materiales... Están implantando el bilingüismo en todos los centros pero no dotan de medios para ello".

Finally, different opinions are obtained vis-à-vis the figure of the bilingual coordinator. Thus, around half of the teachers consider coordinators do not fulfill all their functions within the bilingual programme (item 58, 2.71/4), although a higher number of them affirm there is a real communication between these coordinators and other bilingual schools (item 60, 3.25/4) (cf. Table 50; Graph 86).

As a conclusion for this section, it is important to mention that most teachers coincide in the fact that belonging to a bilingual section is worthwhile and the advantages it brings about are clearly ascertained, not immediately but with the passing of time (Marsh, 2000; Coyle, 2006; Merisuo-Storm, 2007; Seikkula-Leino, 2007; Marsh, 2008; Lorenzo, Casal and Moore, 2009; Lasagabaster, 2011; García Sánchez and Rodríguez Collado, 2015; Heras and Lasagabaster, 2015; Lancaster, 2015, 2016; Milla Lara and Casas Pedrosa, 2018). Moreover, they generally agree that one of the strengths of CLIL is the coordination developed within the schools and the willingness of all instructors to do their best in the implementation of the bilingual programme.

"La principal fortaleza del programa bilingüe es el personal que lo conforma. Hay una implicación muy grande por parte de todos los profesores, que trabajan con mucha ilusión".

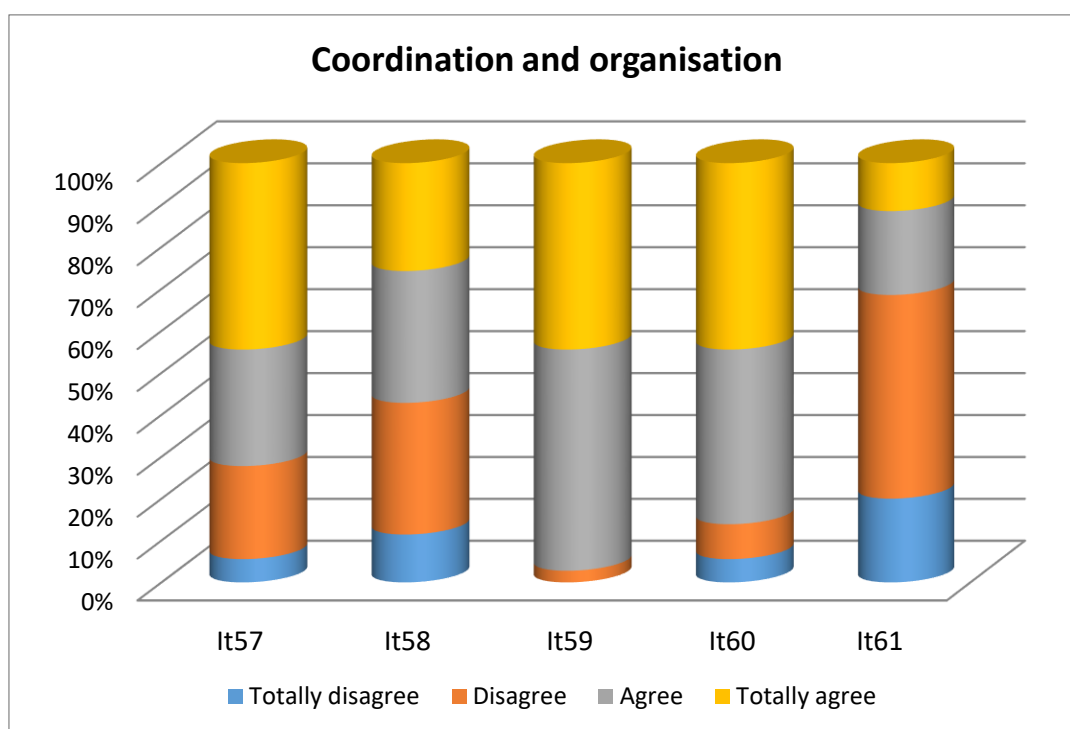
On the contrary, in terms of weaknesses, it is noticeable to see common points to reconsider. As mentioned above, the first one would be related to the support received by educational authorities and another one is attention to diversity. Most of the instructors interviewed claim that they find it very difficult to assist students with different learning rhythms in the same class. Nowadays, the ratio of the average class in Primary or Secondary Education is more than 25 students. As a result, this “excessive teacher-student ratio” (Pérez Cañado, 2011, p. 399) makes it really complex for teachers to successfully engage all pupils in a CLIL lesson, especially where there are no suitable materials to help those students. In their own view, it would be essential to organise the students according to their necessities and to their level. That way, they would receive a much more personalised attention and their academic performance would also improve, something that had already appeared in previous investigations carried out by Durán Martínez and Beltrán Llavador (2016; 2017), Pascual Bajo (2018), Fernández and Halbach (2011), Genesee and Tedick (2021), Mård-Miettinen, Arnott, and Vignola (2021) and Nikula, Skinnari and Mård-Miettinen (2022).

“Una de las principales dificultades encontradas es la existencia de alumnos con distintos niveles en una misma clase. Sería indispensable que se hicieran unos agrupamientos más homogéneos, para garantizar que la atención al alumnado con necesidades fuera mejor”.

“Habría que organizar al alumnado según las habilidades y capacidades de cada uno”.

Items	Mean	Standard Deviation
It 57	3.11	.950
It 58	2.71	.987
It 59	3.42	.554
It 60	3.25	.841
It 61	2.23	.910

Table 50. Coordination and Organisation (Teachers)



Graph 86. Coordination and organisation (Teachers)

5.1.2.2.2. Specific results

As previously done with the student cohort, the ANOVA and the T-test have allowed us to identify statistically significant differences within the teacher cohort in terms of the identification variables included at the beginning of their questionnaire. In spite of the smaller sample in comparison with that of students or parents, a valuable number of differences has been ascertained and will be discussed below. The variables that have more greatly influenced the results obtained are *type of teacher*, *administrative situation*, *English level* and *number of subjects taught through English*.

Considering the variable of *type of teacher*, a total of 25 items across all the blocks included present statistically significant differences, showcasing that FL teachers are more optimistic about the bilingual programme than NLA teachers, coinciding, in this sense, with Lancaster (2012) and Milla Lara and Casas Pedrosa (2018). In terms of their own use, competence and development of English in class, FL teachers seem to be more satisfied with the English learning of their pupils (item 2, 3.77/4) and with the development of the key competences in class (item 1, 3.62/4). Moreover, FL teachers' opinion about their students' understanding of the connection between languages is better than NLA educators' (items 6, 3.54/4 and 7, 3.62/4). In the same vein, FL teachers are

more enthusiastic about CLIL because they consider their students are more participative since they are taking part in the bilingual programme, their oral skills in the FL have also improved greatly and they have a higher sociocultural knowledge (items 9, 12 and 14). Turning to the block on methodology, FL teachers continue being more optimistic about the bilingual section, as they consider projects are more greatly employed in the FL classroom than in the non-linguistic subject class (item 16, 3.38/4), together with cooperative learning (item 18, 3.38/4). Furthermore, the recommendations of the Common European Framework of Reference and the European Language Portfolio are followed by the FL teachers more than by NLA teachers (items 20, 3.38/4 and 21, 3.31/4), perhaps due to their greater familiarity with them. When dealing with materials and resources, FL teachers continue to harbour a more optimistic view, as they consider bilingual materials to be very interesting and innovative (item 24, 3.46/4), and they also claim materials always follow communicative principles (item 26, 3.77/4), something with which non-linguistic area teachers do not seem to agree. Furthermore, the score obtained from FL teachers is also higher when enquiring into whether CLIL materials are adapted to all students and to all learning paces (item 27, 3.15/4). Finally, it is worth mentioning that interactive whiteboards are more widely used in the FL class (item 31, 3.77/4).

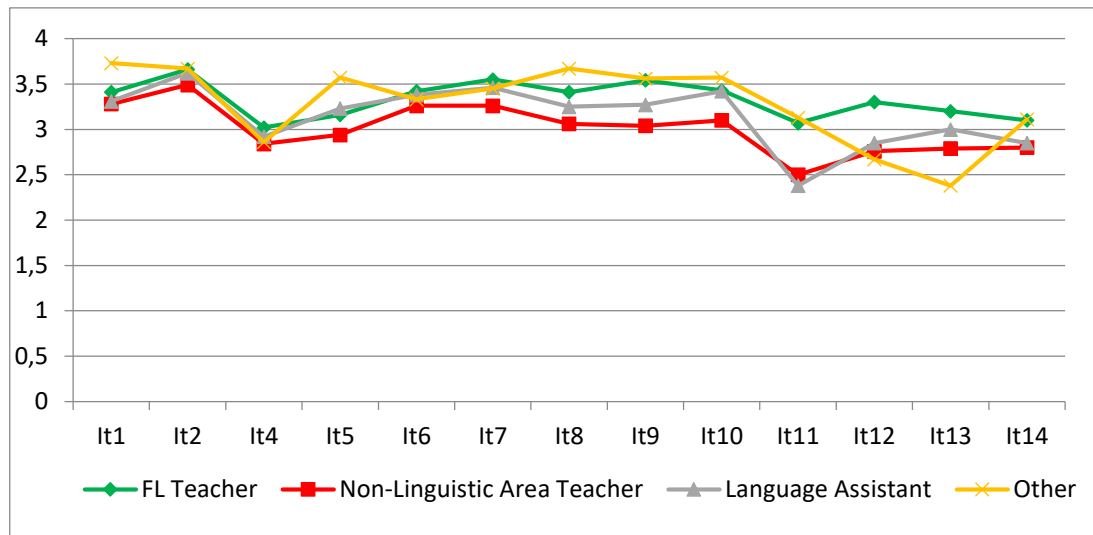
Heterogeneous results appear in the block on evaluation. Although FL teachers continue being more optimistic about CLIL (items 34, 36 and 37), significant differences in favour of non-linguistic area teachers have been found tapping into evaluation of content over language (item 35, 3.32/4). This result could be considered obvious, since non-linguistic area teachers are more interested in focusing on their content area regardless of possible mistakes students may make in the foreign language when speaking or writing. On the contrary, FL teachers' main aim is to pay special attention to the language competence of students, trying to improve pupils' skills in English.

Only three items present statistically significant differences in the block on teacher training. Curiously, these items are those related to the oral, written and sociocultural skills of teachers (items 46, 47 and 48). Thus, mirroring Milla Lara and Casas Pedrosa (2018), FL teachers consider their productive and receptive skills -both oral and written- are more suitable than non-linguistic area teachers' skills, something which also happens with their knowledge of sociocultural aspects and their intercultural awareness, with non-linguistic area teachers' averages being lower. To finish with this variable, it is important

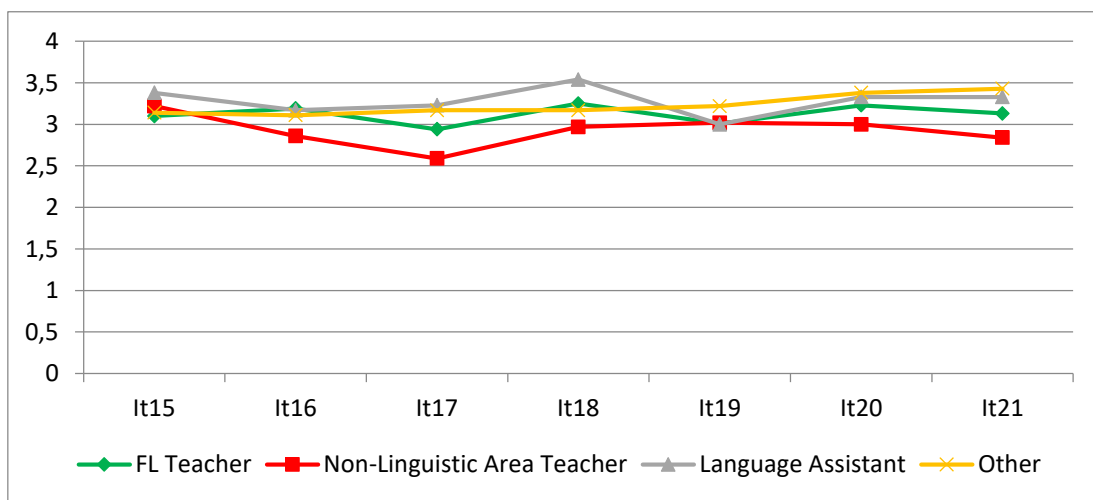
to highlight that FL teachers have taken part in more methodological courses abroad than non-linguistic area teachers (item 55, 2.38/4) and they are also more optimistic about the benefits of belonging to a bilingual section (item 57, 3.62/4). Moreover, FL teachers feel more satisfied with the support received by the governmental authorities (item 61, 3.00/4) (cf. Table 51; Graphs 87- 93).

Items	Mean		Standard Deviation		<i>p</i> value
	FL teachers	Non-linguistic area teachers	FL teachers	Non-linguistic area teachers	
It 1	3.62	3.05	.506	.486	.003
It 2	3.77	3.09	.439	.294	<0.001
It 6	3.54	2.95	.519	.375	.001
It 7	3.62	3.18	.506	.501	.021
It 9	3.54	2.91	.660	.750	.018
It 12	3.31	2.64	.480	.492	.001
It 14	3.31	2.52	.480	.602	.001
It 16	3.38	2.59	.650	.734	.004
It 18	3.38	2.86	.506	.468	.006
It 20	3.38	3.00	.650	.447	.041
It 21	3.31	2.85	.630	.587	.043
It 24	3.46	2.95	.660	.653	.033
It 26	3.77	3.14	.439	.560	.002
It 27	3.15	2.45	.801	.800	.023
It 31	3.77	2.91	.599	1.019	.008
It 34	3.69	2.95	.630	.575	.001
It 35	2.85	3.32	.555	.716	.043
It 36	3.54	2.55	.660	.912	.002
It 37	3.69	2.82	.480	.588	<0.001
It 46	3.85	3.09	.376	.684	.001
It 47	3.92	3.23	.277	.752	.002
It 48	3.85	2.86	.376	.710	<0.001
It 55	2.38	1.59	1.261	.908	.050
It 57	3.62	2.77	.650	.973	.010
It 61	3.00	1.77	.853	.612	<0.001

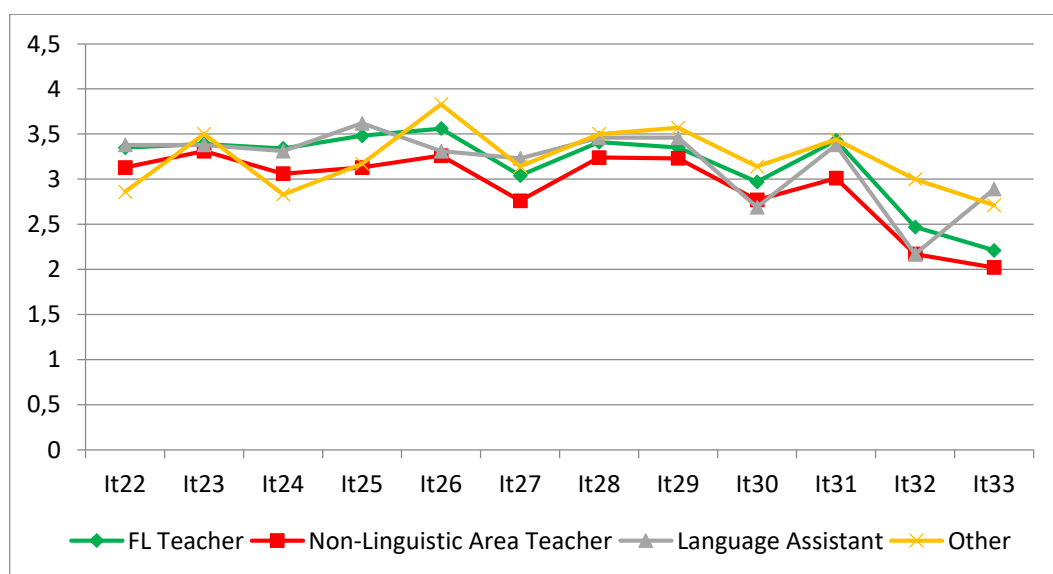
Table 51. Statistically significant differences in terms of type of teacher



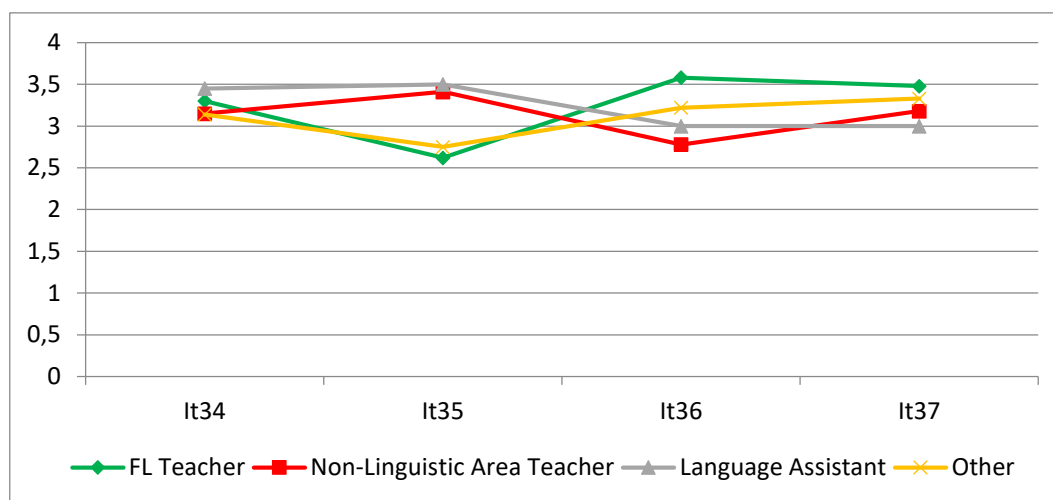
Graph 87. Stakeholder perspectives: Within-cohort comparison. Type of teacher variable (Block I)



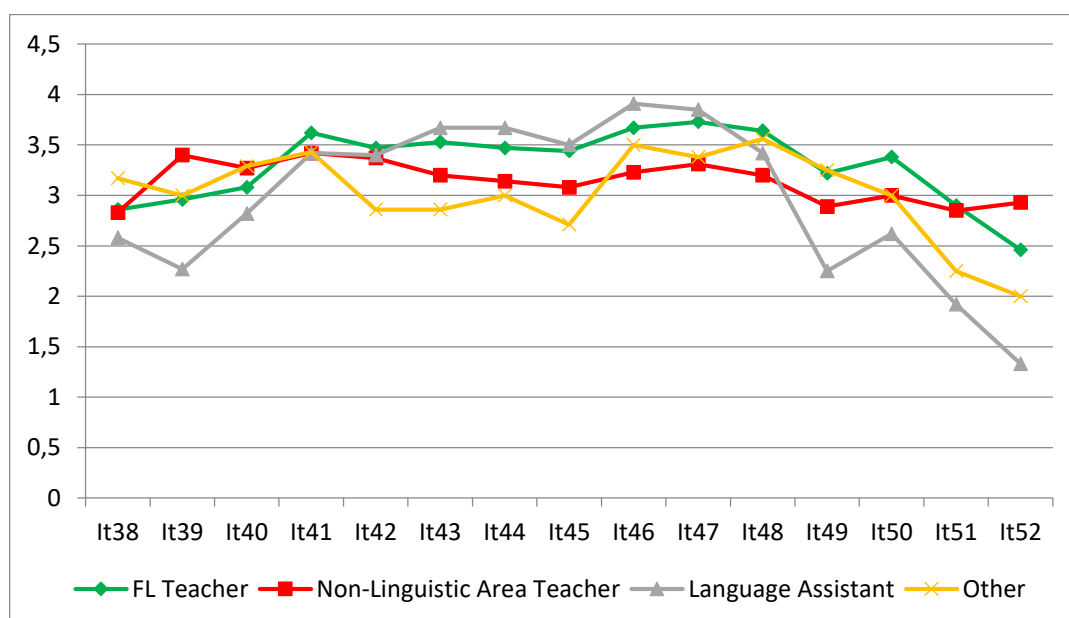
Graph 88. Stakeholder perspectives: Within-cohort comparison. Type of teacher variable (Block II)



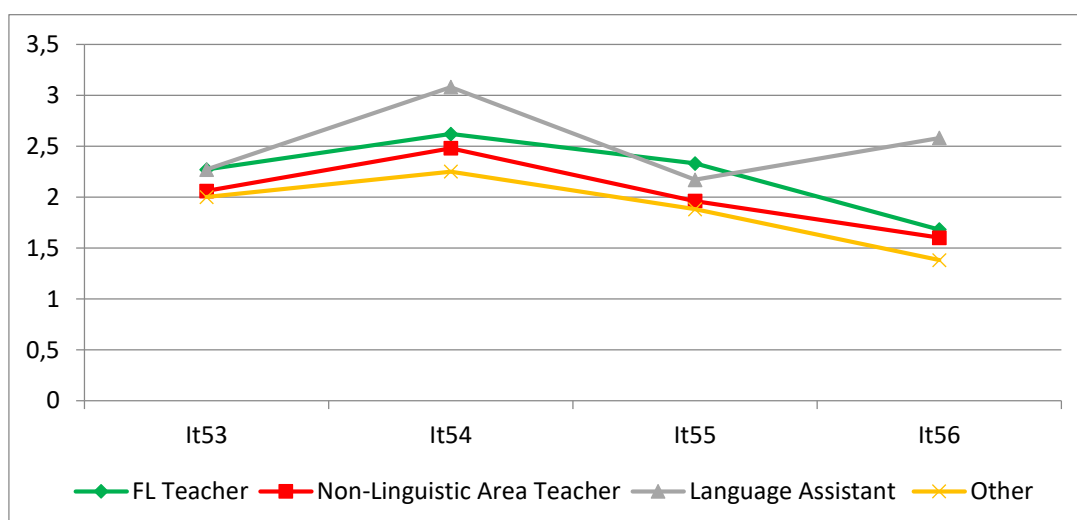
Graph 89. Stakeholder perspectives: Within-cohort comparison. Type of teacher variable (Block III)



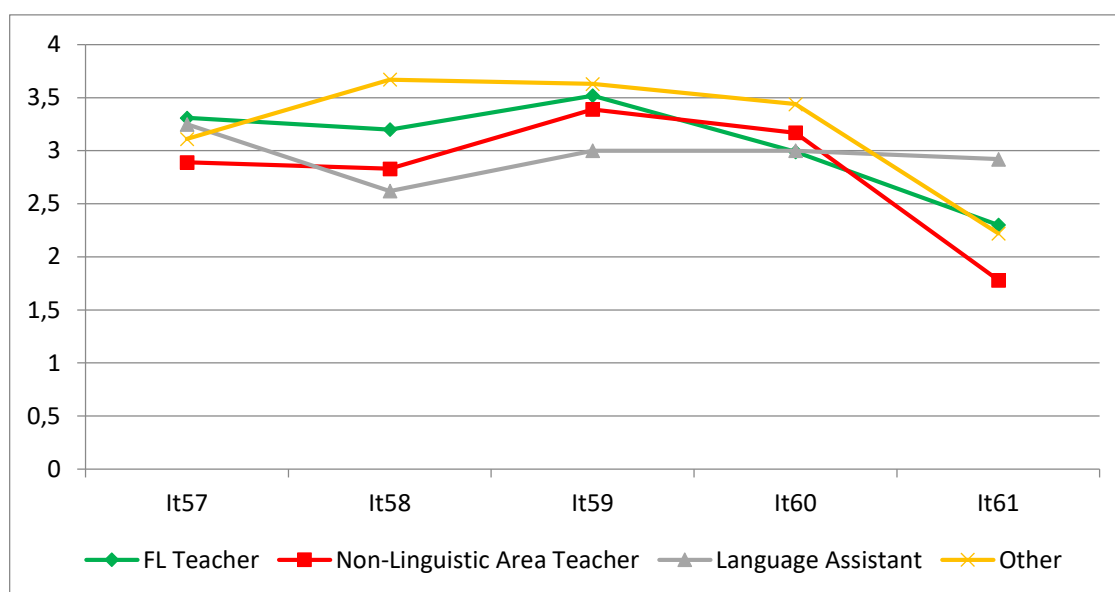
Graph 90. Stakeholder perspectives: Within-cohort comparison. Type of teacher variable (Block IV)



Graph 91. Stakeholder perspectives: Within-cohort comparison. Type of teacher variable (Block V)



Graph 92. Stakeholder perspectives: Within-cohort comparison. Type of teacher variable (Block VI)



Graph 93. Stakeholder perspectives: Within-cohort comparison. Type of teacher variable (Block VII)

The next variable to take into account is that of *teachers' administrative situation*. This variable classified teachers into civil servants with a definite post, civil servants with a temporary post, and supply teachers. Moreover, the questionnaire included the possibility for teachers to classify themselves into another category. Surprisingly, most of the statistically significant differences found in this case are in favour of the last group mentioned; that is to say, the group of teachers who are more positive about the CLIL programme are those who are not civil servants with definite or temporary posts, nor are they supply teachers, but they are classified under the heading “other”.

In block one, dealing with the teachers' use, competence and development of English in class, only six items present statistically significant differences. Thus, those teachers who are not under any of the aforementioned headings consider pupils' English level has improved to a greater extent thanks to their participation in a bilingual programme (item 2, 4.00/4). The same happens when asking about learners' understanding of the connection between languages (item 6, 3.86/4), and more specifically about the connections between English and Spanish (item 7, 3.86/4). This group of teachers, among which language assistants could be included, also consider their students are much more participative and interested in class due to their belonging to a bilingual programme (items 9, 3.86/4 and 10, 3.86/4), and they are also more positive about the oral skills of pupils (item 12, 3.71/4). Similar results are obtained in block 2 on methodology. Four items present significant differences, confirming the optimism towards CLIL by the teachers in the last category. In this respect, those teachers claim to

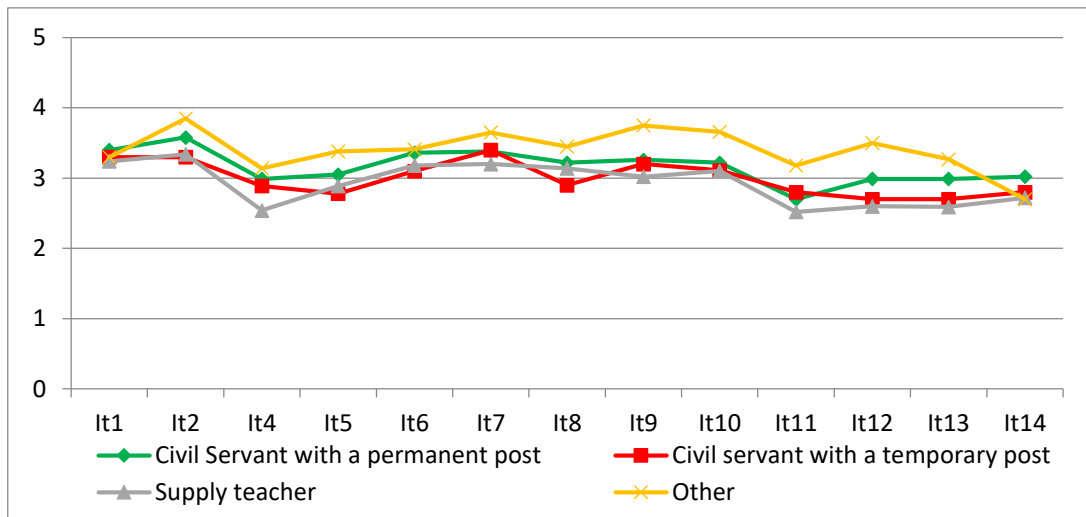
use project-based learning and cooperative learning to a greater extent than the rest of the teachers (items 16, 3.71/4 and 18, 3.71/4), and they also affirm the Common European Framework of Reference guidelines and the European Language Portfolio are clearly employed in class (items 20, 3.71/4 and 21, 3.71/4). Regarding block three on materials and resources, the same tendency is observed (items 23, 26 and 32), although civil servants with a temporary post are found to be more enthusiastic about the use of digital whiteboards in class (item 31). In the last blocks of the questionnaire, few statistically significant differences have been found, corroborating the higher positivity shown by those educators who are not civil servants or supply teachers. They consider they have a higher knowledge of sociocultural aspects in the FL (item 48, 3.86/4) and more optimistically claim that belonging to a bilingual programme is worthwhile in spite of the increased workload (item 57, 3.86/4). Finally, it is worth mentioning that the only item for which this tendency changes is item 53, for which a higher score is obtained from civil servants with a temporary post (3.00/4), who have taken part in more exchange programmes within the bilingual section (cf. Table 52; Graphs 94-100).

Items		Mean	Standard deviation	<i>p</i> value
It 2	Civil servants with a definite post	3.26	.452	.001
	Civil servants with a temporary post	3.00	.000	
	Supply teachers	3.13	.354	
	Other	4.00	.000	
It 6	Civil servants with a definite post	3.00	.333	.001
	Civil servants with a temporary post	3.00	.000	
	Supply teachers	3.00	.535	
	Other	3.86	.378	
It 7	Civil servants with a definite post	3.16	.501	.016
	Civil servants with a temporary post	3.00	.000	
	Supply teachers	3.50	.535	
	Other	3.86	.378	
It 9	Civil servants with a definite post	3.11	.737	.041
	Civil servants with a temporary post	3.00	.000	
	Supply teacher	2.75	.886	
	Other	3.86	.378	

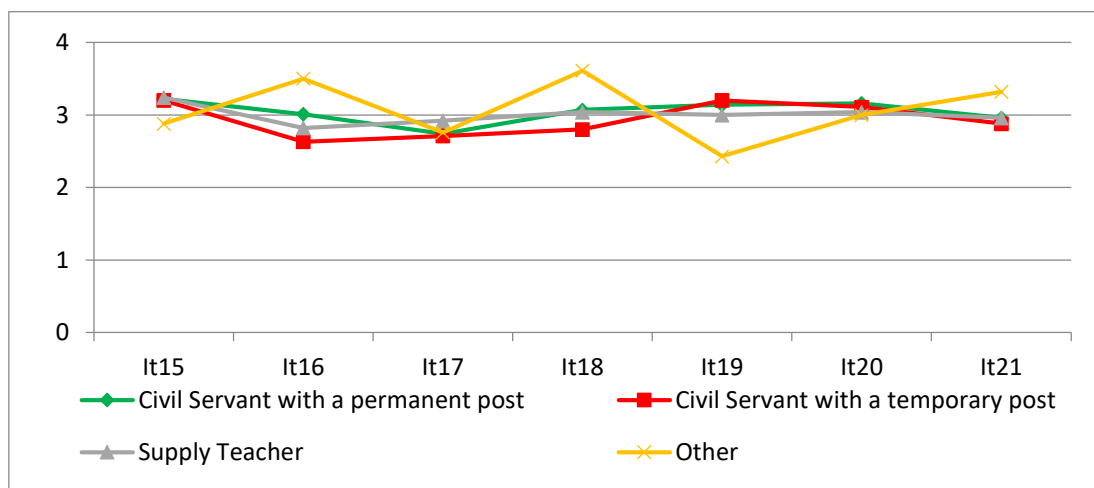
It 10	Civil servants with a definite post	3.00	.471	.003
	Civil servants with a temporary post	3.00	.000	
	Supply teachers	3.25	.463	
	Other	3.86	.378	
It 12	Civil servants with a definite post	2.79	.419	.002
	Civil servants with a temporary post	2.50	.707	
	Supply teachers	2.63	.518	
	Other	3.71	.488	
It 16	Civil servants with a definite post	2.63	.761	.024
	Civil servants with a temporary post	3.00	1.414	
	Supply teachers	2.88	.641	
	Other	3.71	.488	
It 18	Civil servants with a definite post	2.95	.405	.008
	Civil servants with a temporary post	3.00	.000	
	Supply teachers	2.88	.641	
	Other	3.71	.488	
It 20	Civil servants with a definite post	3.00	.485	.019
	Civil servants with a temporary post	3.00	.000	
	Supply teachers	3.00	.535	
	Other	3.71	.488	
It 21	Civil servants with a definite post	2.89	.583	.026
	Civil servants with a temporary post	3.00		
	Supply teachers	2.88	.641	
	Other	3.71	.488	
It 26	Civil servant with a definite post	3.21	.631	.013
	Civil servant with a temporary post	3.00	.000	
	Supply teachers	3.38	.518	
	Other	4.00	.000	
It 31	Civil servant with a definite post	3.21	.855	.014
	Civil servant with a temporary post	4.00	.000	
	Supply teachers	2.50	1.195	
	Other	4.00	.000	
It 32	Civil servant with a definite post	2.11	.737	.021
	Civil servant with a temporary post	2.50	.707	
	Supply teacher	1.75	.463	
	Other	2.86	.690	
It 34	Civil servant with a definite post	3.21	.535	.004

	Civil servant with a temporary post	2.50	.707	
	Supply teacher	2.88	.835	
	Other	4.00	.000	
It 36	Civil servant with a definite post	2.79	.918	.004
	Civil servant with a temporary post	2.50	.707	
	Supply teacher	2.50	.926	
	Other	4.00	.000	
It 37	Civil servant with a definite post	3.05	.705	.023
	Civil servant with a temporary post	3.00	.000	
	Supply teacher	2.88	.641	
	Other	3.86	.378	
It 48	Civil servant with a definite post	2.95	.705	.040
	Civil servant with a temporary post	3.00	1.414	
	Supply teacher	3.38	.744	
	Other	3.86	.378	
It 53	Civil servant with a definite post	1.84	1.015	.039
	Civil servant with a temporary post	3.00	1.414	
	Supply teachers	1.13	.354	
	Other	2.29	1.113	
It 57	Civil servant with a definite post	2.74	.872	.019
	Civil servant with a temporary post	2.50	2.121	
	Supply teachers	3.50	.756	
	Other	3.86	.378	
It 61	Civil servant with a definite post	2.11	.900	.003
	Civil servant with a temporary post	1.50	.707	
	Supply teacher	1.75	.463	
	Other	3.29	.488	

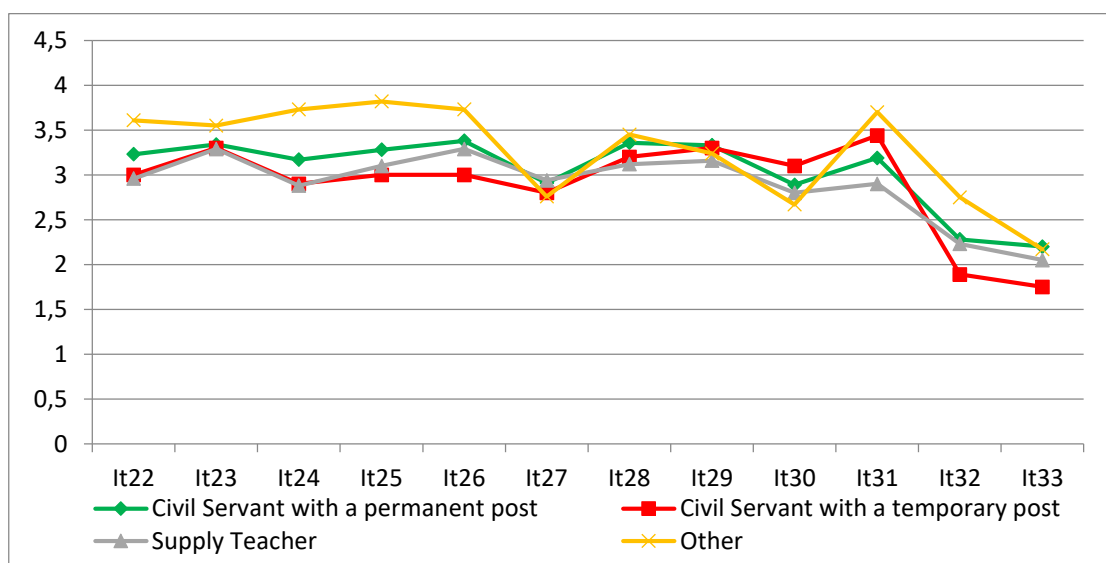
Table 52. Statistically significant differences in terms of teachers' administrative situation



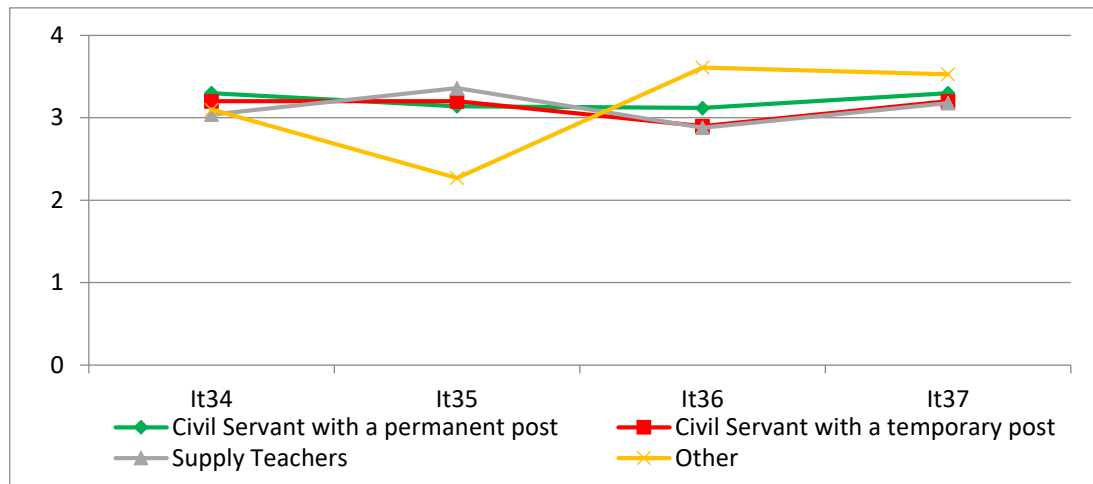
Graph 94. Stakeholder perspectives: Within-cohort comparison. Teachers' administrative situation variable. (Block I)



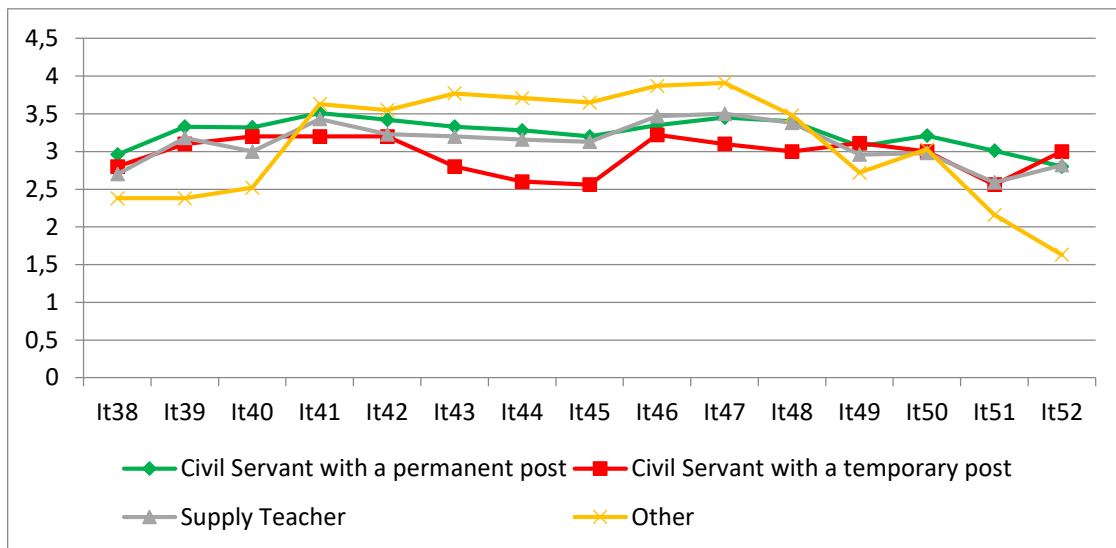
Graph 95. Stakeholder perspectives: Within-cohort comparison. Teachers' administrative situation variable. (Block II)



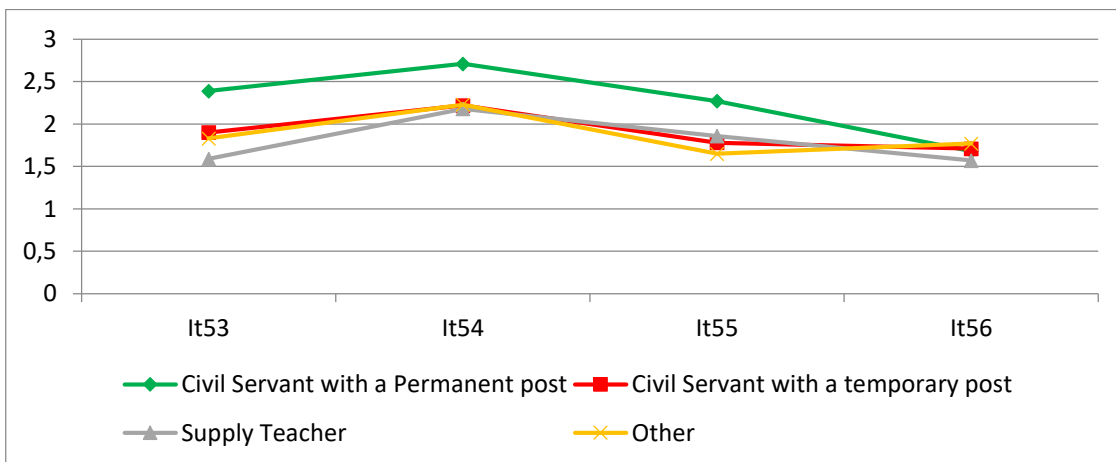
Graph 96. Stakeholder perspectives: Within-cohort comparison. Teachers' administrative situation variable. (Block III)



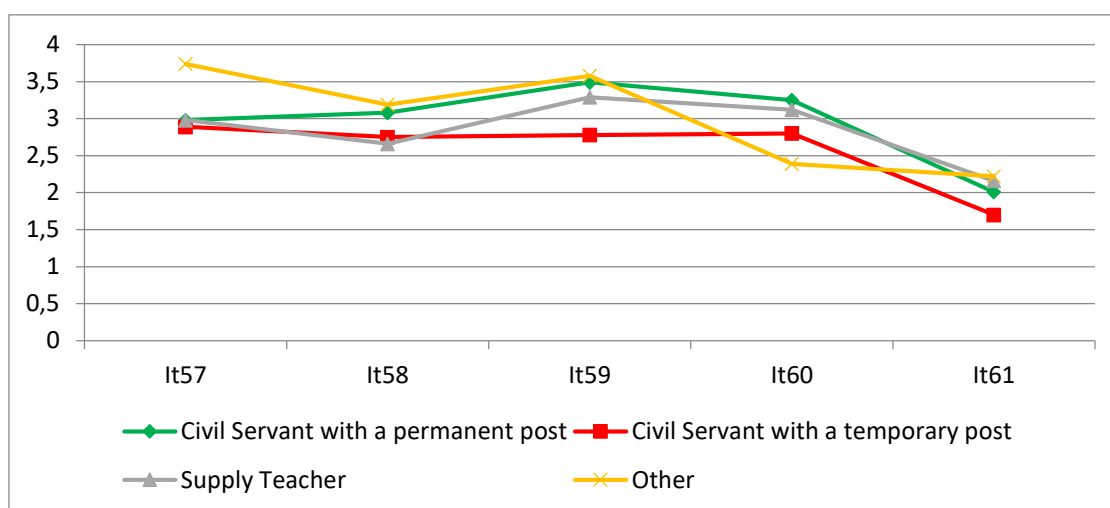
Graph 97. Stakeholder perspectives: Within-cohort comparison. Teachers' administrative situation variable. (Block IV)



Graph 98. Stakeholder perspectives: Within-cohort comparison. Teachers' administrative situation variable. (Block V)



Graph 99. Stakeholder perspectives: Within-cohort comparison. Teachers' administrative situation variable. (Block VI)



Graph 100. Stakeholder perspectives: Within-cohort comparison. Teachers' administrative situation variable. (Block VII)

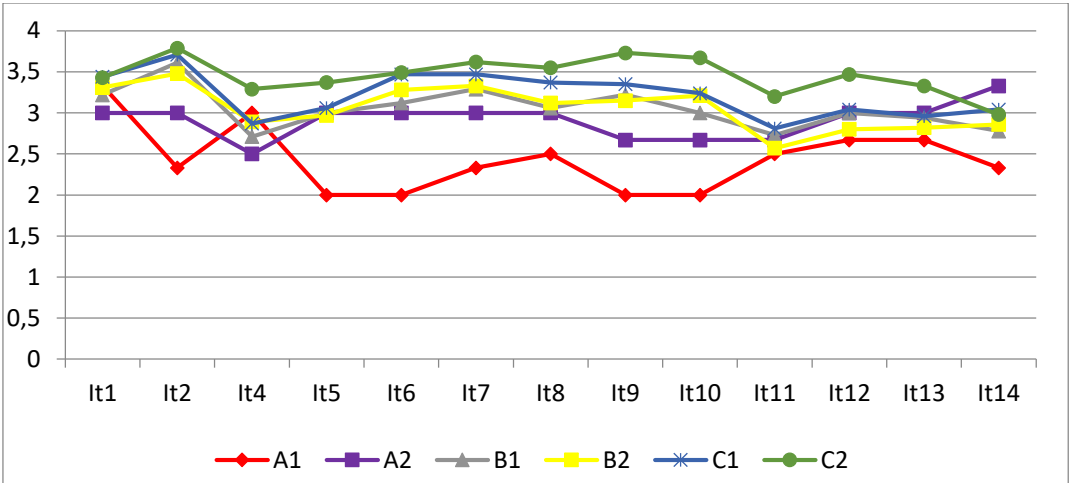
The variable *English level* has also yielded important differences across all the blocks of the questionnaire. Heterogeneous results are obtained in this case, being the extremes, that is to say, those teachers who possess a B1 or C2 level in English, those in favour of which the differences have been found. To start with, teachers whose level in the FL is a B1 are more optimistic about their pupils' improvement in English (item 2, 4.00/4) and about the use of project-based learning within the bilingual classroom (item 16, 4.00/4). Moreover, they claim to be satisfied with the materials employed since communicative principles are always followed (item 26, 4.00/4). Significant differences have also been found when dealing with online resources, corroborating the greater enthusiasm shown by those educators who have a B1 level in English (item 29, 4.00/4). Curiously, the teachers with the lowest level in the FL are those who best value their own skills in English, claiming that they have adequate written and oral skills as well as suitable sociocultural knowledge (items 46, 47 and 48). In the same vein, those teachers with a B1 level are the most optimistic about CLIL on the whole (item 57, 4.00/4). On the other hand, the teachers whose level of English is the highest (C2) are more positive about the development of the key competences in class (item 1, 4.00/4), about pupils' understanding of the connection between languages (item 6, 3.67/4) and about the increased interest shown by students (item 10, 4.00/4). Moreover, these teachers offer the best opinions in relation to the adaptation of materials to cater for diversity in class (item 27) and regarding the governmental support received (item 61, 3.00/4) (cf. Table 53; Graphs 101- 107).

Items		Mean	Standard deviation	<i>p</i> value
It 1	B1	3.50	.707	.012
	B2	3.00	.485	
	C1	3.45	.522	
	C2	4.00	.000	
It 2	B1	4.00	.000	.032
	B2	3.17	.383	
	C1	3.55	.522	
	C2	3.67	.577	
It 5	B1	3.00	1.414	.015
	B2	2.82	.529	
	C1	3.18	.405	
	C2	4.00	.000	
It 6	B1	3.50	.707	.035
	B2	2.94	.416	
	C1	3.36	.505	
	C2	3.67	.577	
It 7	B1	4.00	.000	.023
	B2	3.17	.514	
	C1	3.45	.522	
	C2	4.00	.000	
It 10	B1	3.50	.707	.036
	B2	3.11	.471	
	C1	3.27	.467	
	C2	4.00	.000	
It 16	B1	4.00	.000	.025
	B2	2.61	.850	
	C1	3.09	.539	
	C2	3.67	.577	
It 26	B1	4.00	.000	.018
	B2	3.11	.583	
	C1	3.73	.467	
	C2	3.67	.577	
It 27	B1	3.50	.707	.042
	B2	2.39	.778	
	C1	2.91	.831	

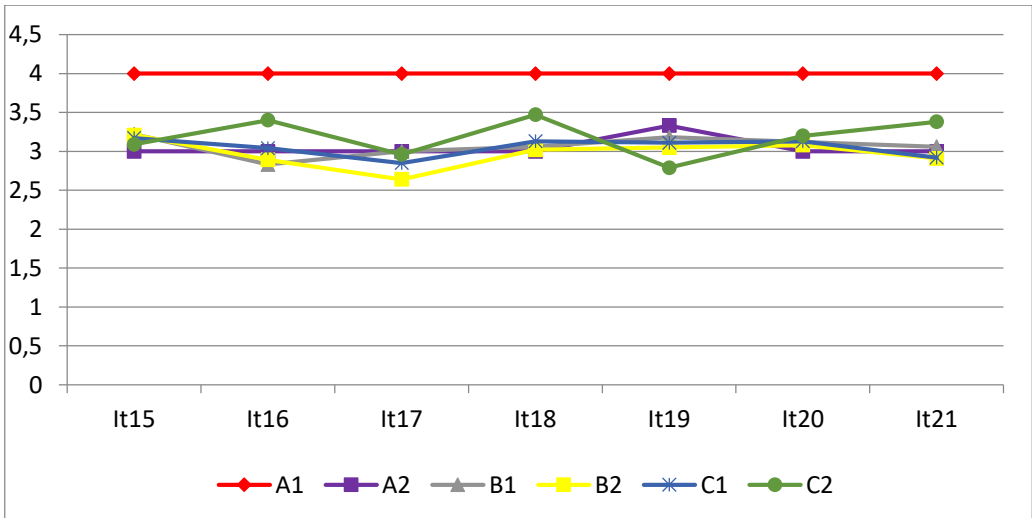
	C2	3.67	.577	
It 29	B1	4.00	.000	.048
	B2	3.28	.669	
	C1	3.45	.522	
	C2	2.33	.577	
It 34	B1	4.00	.000	.009
	B2	2.94	.539	
	C1	3.45	.820	
	C2	4.00	.000	
It 37	B1	4.00	.000	.022
	B2	2.83	.618	
	C1	3.36	.674	
	C2	3.67	.577	
It 46	B1	4.00	.000	.002
	B2	2.94	.639	
	C1	3.82	.405	
	C2	3.67	.577	
It 47	B1	4.00	.000	.013
	B2	3.17	.786	
	C1	3.91	.302	
	C2	3.67	.577	
It 48	B1	4.00	.000	.004
	B2	2.78	.647	
	C1	3.64	.674	
	C2	3.67	.577	
It 50	B1	4.00	.000	.026
	B2	2.78	.732	
	C1	3.27	.905	
	C2	4.00	.000	
It 51	B1	4.00	.000	.042
	B2	2.67	.840	
	C1	3.45	.934	
	C2	3.33	.577	
It 57	B1	4.00	.000	.006
	B2	2.61	.979	
	C1	3.73	.467	
	C2	3.67	.577	

It 61	B1	2.50	.707	.006
	B2	1.72	.669	
	C1	2.90	.876	
	C2	3.00	1.000	

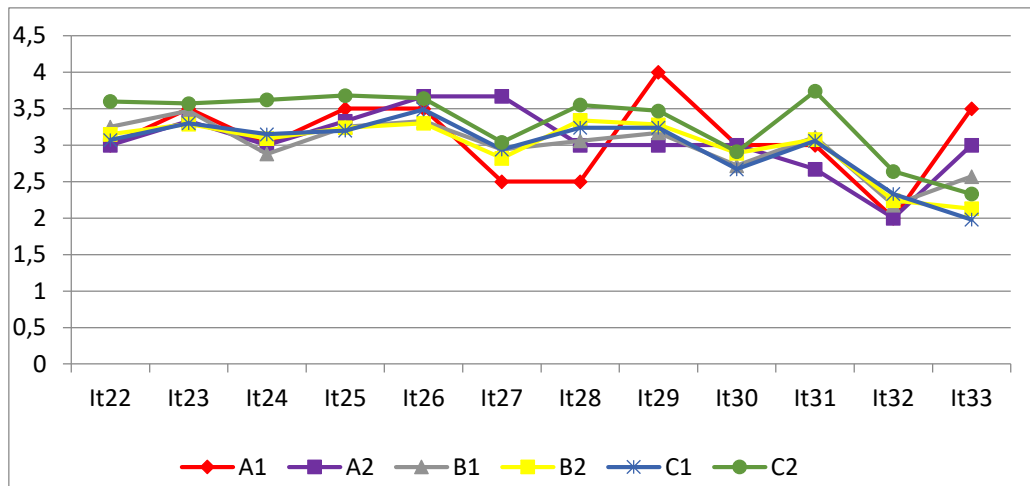
Table 53. Statistically significant differences in terms of English level (Teachers)



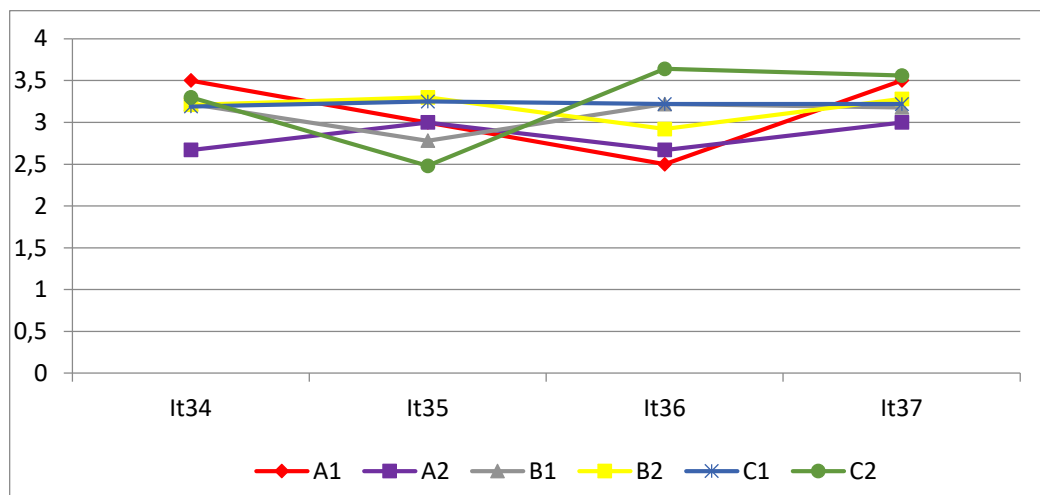
Graph 101. Stakeholder perspectives: Within-cohort comparison. Teacher's English level variable. (Block I)



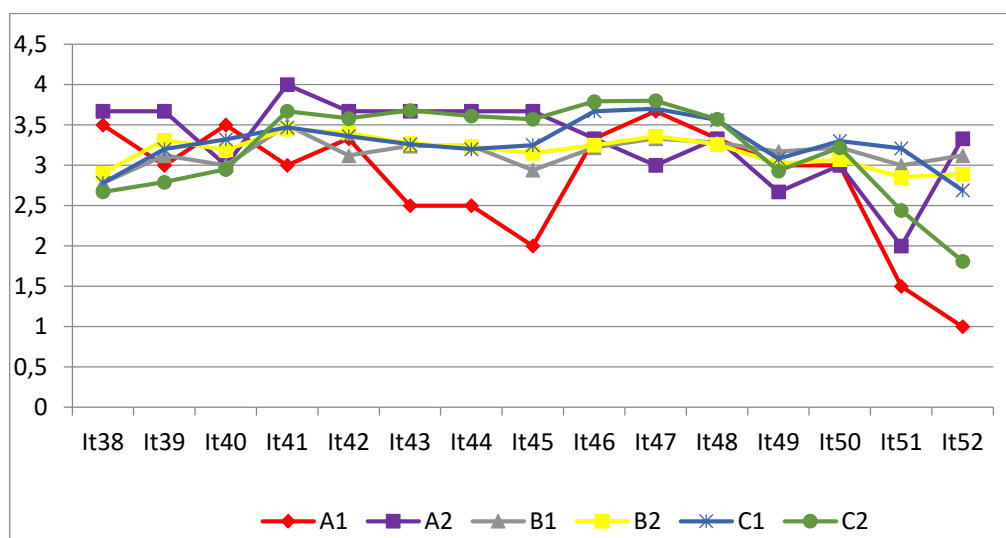
Graph 102. Stakeholder perspectives: Within-cohort comparison. Teacher's English level variable (Block II)



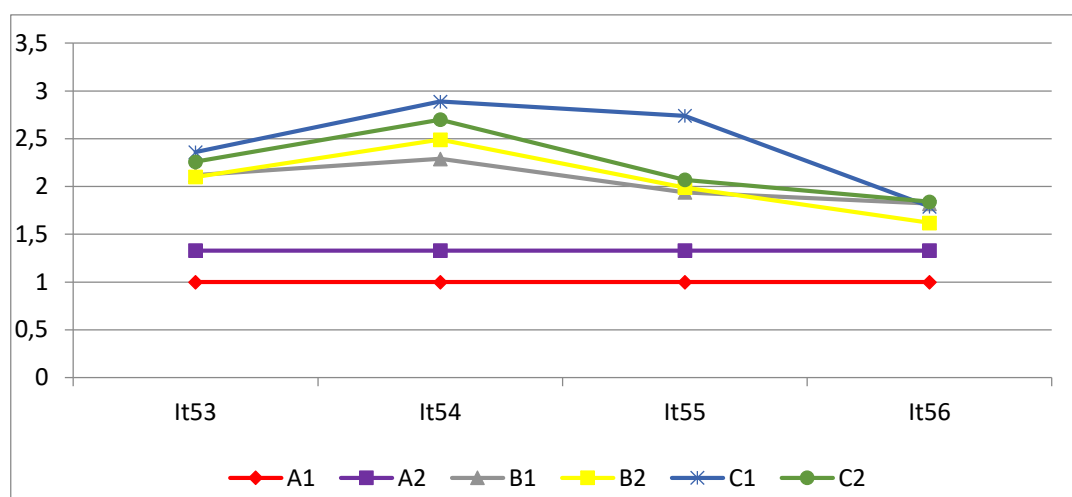
Graph 103. Stakeholder perspectives: Within-cohort comparison. Teacher's English level variable. (Block III)



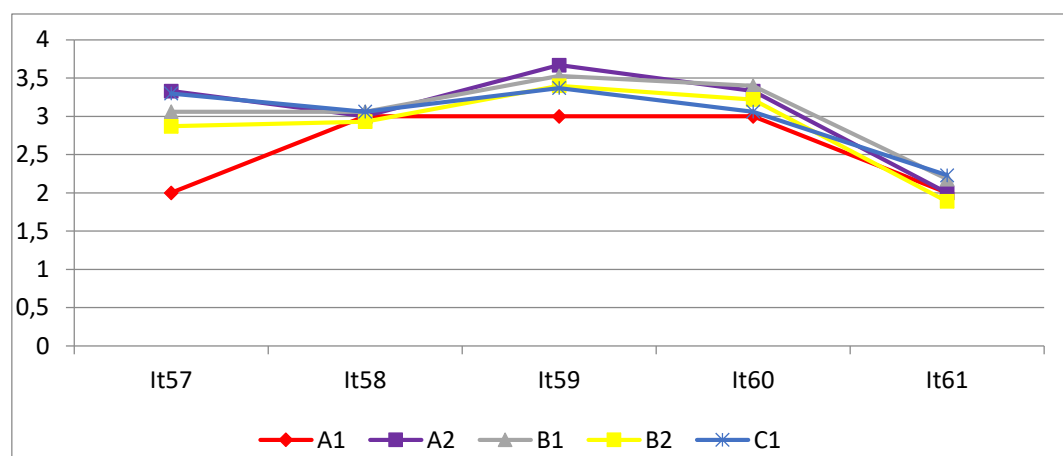
Graph 104. Stakeholder perspectives: Within-cohort comparison. Teacher's English level variable. (Block IV)



Graph 105. Stakeholder perspectives: Within-cohort comparison. Teacher's English level variable. (Block V)



Graph 106. Stakeholder perspectives: Within-cohort comparison. Teacher's English level variable. (Block VI)

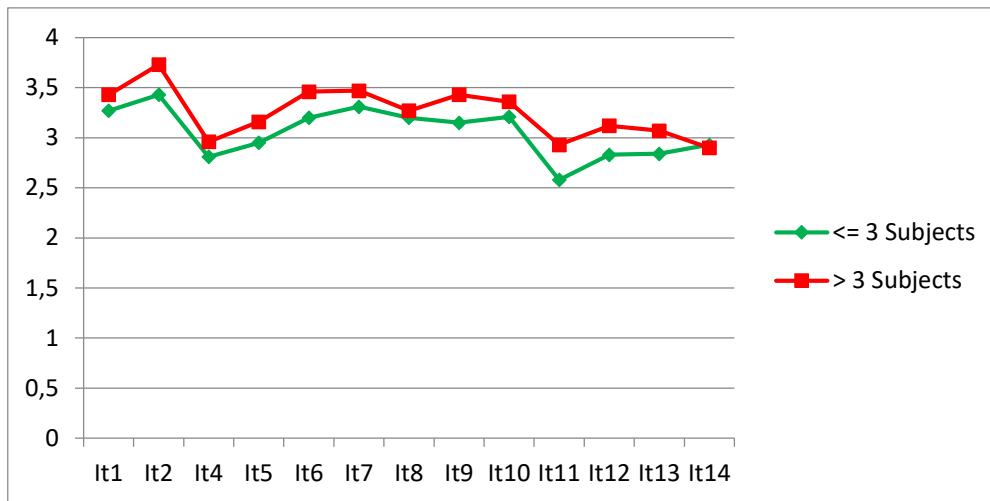


Graph 107. Stakeholder perspectives: Within-cohort comparison. Teacher's English level variable. (Block VII)

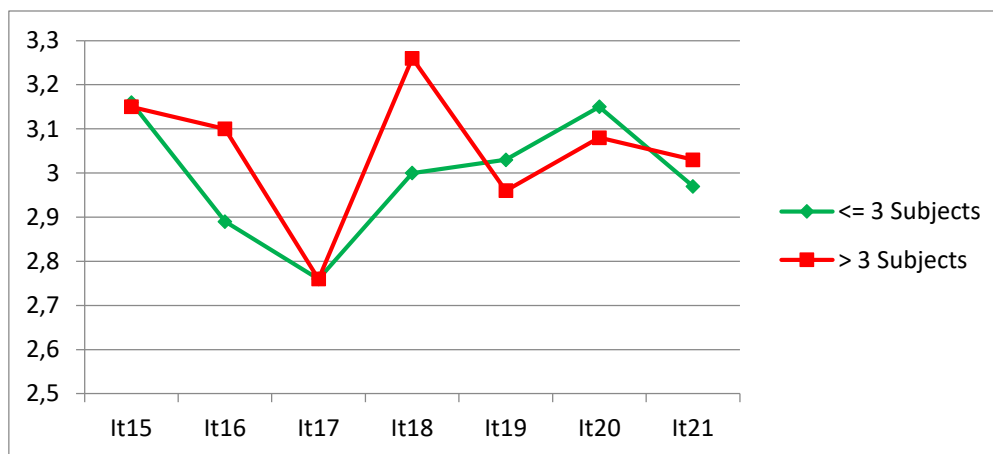
The last identification variable to take into consideration for the explanation of the specific results obtained for teachers is the *number of subjects taught through the FL*. Here, we distinguish between those teachers who work in a school where three or fewer subjects are offered through English and those educators whose students are taught more than three subjects in the FL. The tendency found here is clear: the more subjects taught through the FL, the better opinions teachers have about CLIL, coinciding with the students' perceptions. Thus, statistically significant differences in favour of the aforementioned teachers have been found on all the blocks of the questionnaire, with block three on materials and resources being the one where most of the differences have been detected. It is not surprising to see, then, that students and teachers' perceptions improve when exposure to English is increased (cf. Table 54; Graphs 108-114).

Items	Mean		Standard Deviation		<i>p</i> value
	<= 3	> 3	<= 3	> 3	
It 1	3.15	3.63	.543	.518	.037
It 2	3.15	4.00	.368	.000	<0.001
It 9	2.96	3.88	.774	.354	.004
It 11	2.46	3.00	.761	.535	,
It 14	2.72	3.38	.542	.518	.008
It 16	2.69	3.50	.736	.756	.013
It 19	2.92	3.63	.628	.518	.005
It 23	2.92	3.75	.796	.463	.008
It 24	3.04	3.63	.720	.518	.042
It 25	3.12	3.88	.711	.354	.007
It 26	3.19	4.00	.567	.000	.001
It 27	2.50	3.50	.812	.535	.003
It 28	3.31	4.00	.679	.000	.006
It 29	3.08	3.88	.628	.354	.002
It 31	3.04	4.00	.999	.000	.007
It 34	3.04	3.88	.662	.354	.002
It 36	2.73	3.75	.962	.463	.006
It 37	2.92	3.88	.628	.354	.001
It 47	3.35	3.88	.745	.354	.042
It 53	1.46	2.50	.647	1.195	.016
It 56	1.50	2.25	.860	1.035	.031
It 57	2.81	3.88	.939	.354	.003
It 58	2.40	3.50	.816	1.069	.005
It 61	2.00	3.13	.800	.641	.001

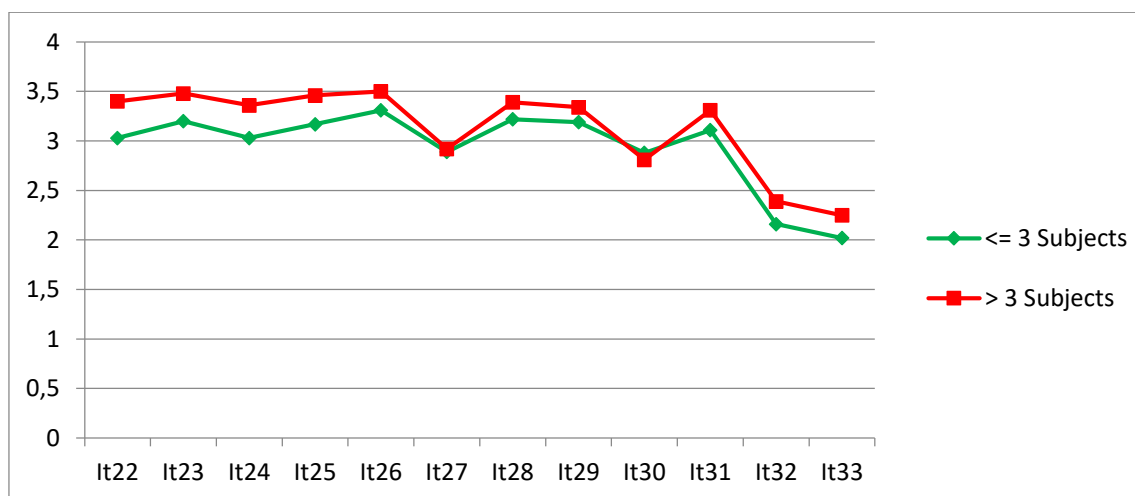
Table 54. Statistically significant differences in terms of number of subjects taught through CLIL (Teachers)



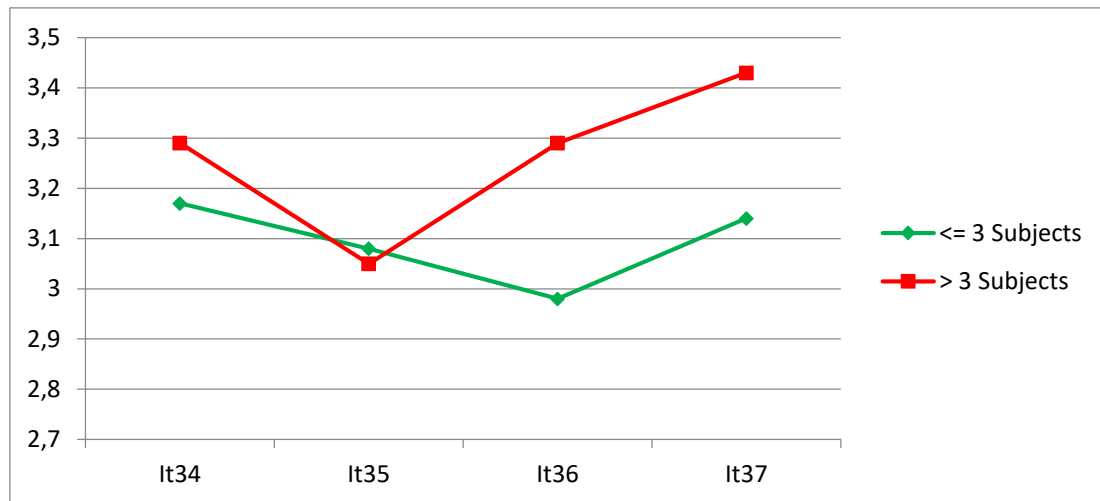
Graph 108. Stakeholder perspectives: Within-cohort comparison. Number of subjects taught in the FL. (Block I)



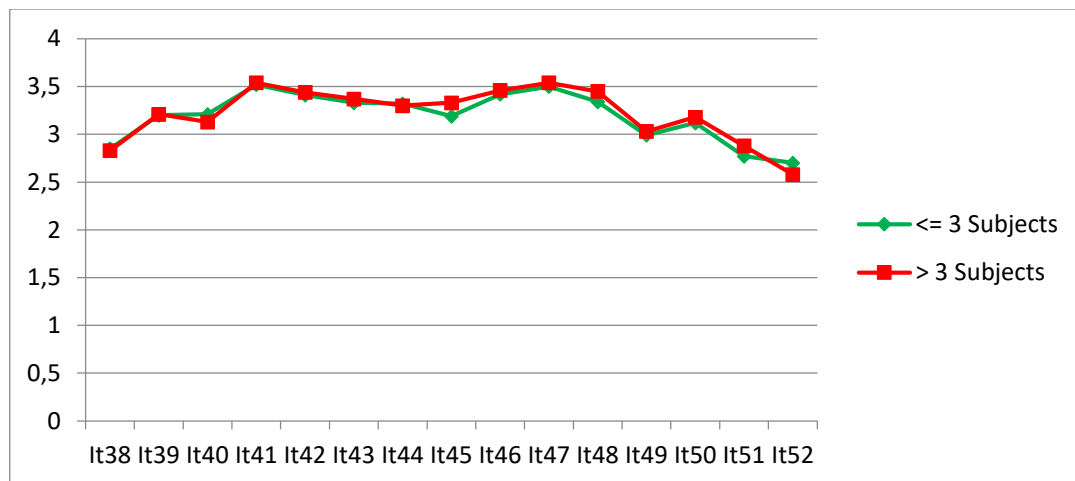
Graph 109. Stakeholder perspectives: Within-cohort comparison. Number of subjects taught in the FL. (Block II)



Graph 110. Stakeholder perspectives: Within-cohort comparison. Number of subjects taught in the FL. (Block III)



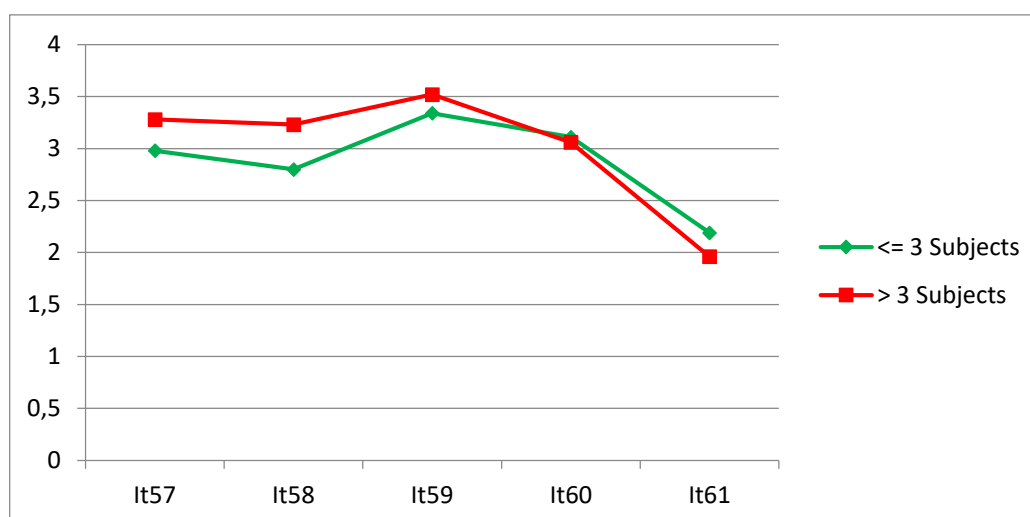
Graph 111. Stakeholder perspectives: Within-cohort comparison. Number of subjects taught in the FL. (Block IV)



Graph 112. Stakeholder perspectives: Within-cohort comparison. Number of subjects taught in the FL. (Block V)



Graph 113. Stakeholder perspectives: Within-cohort comparison. Number of subjects taught in the FL. (Block VI)



Graph 114. Stakeholder perspectives: Within-cohort comparison. Number of subjects taught in the FL. (Block VII)

5.1.2.3. Parents

After describing teachers' and students' perspectives on CLIL, the last cohort to be analysed is that of parents. Due to the importance of parents within the school development of their children, families' attitudes and perspectives on the methodology through which their children are being taught need to be evaluated. As with the previous cohorts, global results will be presented first and then specific results will be explained, taking into account each thematic block included in their questionnaires. Since oral interviews were not carried out with parents, only the results obtained from the questionnaires will be included in the subsection below.

5.1.2.3.1. Global results

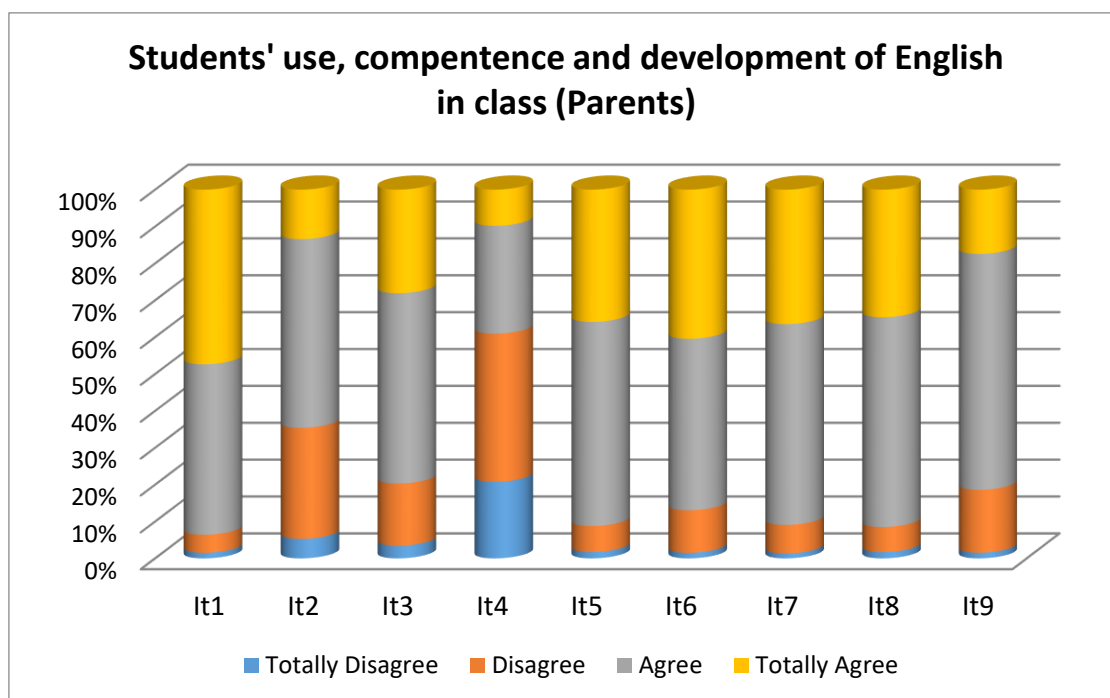
In congruence with both teachers and students, a generally positive outlook was obtained on the part of families. Thus, in the first block of the questionnaire, dealing with the *students' use, competence and development of English in class*, encouraging results have been found. Coinciding with the results of previous investigations (Lorenzo et al. 2009; Gálvez Gómez, 2013; Pascual Bajo, 2018; Oxbrow, 2020), most parents agree that their children's level of English has increased due to their participation in a bilingual programme (item 1, 3.38/4). They also claim that students' knowledge of how languages work and the connection between languages (item 5, 3.28/4) has improved, as has occurred with their level of confidence within the classroom (item 6, 3.17/4).

In the same line, higher scores on the part of parents are obtained when asked if their children have ameliorated their production and comprehension skills in English (items 7, 3.23/4 and 8, 3.29/4), something which is also acknowledged by Ráez Padilla (2018). Similarly, although with a slightly lower average, the families polled think their children have an adequate knowledge of sociocultural aspects in English (item 9, 2.96/4), with this consideration being the most positively valued in comparison with the other cohorts.

Moreover, there is a general satisfaction with the content aspect, as most parents attest to an enhanced content knowledge on the part of students (item 3, 3.17/4), and do not consider their children have more difficulties in learning content subjects through a FL (item 4, 2.33/4), something which was already acknowledged by Oxbrow (2020) and runs counter to Anghel, Cabrales and Carro's findings (2016). However, heterogeneous results transpire when speaking about the effect of CLIL on the L1. In this case, coinciding with students and teachers, parents are not totally sure if their children's Spanish competence has improved due to their participation in a bilingual programme (item 2, 2.81/4). As Oxbrow puts it, there is some degree of uncertainty about the impact of CLIL on L1 development (2020, p. 108). Similarly, Raéz Padilla (2018, p. 187) also showed parents' negativity in this respect (cf. Table 55; Graph 115).

Items	Mean	Standard Deviation
It 1	3.38	.606
It 2	2.81	.867
It 3	3.17	.694
It 4	2.33	.930
It 5	3.28	.540
It 6	3.17	.753
It 7	3.23	.660
It 8	3.29	.617
It 9	2.96	.582

Table 55. Students' use, competence and development of English in class (Parents)

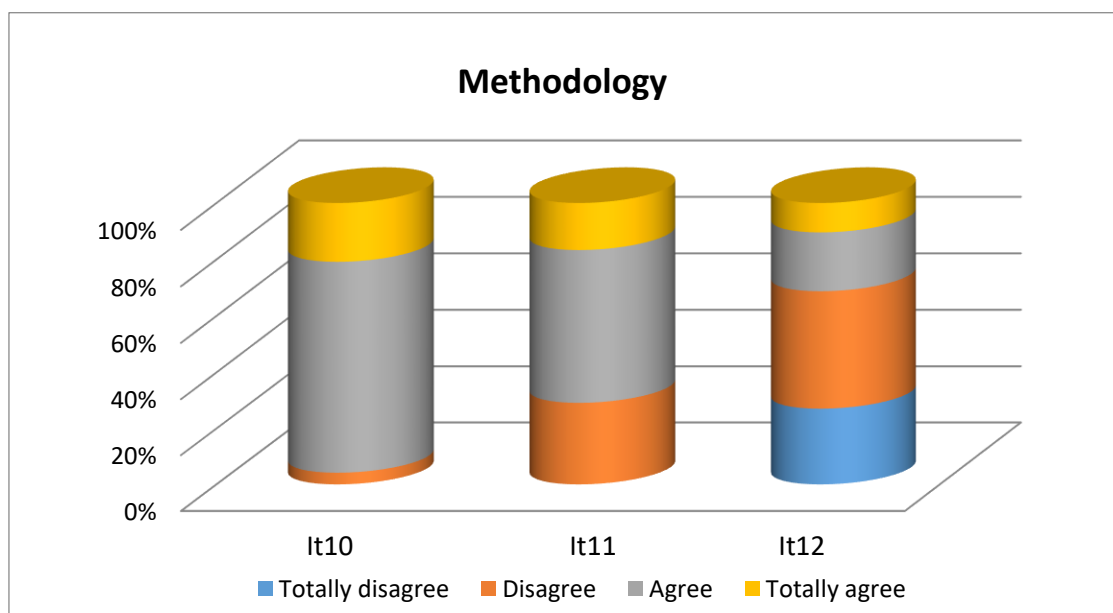


Graph 115. Students' use, competence and development of English in class (Parents)

Turning now to the second block of the questionnaire, which incorporates three items related to *methodology*, different perspectives have been obtained. The most positive views are detected in the first item of the block, which refers to the amount of vocabulary learnt in the CLIL classroom (item 10, 3.17/4). Hence, it can be ascertained that, in Ráez Padilla's words: "the Lexical Approach is yielding positive results" (2018, p. 187). However, some disagreement exists when speaking about the degree of innovation which CLIL methodologies employ, with the score obtained for this item being below 3 out of 4 (item 11, 2.88/4). Thus, an important number of families consider CLIL methodology is not so innovative and student-centred. The last item of this block reveals the lowest average and, therefore, the most negative perceptions, proving that most parents feel totally unable to help their children with homework as they do not have enough competence in English to do so (item 12, 2.15/4). This issue has already been documented in previous studies (Cabezas Cabello, 2010; Gálvez Gómez, 2013; Pérez Cañado, 2018a; Ráez Padilla, 2018; Pascual Bajo, 2018; Barrios and Milla Lara, 2020) and needs to be considered to diminish families' stress and to foster their engagement in their children's education (cf. Table 56; Graph 116).

Items	Mean	Standard Deviation
It 10	3.17	.476
It 11	2.88	.672
It 12	2.15	.945

Table 56. Methodology (Parents)



Graph 116. Methodology (Parents)

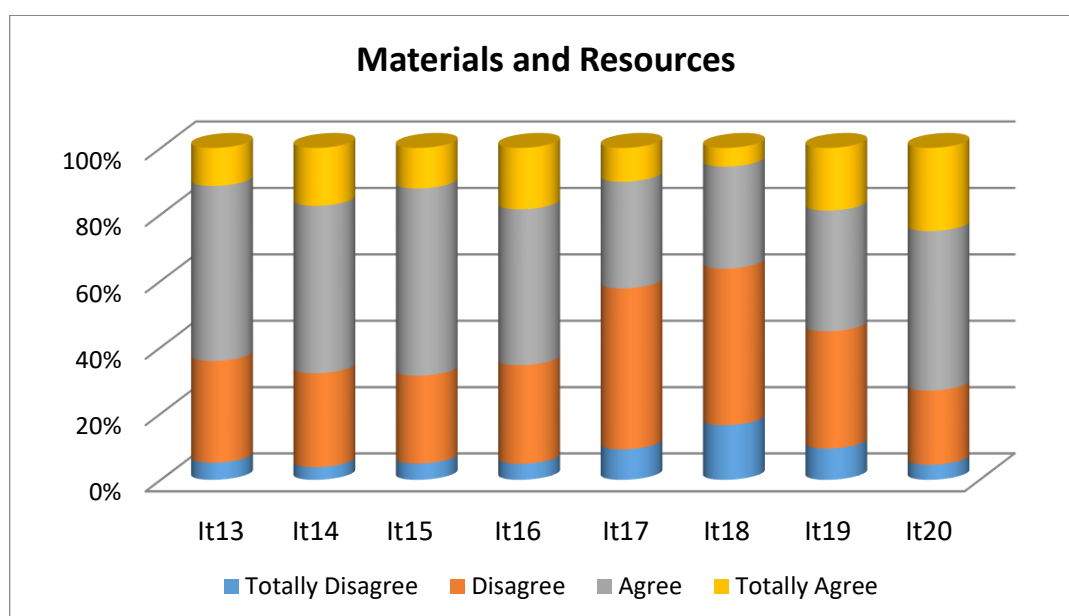
Varied perspectives transpire in the third block of the questionnaire, which deals with *materials, resources and ICTs* within the bilingual classroom. Although positive results are still obtained, a higher level of negativity can be observed, as most of the scores obtained in this block are below 3 out of 4. Around 65% of parents agree that the materials used in the bilingual section are interesting and innovative (item 13, 2.81/4), seem to foster communication in English inside and outside the classroom (item 14, 2.96/4), and cater to diversity (item 15, 2.85/4). On the contrary, 30% of them are more critical in this respect, echoing Cabezas Cabello's (2010), Lancaster's (2016) and Ráez Padilla's (2018) results. Digital materials and ICTs are also positively valued by parents, since they consider new technologies are widely used in the CLIL classroom, something which differs from the perceptions of teachers and students (item 16, 2.94/4).

The last items included in this block are specifically aimed at parents and are the ones evincing the most negative responses. In line with Ráez Padilla (2018, p. 188), most parents do not think CLIL materials are necessarily more expensive (item 17, 2.38/4), but

they complain that materials do not incorporate any kind of guidelines in Spanish for them to follow and be able to help their children (item 18, 2.13/4), a concern which already transpired in the results about methodology above and which was already mentioned in previous studies like the ones developed by Cabezas Cabello (2010), Gálvez Gómez (2013), Lancaster (2015) and Ráez Padilla (2018). Similar averages are obtained for the last two items of the block, which show heterogeneous opinions on the children's exposure to English outside the classroom (item 19, 2.75/4) and on the students' suitable access to CLIL materials outside the school (item 20, 3.00/4), with the perceptions on this last item being somewhat more positive (cf. Table 57; Graph 117).

Items	Mean	Standard Deviation
It 13	2.81	.704
It 14	2.96	.690
It 15	2.85	.625
It 16	2.94	.727
It 17	2.38	.733
It 18	2.13	.797
It 19	2.75	1.000
It 20	3.00	.772

Table 57. Materials and resources (Parents)

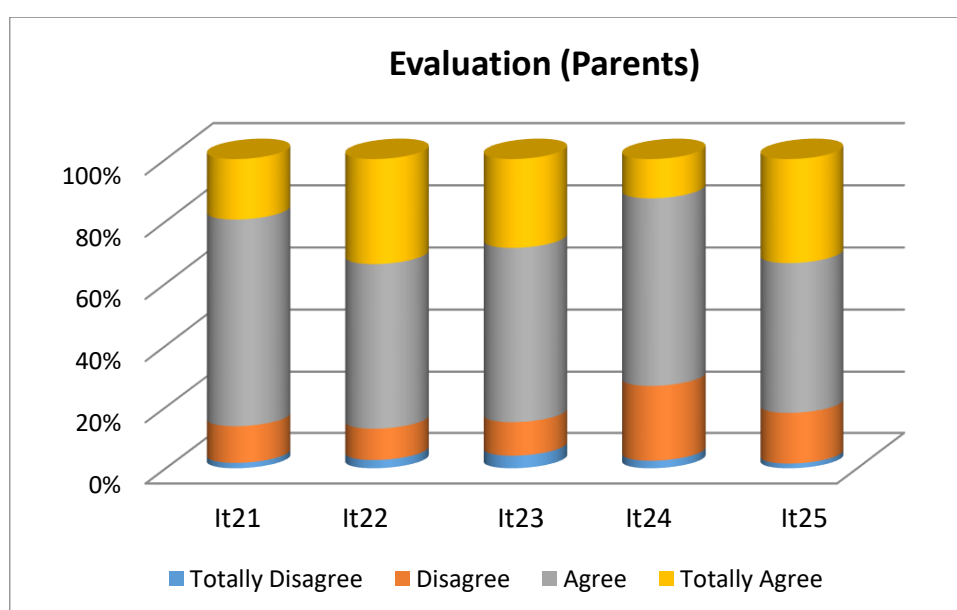


Graph 117. Materials and resources (Parents)

Turning now to the block on *evaluation*, very similar results are obtained in all the items included. Coinciding with teachers' and students' opinions, most parents claim that the evaluation carried out in the bilingual programmes is adequate (item 21, 3.06/4). Exams seem to be the most important evaluation tool acknowledged by families, who consider they are used periodically to assess all the content taught in the CLIL class (item 22, 3.04/4). In the same vein, contents are held to be given more priority over language in CLIL assessment (item 24, 2.89/4) and mixed opinions appear vis-à-vis oral assessment, with the average obtained for this item being slightly lower (item 23, 2.85/4), showing a clear contrast with both teachers and students. This fact may be caused by a lack of suitable information on the programme. Finally, running counter to Lancaster's outcomes (2016), the great majority of parents affirm their children's results have improved due to their participation in a bilingual section (item 25, 3.04/4), something which Ráez Padilla also documented in his study (2018, p. 189) (cf. Table 58; Graph 118).

Items	Mean	Standard Deviation
It 21	3.06	.567
It 22	3.04	.751
It 23	2.85	.850
It 24	2.89	.667
It 25	3.04	.617

Table 58. Evaluation (Parents)

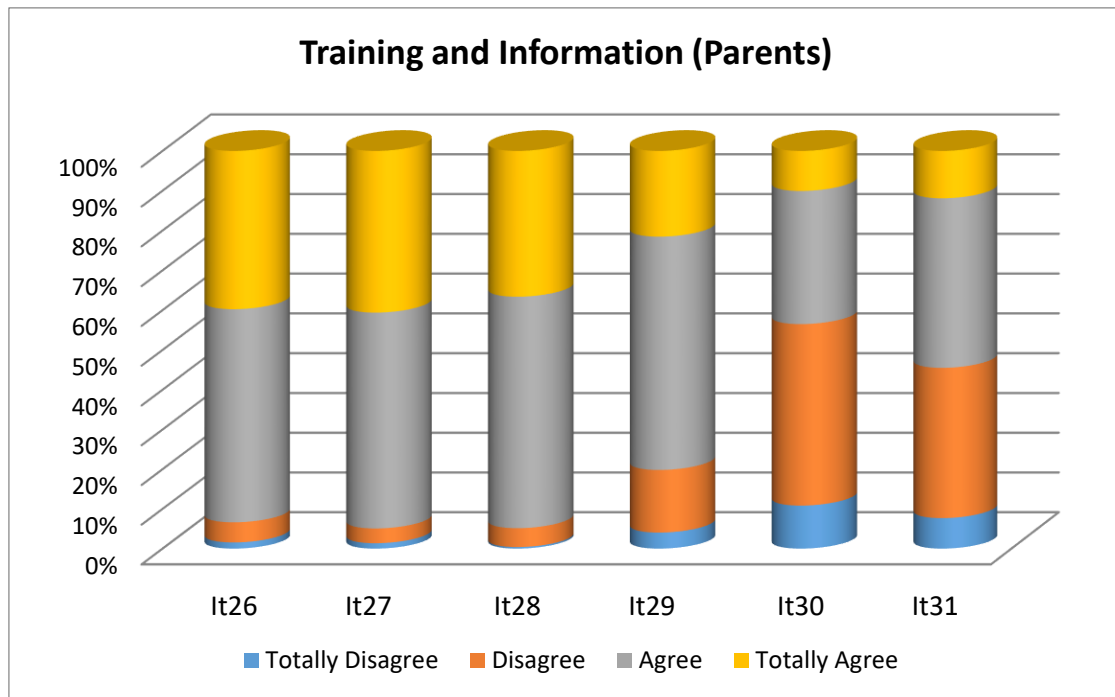


Graph 118. Evaluation (Parents)

The fifth block of the questionnaire includes some questions about *teacher training and information*, and once again, heterogeneous results have been detected. On the one hand, most parents feel quite optimistic about the receptive and productive skills of teachers (items 26, 3.19/4 and 27, 3.32/4), something which also happens when referring to the sociocultural knowledge of educators (item 28, 3.26/4). Moreover, most parents claim they know and understand how the bilingual programme works in the school where their children are studying (item 29, 3.02/4). On the other hand, mirroring Ráez Padilla's findings (2018, p. 189), a more negative outlook is perceived when referring to the information parents receive about the implementation of the regional Plurilingual Plan (item 30, 2.53/4) and the inner workings of CLIL (item 31, 2.68/4). This generalised lack of information is also reflected in the lack of confidence manifested by parents in the blocks on methodology and materials and resources above. Hence, taking into consideration the important role parents play for CLIL success, and in order to guarantee the complete involvement of families in school issues, further attention should be given to these pivotal aspects (cf. Table 59; Graph 119).

Items	Mean	Standard Deviation
It 26	3.19	.576
It 27	3.23	.520
It 28	3.26	.535
It 29	3.02	.668
It 30	2.53	.830
It 31	2.68	.629

Table 59. Training and information (Parents)

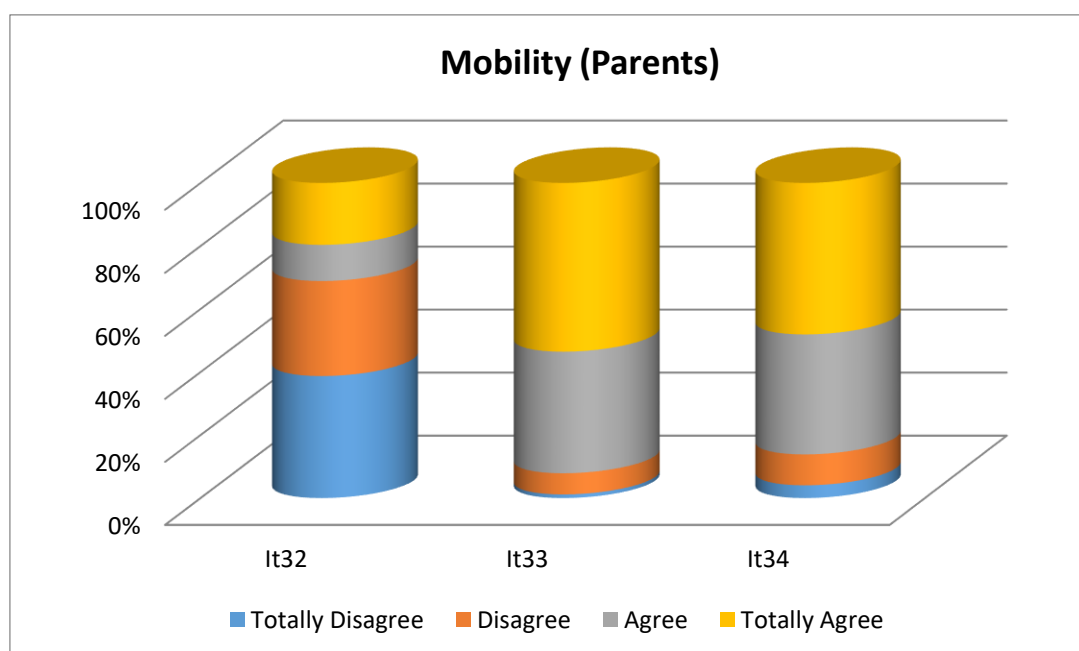


Graph 119. Training and information (Parents)

In line with the other two cohorts, parents also consider *mobility* to be a key aspect within the bilingual experience which fosters students' FL skills (item 33, 3.35/4). Furthermore, most parents claim they normally encourage their children to participate in such initiatives (item 34, 3.20/4), although a significant number of families recognise their children have not taken part in mobility programmes yet (item 32, 2.04/4). This difference in means was also acknowledged by Ráez Padilla (2018) and Pascual Bajo (2018), who manifested there is a clear contrast between the theoretical appreciation of mobility programmes and the real number of cases in which pupils take advantage of them. Hence, further research must be conducted on this score, in order to discern of the chief reasons behind such inconsistency (cf. Table 60; Graph 120).

Items	Mean	Standard Deviation
It 32	2.04	1.233
It 33	3.35	.640
It 34	3.20	.833

Table 60. Mobility (Parents)



Graph 120. Mobility (Parents)

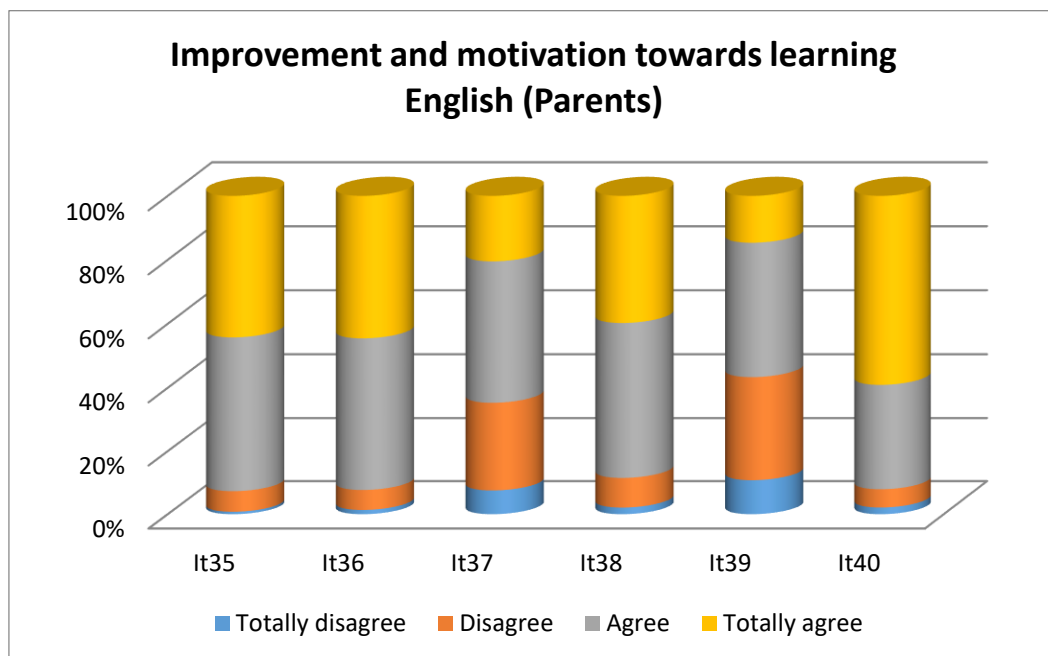
To finish our description of parents' perspectives on CLIL, the seventh block on *improvement and motivation towards learning English* will now be examined. Important conclusions can be drawn from this block, as it incorporates some items which serve as a summary of previous opinions that have already appeared during the analysis of this cohort. Thus, most parents consider their children's English learning has clearly improved due to their participation in a bilingual programme (item 36, 3.21/4), in spite of the increased workload it implies (item 35, 3.23/4), in harmony with teachers and students. Moreover, most parents recognise CLIL has played a very important role in increasing their children's motivation to learn foreign languages (item 38, 3.06/4).

In contrast, heterogeneous responses have been obtained when referring to parents' own motivation towards learning English (item 37, 2.68/4). In this respect, almost half of the parents claim they do not feel more motivated towards learning an FL because of their children's participation in a bilingual section. Similarly, the same score is obtained for item 39 (2.68/4), which means there is a high number of families who worryingly affirm they do not contact the CLIL teachers regularly to speak about their child's progress. Once again coinciding with Ráez Padilla (2018, p. 191), the variables which are related to self-motivation and communication with teachers show a slightly more negative outlook, which needs to be taken into consideration, since involvement and communication are essential parts of CLIL success. As Scanlan (2011) and Grieve and Haining (2011) point out, a great effort must be made "to increase the home-school

liaison with parents in order to create a robust multi-tiered support system in schools” (as cited in Pérez Cañado, 2021) (cf. Table 61; Graph 121).

Items	Mean	Standard Deviation
It 35	3.23	.633
It 36	3.21	.720
It 37	2.68	.862
It 38	3.06	.673
It 39	2.68	.783
It 40	3.40	.614

Table 61. Improvement and motivation towards learning English (Parents)



Graph 121. Improvement and motivation towards learning English (Parents)

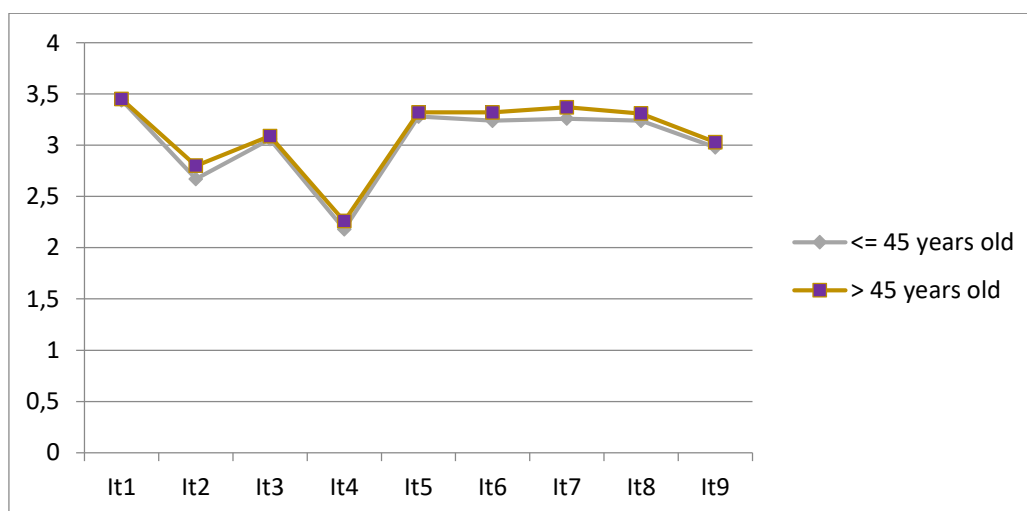
5.1.2.3.2. Specific results

In spite of the slightly larger sample of the parent cohort in comparison with that of teachers, few statistically significant differences have been found within it. However, some identification variables deserve our commentary because of the number of differences detected. These variables are: *age*, *gender*, *grade of their children* and *level of studies*.

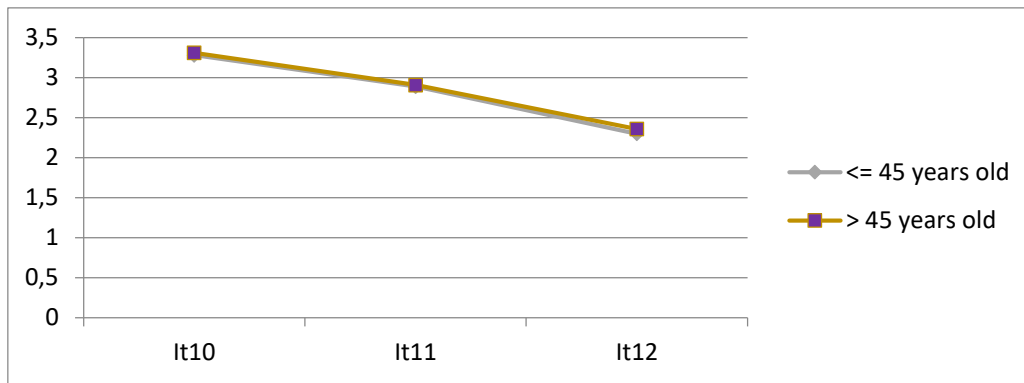
In terms of *age*, it can clearly be observed that older parents are more critical about the bilingual programme than those parents who are (less than) forty-five years old, although the former affirm being more conscious about the theoretical underpinnings of CLIL (item 31, 3.07/4). Thus, younger parents are more optimistic about their children's improvement in the FL (item 2, 3.21/4) and about the learning of vocabulary within the classroom (item 10, 3.36/4). In the same vein, younger parents consider bilingual materials to be quite interesting and motivating (item 13, 3.14/4) and they are more enthusiastic about the oral evaluation carried out (item 23, 3.29/4) (cf. Table 62; Graphs 122-126)

Items	Mean		Standard Deviation		<i>p</i> value
	<= 45 years old	> 45 years old	<= 45 years old	> 45 years old	
It 2	3.21	2.33	.802	.900	.014
It 10	3.36	2.93	.497	.458	.028
It 13	3.14	2.53	.535	.743	.014
It 23	3.29	2.60	.726	.910	.041
It 31	2.50	3.07	.519	.616	.018

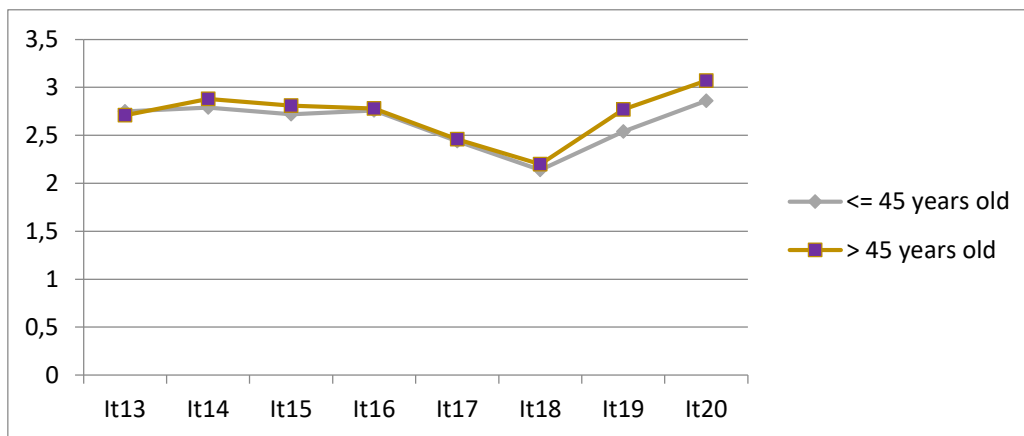
Table 62. Statistically significant differences in terms of age (Parents)



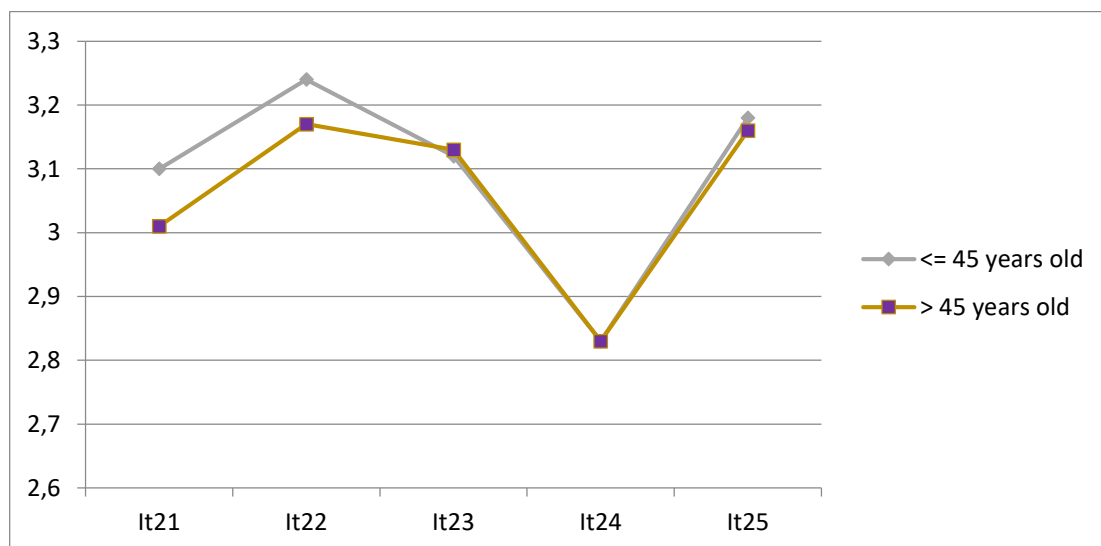
Graph 122. Stakeholder perspectives: Within-cohort comparison. Age of parents variable (Block I)



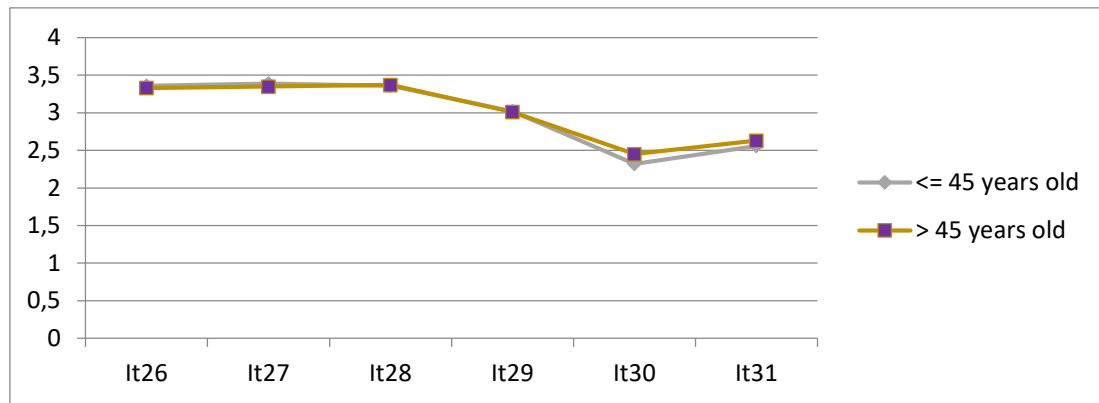
Graph 123. Stakeholder perspectives: Within-cohort comparison. Age of parents variable (Block II)



Graph 124. Stakeholder perspectives: Within-cohort comparison. Age of parents variable (Block III)



Graph 125. Stakeholder perspectives: Within-cohort comparison. Age of parents variable (Block IV)

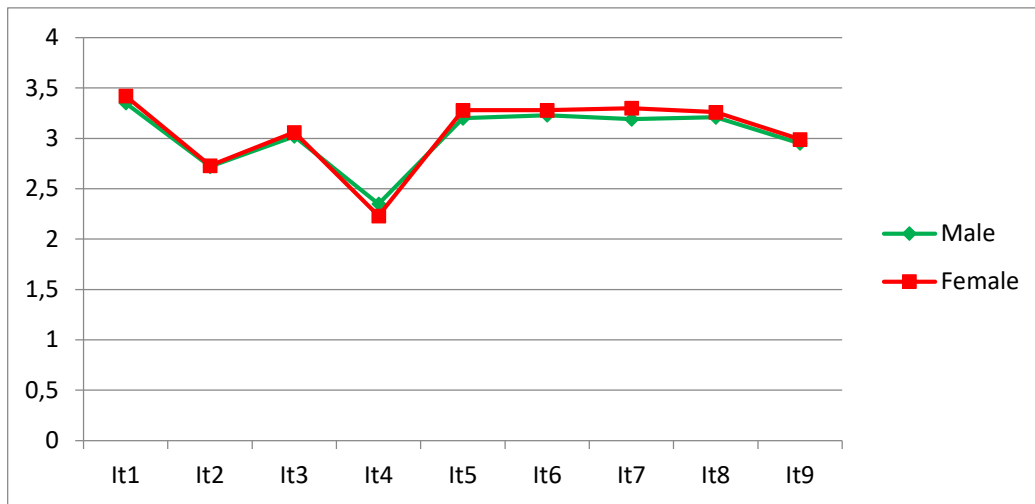


Graph 126. Stakeholder perspectives: Within-cohort comparison. Age of parents variable (Block V)

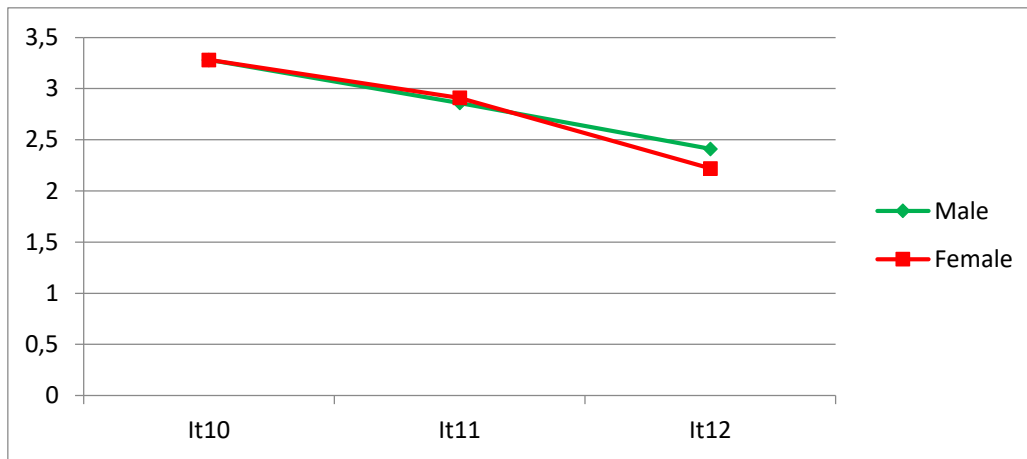
Regarding *gender*, only four items present statistically significant differences, in which mothers are more positive about CLIL than fathers. Thus, tallying with Gálvez Gómez (2013), they think the Spanish level of their children has improved to a greater extent thanks to their belonging to a bilingual programme (item 2, 2.94/4). Moreover, mothers think their children learn more vocabulary within the class (item 10, 3.24/4), and they are more satisfied with materials, which are found to be innovative and interesting (item 13, 2.94/4). Moreover, oral assessment is more positively regarded by mothers than by fathers (item 23, 3.00/4) (cf. Table 63; Graphs 127-130).

Items	Mean		Standard Deviation		p value
	Male	Female	Male	Female	
It 2	2.50	2.94	.760	.886	.014
It 10	3.00	3.24	.555	.431	.028
It 13	2.50	2.94	.519	.736	.014
It 23	2.50	3.00	.760	.853	.041

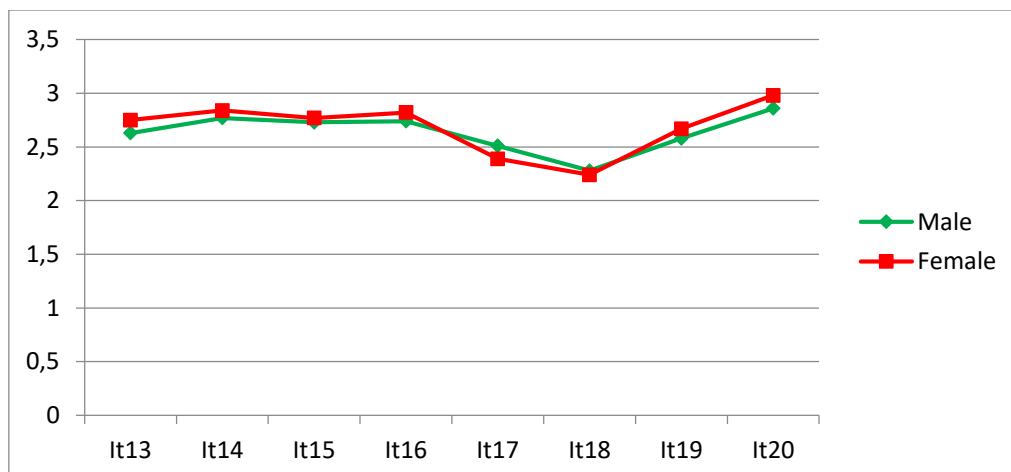
Table 63. Statistically significant differences in terms of gender (Parents)



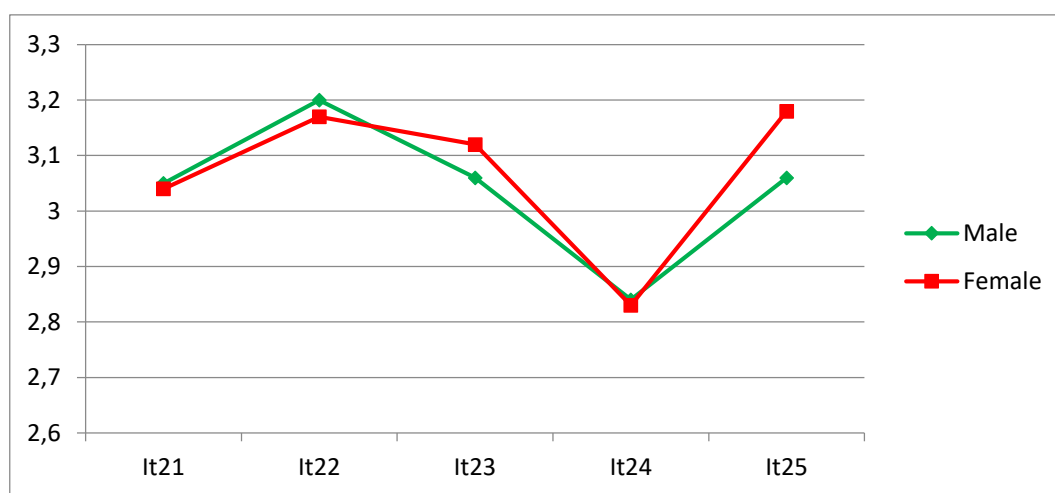
Graph 127. Stakeholder perspectives: Within-cohort comparison. Gender of parents variable (Block I)



Graph 128. Stakeholder perspectives: Within-cohort comparison. Gender of parents variable (Block II)



Graph 129. Stakeholder perspectives: Within-cohort comparison. Gender of parents variable (Block III)



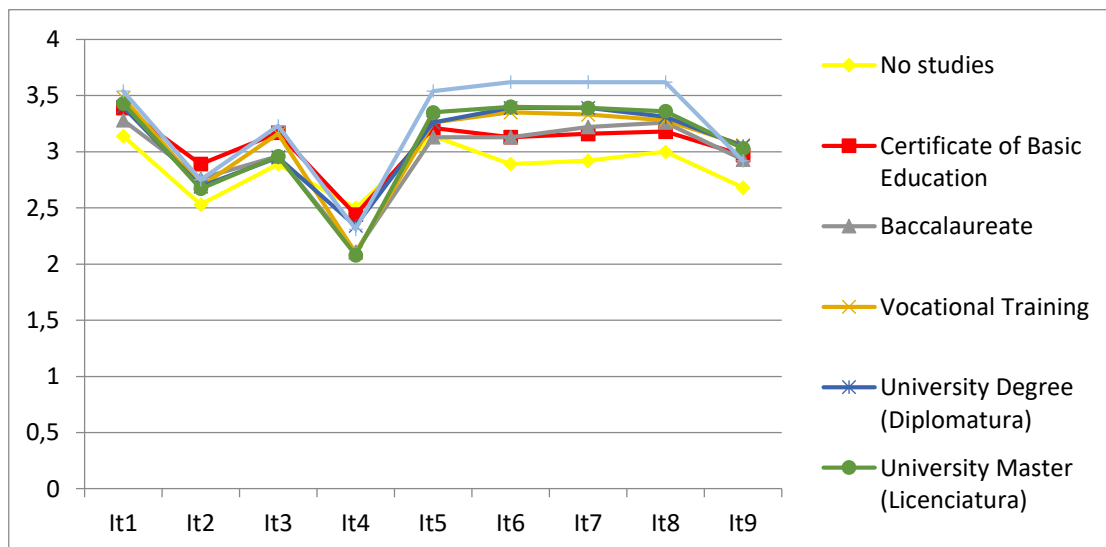
Graph 130. Stakeholder perspectives: Within-cohort comparison. Gender of parents variable (Block IV)

As for parents' *level of studies*, the results show that parents who possess a university degree or a Doctorate are more optimistic about the bilingual programme than those who lack of Secondary studies. Thus, they seem to be more satisfied with the oral skills of their children (item 7, 4.00/4) and with the overall evaluation of CLIL (items 36, 38 and 40) (cf. Table 64; Graphs 131, 132). In contrast to Barrios' findings (2019, p. 188), the least formally educated parents, which are presumably the most economically disadvantaged ones, show a greater discontent with their children being taught through English, which could be linked to the lack of confidence they recognised during the personal interviews and to the lack of economic resources to face important aspects of the bilingual programme, such as mobility initiatives and exposure to the FL outside the classroom.

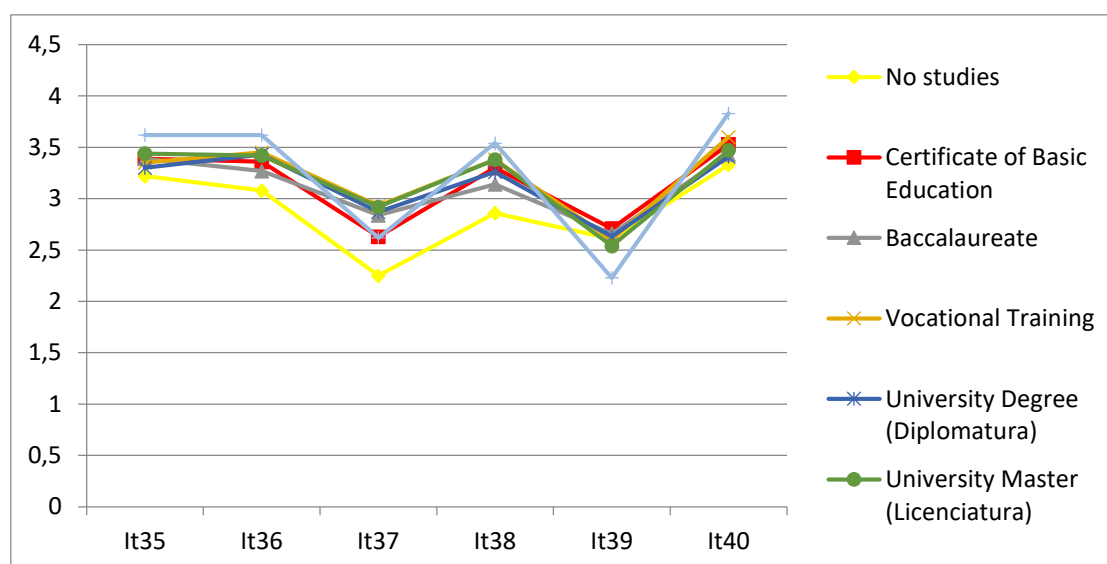
Items		Mean	Standard deviation	p value
It 7	No studies	2.40	.548	.020
	Certificate of Basic Education	3.08	.669	
	Baccalaureate	3.50	.577	
	Vocational Training	3.00	.632	
	University Degree (Diplomatura)	3.33	.577	
	University Master (Licenciatura)	3.50	.522	
	Doctorate (PhD)	4.00	.000	
It 36	No studies	2.40	.548	.010
	Certificate of Basic Education	3.18	.751	

	Baccalaureate	3.25	.500	
	Vocational Training	3.00	.000	
	University Degree (Diplomatura)	4.00	.000	
	University Master (Licenciatura)	3.58	.515	
	Doctorate (PhD)	3.67	.577	
It 38	No studies	2.20	.837	.036
	Certificate of Basic Education	3.00	.447	
	Baccalaureate	3.25	.500	
	Vocational Training	2.83	.408	
	University Degree (Diplomatura)	3.67	.577	
	University Master (Licenciatura)	3.33	.651	
	Doctorate (PhD)	3.33	.577	.042
It 40	No studies	2.80	.447	
	Certificate of Basic Education	3.27	.647	
	Baccalaureate	3.50	.577	
	Vocational Training	3.17	.753	
	University Degree (Diplomatura)	4.00	.000	
	University Master (Licenciatura)	3.58	.515	
	Doctorate (PhD)	4.00	.000	

Table 64. Statistically significant differences in terms of level of studies of parents



Graph 131. Stakeholder perspectives: Within-cohort comparison. Parents' level of studies. (Block I)

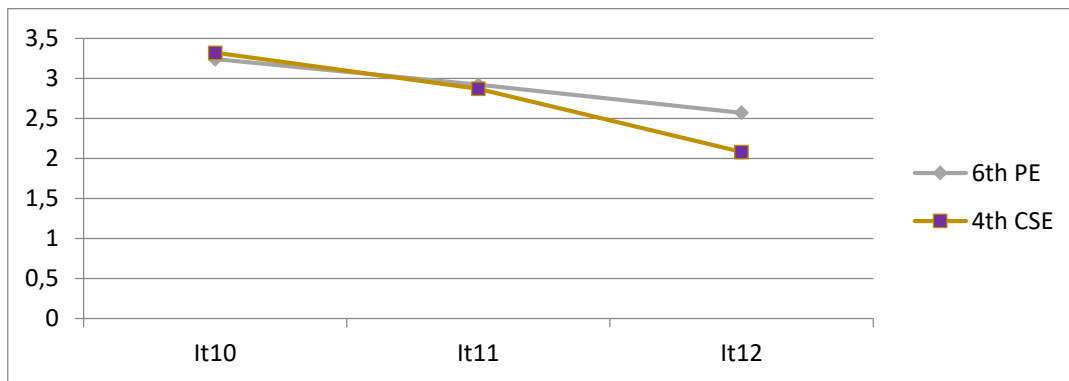


Graph 132. Stakeholder perspectives: Within-cohort comparison. Parents' level of studies. (Block VII)

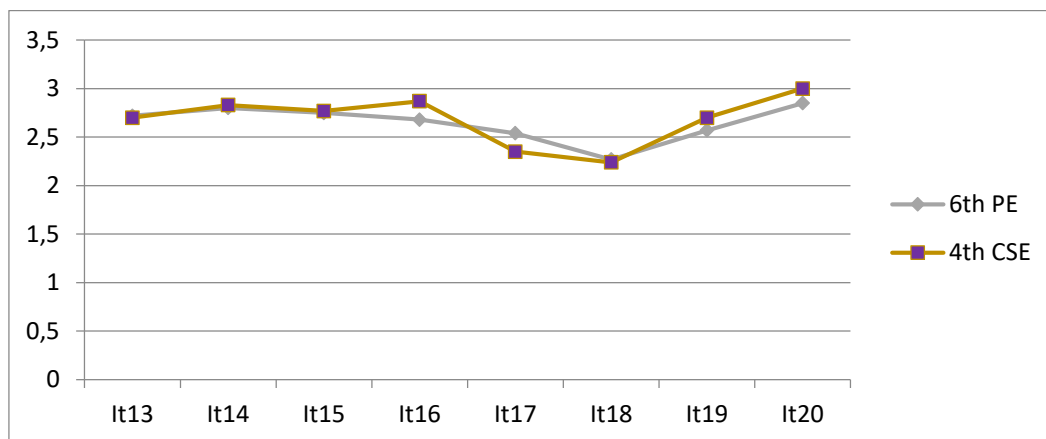
A few items present statistically significant differences in terms of *grade*. In this case, we are referring to the grade in which their children are studying and we obviously distinguish between Primary and Secondary Education. The results obtained evince the remarkable optimism shown by those parents whose children are enrolled in a Primary school, coinciding with Ráez Padilla (2018). Indeed, they are more positive about the innovative methodologies employed in the classroom (item 11, 3.16/4) and they consider themselves to be able to help their children with homework from the bilingual class (item 12, 2.58/4), as the level is less demanding in this case. As suggested in the previous section (cf. 5.1.2.3.1), this result must be regarded with caution, since parents' optimism in this respect decreases as the child progresses to a new school year. Hence, mirroring Cabezas Cabello's (2010), Gálvez Gómez's (2013), Ráez Padilla's (2018), and Barrios and Milla Lara's (2020) outcomes, families complain about not being able to help their children with their assignments in the L2 (Cabezas Cabello, 2010, p. 86). In relation to this, more optimistic perspectives from parents with children in Primary Education are obtained for materials (item 13, 3.05/4) and for evaluation (items 22, 23 and 25). Parents claim to be satisfied with the different evaluation tools employed, among which tests are highlighted, since they are carried out periodically to assess all contents taught (item 22, 3.37/4). They also consider oral assessment is more favourably dealt with (item 23, 3.26/4) and the results by Primary students seem to have improved to a greater extent thanks to their participation in a bilingual section (item 25; 3.32/4) (cf. Table 65; Graphs 133- 136).

Items	Mean		Standard Deviation		p value
	Primary Education	Compulsory Secondary Education	Primary Education	Compulsory Secondary Education	
It 11	3.16	2.69	.501	.712	.014
It 12	2.58	1.86	1.017	.789	.013
It 13	3.05	2.66	.621	.721	.044
It 22	3.37	2.82	.496	.819	.016
It 23	3.26	2.59	.653	.867	.007
It 25	3.32	2.86	.582	.581	.013
It 37	3.05	2.43	.780	.836	.023

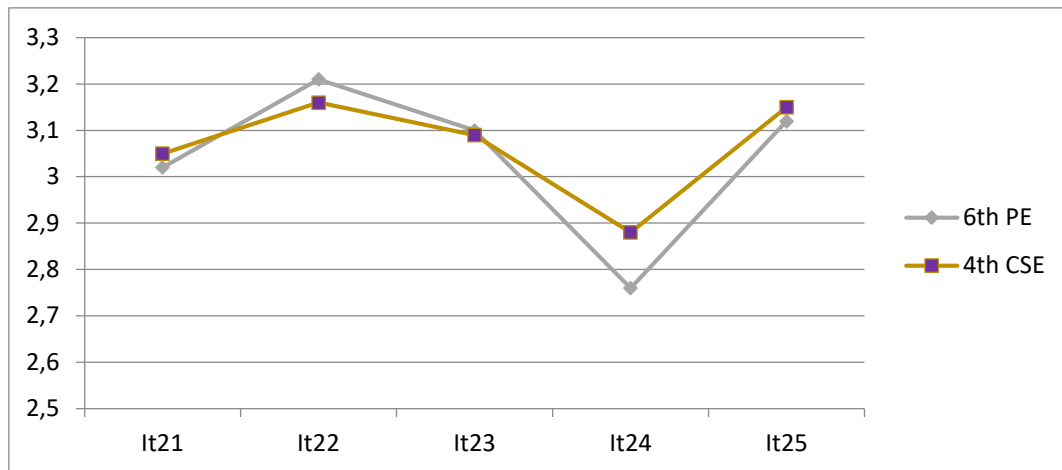
Table 65. Statistically significant differences in terms of grade (Parents)



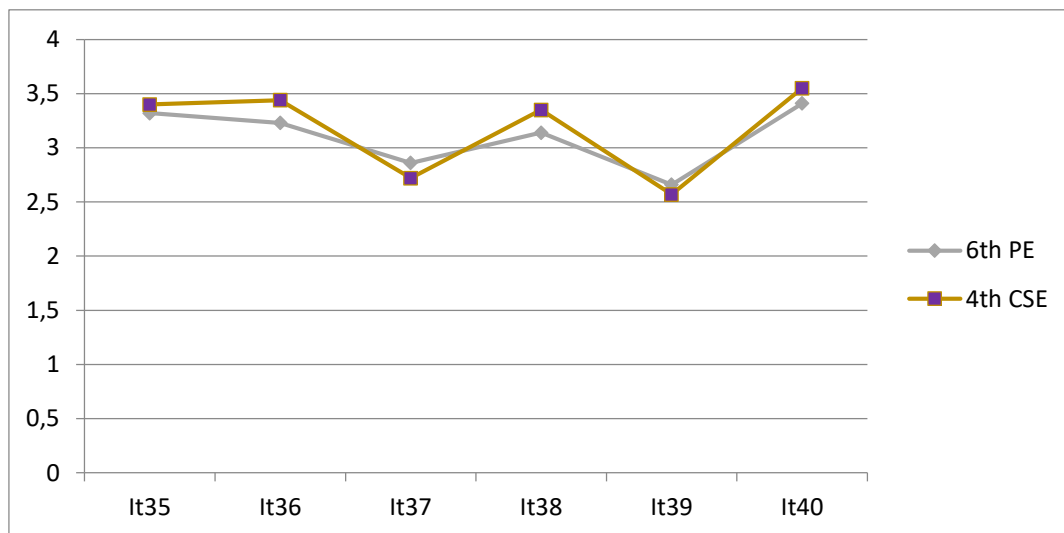
Graph 133. Stakeholder perspectives: Within-cohort comparison. Grade of their children. (Block II)



Graph 134. Stakeholder perspectives: Within-cohort comparison. Grade of their children. (Block III)



Graph 135. Stakeholder perspectives: Within-cohort comparison. Grade of their children. (Block IV)



Graph 136. Stakeholder perspectives: Within-cohort comparison. Grade of their children. (Block VII)

5.1.2.4. Comparison among cohorts

In this section, the statistically significant differences which exist among students, teachers and parents will be examined. The T-test has enabled us to detect how many differences exist among cohorts and for which items the aforementioned differences are manifest. Generally, the number of statistically significant differences confirms the tendency that teachers' vision of CLIL is the most positive, being students the most critical cohort. A table summarising how the items in the three questionnaires have been matched to allow for a comprehensive comparison of the cohorts has been included as follows:

Students	Teachers	Parents
2	2	1
4	4	2
5	5	3
7	7	5
8	8	6
12	12	7
13	13	8
14	14	9
21	24	13
24	27	15
32	36	23
31	35	24
41	46	26
42	47	27
43	48	28
47	57	35

Table 66. Stakeholder perspectives: Across-cohort comparison. Matched items

From the afore-mentioned parallel items, only five present statistically significant differences, evincing that teachers are much more optimistic about students' improvement in Spanish (item 4, 2.91/4) and about their own written skills in the FL (item 42, 3.50/4), as higher scores are obtained for both items. In the same vein, educators have a better opinion on CLIL materials, which they consider to be quite interesting and motivating (item 21, 3.17/4). Tallying with Pérez Cañado (2016b, 2018b, 2021) and Bauer-Marschallinger et al. (2021), teachers tend to harbour a generally more complacent view of CLIL implementation, especially when dealing with materials and resources, whose creation and/or adaptation is the teacher's task. On the contrary, parents are found to be the most positive cohort vis-à-vis their children's confidence within the classroom (item 8, 3.17/4) and the students' written skills (item 13, 3.29/4). This coincides with Pladevall-Ballester's (2015) and Pascual Bajo's (2018) results, according to which "parents tend to express more positive opinions in comparison to those more directly involved in the CLIL experience" (Pascual Bajo, 2018, p. 306). Further investigation is needed in this respect, in order to discover why the most directly affected stakeholders by CLIL (teachers and students) seem to be more cautious about its success and why

extramural opinions are somewhat more positive, leading to an excessive praise of CLIL (cf. Table 67).

Items	Cohort	Mean	Standard Deviation	<i>p</i> value
It 4	Students	2.45	.987	.004
	Teachers	2.91	.668	
	Parents	2.81	.867	
It 8	Students	2.63	.951	<0.001
	Teachers	3.11	.622	
	Parents	3.17	.753	
It 13	Students	3.21	.722	.027
	Teachers	2.97	.446	
	Parents	3.29	.617	
It 21	Students	2.63	.795	<0.001
	Teachers	3.17	.697	
	Parents	2.81	.704	
It 42	Students	3.49	.680	.003
	Teachers	3.50	.697	
	Parents	3.23	.520	

Table 67. Statistically significant differences among cohorts

5.2. Quantitative results

5.2.1. Introduction

After having expounded on the qualitative results of our investigation, we now turn to the quantitative side of the project, which will be divided into four different sections attending to our second, third, fourth and fifth metaconcerns. Thus, subsection 5.2.2. will deal with the effects exerted by CLIL on FL skills (RQ6, RQ7 and RQ8). Subsections 5.1.3. and 5.1.4. will, respectively, examine the impact of the bilingual programme on Spanish competence and on content taught through English, in an attempt to answer research questions nine to twelve. Finally, subsection 5.1.5. will offer an evaluation of the competence differential found between experimental and control groups

by means of successive discriminant analyses, in order to discover if the afore-mentioned differences are truly ascribable to CLIL.

5.2.2. Effects of CLIL on foreign language learning

As mentioned above, a detailed examination of the FL level attained by both CLIL and non-CLIL students will be offered in this section, with a special focus on productive and receptive skills, the effects of the different intervening variables considered on the students' FL proficiency, and lastly, the durability or medium-term effects of the CLIL and EFL programmes on FL competence.

5.2.2.1. Linguistic competence: Cohort comparison

In order to carry out such an exhaustive examination of students' performance in the FL, we evaluated different linguistic aspects, among which use of English, grammar, listening, reading and vocabulary must be emphasised. Their oral production was also assessed attending to five different subaspects (grammar, vocabulary, fluency, pronunciation and task).

After the initial overall comparison was carried out, statistically significant differences were detected in favour of the experimental group ($p = <0.001$). High confidence levels were then found on most of the aspects analysed, with listening being the only skill for which no differences between the CLIL and the non-CLIL group were observed, coinciding with Serra (2007). However, CLIL students clearly outperformed their non-CLIL counterparts since the means obtained were 7.99 and 6.56 respectively (cf. Table 68).

Educational Level	Skills	Group	Mean	Standard Deviation	Cohen's d	p value
General	Use of English	Non-CLIL	13.34	8.323	-0.995	<0.001
		CLIL	23.23	10.263		
	Vocabulary	Non-CLIL	7.98	4.150	-0.807	<0.001
		CLIL	10.75	3.250		
	Listening	Non-CLIL	6.56	4.707	-0.301	0.084

		CLIL	7.99	4.761		
	Reading	Non-CLIL	3.15	2.963	-0.730	<0.001
		CLIL	5.83	3.810		
	Total	Non-CLIL	31.02	15.244	-1.231	<0.001
		CLIL	47.79	13.223		

Table 68. Foreign language competence. Cohort comparison

Focusing on speaking, statistically significant differences in favour of the CLIL group were detected when analysing their oral production globally ($p = .0240$). Moreover, more differences emerged when attending to the five subspects mentioned above. Thus, CLIL students outperform their non-CLIL counterpart in their knowledge and use of grammar ($p = .0330$) and in their pronunciation in the FL ($p = .0050$). Nevertheless, no statistically significant differences appeared when analysing students' lexical range, their fluency in English and their adaptability to the task provided ($p = .0840$; $.0580$ and $.0590$, respectively). However, it is once again worth mentioning that the means obtained by the CLIL group in each one of these subspects considered were always higher than the non-CLIL group. These results corroborate Pérez Cañado and Lancaster's outcomes (2017), according to which CLIL students outperformed their EFL counterpart in oral production (cf. Table 69).

	Group	Mean	Standard Deviation	Rosenthal's R	p value
Speaking_Total	Non-CLIL	5.806	2.3772	.7577	.0240
	CLIL	7.296	1.7279		
Grammatical	Non-CLIL	1.028	.5278	.6799	.0330
	CLIL	1.370	.4722		
Lexical_Range	Non-CLIL	1.194	.5461	.4465	.0840
	CLIL	1.426	.3008		
Fluency_Interaction	Non-CLIL	1.111	.6077	.5377	.0580
	CLIL	1.444	.4237		
Pronunciation	Non-CLIL	1.222	.3919	1.1575	.0050
	CLIL	1.556	.3203		
Task_Fulfilment	Non-CLIL	1.250	.4926	.5295	.0590
	CLIL	1.500	.3669		

Table 69. Foreign language competence. General Speaking Analysis.

Similar results were obtained when analysing the data from Primary and Secondary students separately. Thus, our first research question (RQ4), which inquired into the possible superior linguistic competence of CLIL pupils, can be confirmed as shown in the table below.

When comparing 4th year CSE students following a traditional EFL programme with other pupils at the same educational level, but belonging to a bilingual section, the latter outperformed the non-CLIL counterpart on all the skills and aspects sampled. On the contrary, when dealing with 6th year Primary Education students, results seem to be a little bit more negative in terms of speaking, in contrast to the tendency found in previous research at Primary Education level (Madrid and Barrios, 2018; Nieto Moreno de Diezmas, 2016; Ruiz de Zarobe, 2008), according to which the CLIL group was significantly superior in terms of oral production. Hence, although Primary school students studying in a CLIL programme are found to be superior in all the skills analysed, no differences appeared when dealing with speaking ($p= 0.931$) (cf. Table 70).

Educational level	Skill	Group	Mean	Standard Deviation	Cohen's d	p value
Primary Education	Use of English	Non-CLIL	10.94	7.197	-0.777	0.006
		CLIL	15.99	6.339		
	Vocabulary	Non-CLIL	11.13	2.964	-0.575	0.040
		CLIL	12.75	2.803		
	Listening	Non-CLIL	11.88	2.247	-0.665	0.018
		CLIL	13.29	2.098		
	Reading	Non-CLIL	5.25	3.357	-1.072	<0.001
		CLIL	9.14	3.679		
	Speaking	Non-CLIL	6.083	2.354	-0.077*	0,931
		CLIL	5.800	2.049		
	Total	Non-CLIL	39.19	14.520	-0.901	0.002
		CLIL	51.16	13.015		
Compulsory Secondary Education	Use of English	Non-CLIL	14.88	8.76	-1.438	<0.001
		CLIL	28.27	9.43		
	Vocabulary	Non-CLIL	5.96	3.52	-1.156	<0.001
		CLIL	9.35	2.78		
	Listening	Non-CLIL	3.16	1.70	-0.761	0.004
		CLIL	4.30	1.46		
	Speaking	CLIL	5.667	2.480	0.434*	0,011
		Non-CLIL	7.636	1.497		
	Reading	Non-CLIL	1.80	1.66	-1.118	<0.001
		CLIL	3.52	1.51		

	Total	Non-CLIL	25.80	13.52	-1.508	<0.001
		CLIL	45.45	12.91		

Table 70. FL Competence comparison per group (T-test)

*The analyses for speaking are done by means of Rosenthal's R

5.2.2.2. Differential effect of intervening variables on FL competence

5.2.2.2.1. Gender

To fully understand the effects of CLIL and EFL programmes on English proficiency, we are now going to analyse the data in terms of the different intervening variables considered. Hence, our RQ7 will be first addressed by taking into account the **gender** of all the participants.

Coinciding with the results obtained in previous studies by Heras and Lasagabaster (2015) and Pascual Bajo (2018), our initial analysis did not find any statistically significant differences between female and male participants in any of the skills evaluated. However, a deeper analysis was later carried out taking into account each cohort separately. Thus, the T-test employed evinced female learners in the CLIL group have a higher level of vocabulary in the FL and generally outperform their male counterparts.

Regarding the non-CLIL group, no statistical confirmation of clear differences could be reported between girls and boys, but it is worth mentioning that although no significant differences were detected within the non-CLIL group vis-à-vis gender, male participants did obtain better results on all the aspects considered, as their means were higher (cf. Table 71)

Group	Skills	Gender	Mean	Standard Deviation	Cohen's d	p value
General	Use of English	Male	20.68	10.75	-0.111	0.408
		Female	21.86	10.45		
	Vocabulary	Male	9.68	3.89	-0.257	0.056
		Female	10.61	3.32		
	Listening	Male	7.63	4.70	-0.002	0.988
		Female	7.64	4.87		
	Reading	Male	4.88	3.68	-0.197	0.144
		Female	5.63	3.90		

Non-CLIL	Total	Male	42.87	15.26	-0.189	0.160
		Female	45.73	15.02		
	Use of English	Male	15.25	9.94	0.454	0.161
		Female	11.52	6.13		
	Vocabulary	Male	8.10	4.71	0.058	0.854
		Female	7.86	3.65		
	Listening	Male	7.10	4.54	0.222	0.481
		Female	6.05	4.91		
	Reading	Male	3.40	3.45	0.166	0.599
		Female	2.90	2.47		
	Speaking	Male	6.250	2.699	.1683*	0.515
		Female	5.450	2.166		
	Total	Male	33.85	17.59	0.363	0.252
		Female	28.33	12.46		
CLIL	Use of English	Male	22.15	10.64	-0.207	0.170
		Female	24.26	9.83		
	Vocabulary	Male	10.21	3.49	-0.329	0.030
		Female	11.26	2.92		
	Listening	Male	7.92	4.74	-0.028	0.850
		Female	8.05	4.81		
	Reading	Male	5.34	3.65	-0.248	0.100
		Female	6.29	3.92		
	Speaking	Male	7.036	1.759	.1742*	0.375
		Female	7.577	1.718		
	Total	Male	45.62	13.65	-0.325	0.032
		Female	49.87	12.53		

Table 71. Comparison in terms of gender (T-test)

5.2.2.2.2. Setting

Regarding the variable of **setting**, we analysed students' performance in the L2 in rural and urban contexts. In this case, when our first evaluation was carried out, statistically significant differences were detected in favour of those students belonging to an urban centre, both generally and in their level of use of English. On the contrary, pupils in the rural schools outperformed their counterparts on listening. It was not possible to carry out any analysis for the speaking results, as more time was required for this purpose. The analysis of the students' oral production will be incorporated in successive investigations (cf. Table 72).

Group	Skills	Setting	Mean	Standard Deviation	Cohen's d	p value
General	Use of English	Rural	15.32	8.57	-0.776	<0.001
		Urban	23.14	10.49		
	Vocabulary	Rural	10.13	3.73	-0.007	0.963
		Urban	10.16	3.62		
	Listening	Rural	9.23	4.06	0.444	0.002
		Urban	7.14	4.89		
	Reading	Rural	5.26	3.61	0.001	0.99
		Urban	5.26	3.88		
	Total	Rural	39.94	14.18	-0.383	0.016
		Urban	45.69	15.25		

Table 72. General comparison regarding setting

When analysing students' results separately, statistically significant differences were also found in favour of the urban school pupils within the CLIL group, something which differs completely when looking at the non-CLIL group, where the rural school students outperform their counterparts on all skills tested except for use of English (cf. Table 73).

These results coincide, to a great extent, with the outcomes obtained by many previous investigators, who found statistically significant differences in favour of pupils from urban settings. In this respect, Alejo and Piquer-Píriz (2016b) concluded that CLIL learners outstripped their rural counterparts on grammatical and lexical tests in the two Secondary schools from the Spanish region of Extremadura where their investigation was carried out. In turn, Pavón Vázquez (2018) did not find significant differences across cohorts in terms of setting, concluding that the initial language differential which favoured urban students in Primary Education diminished in the long term, with only minor differences related to oral skills remaining at the end of Compulsory Secondary Education. Finally, Pérez Cañado (2020) found that setting does not significantly influence the results of CLIL students in the case of vocabulary and listening. Hence, CLIL seems to attenuate differences in some areas of English language attainment that might be related to the dichotomy of rural-urban context. In the latter researcher's words: "this encouraging finding for the future development of CLIL challenges the "elitist" accusation made against it" (Pérez Cañado, 2020, p. 8).

Group	Skills	Setting	Mean	Standard Deviation	Cohen's d	p value
Non-CLIL	Use of English	Rural	12.50	8.71	-0.179	0.573
		Urban	14.00	8.14		
	Vocabulary	Rural	10.67	3.16	1.402	<0.001
		Urban	5.87	3.61		
	Listening	Rural	11.11	3.08	3.401	<0.001
		Urban	3.00	1.65		
	Reading	Rural	5.17	3.17	1.516	<0.001
		Urban	1.57	1.50		
	Total	Rural	39.44	14.32	1.119	0.001
		Urban	24.43	12.68		
CLIL	Use of English	Rural	16.77	8.25	-0.822	<0.001
		Urban	24.81	10.11		
	Vocabulary	Rural	9.86	4.01	-0.343	0.133
		Urban	10.97	3.01		
	Listening	Rural	8.26	4.19	0.070	0.711
		Urban	7.92	4.90		
	Reading	Rural	5.31	3.86	-0.167	0.377
		Urban	5.95	3.80		
	Total	Rural	40.20	14.32	-0.743	<0.001

Table 73. Cohort comparison regarding setting

5.2.2.2.3. Socioeconomic status (SES)

The moderating variable of **socioeconomic status** (SES) was also incorporated in our investigation taking into account the educational level of parents. Hence, three different groups were established according to their educational attainment: high (Tertiary Education), medium (Vocational Training or Secondary) and low (school qualifications or no studies).

After running the ANOVAs, statistically significant differences were detected on all skills analysed in favour of those students with a high socioeconomic status, except for use of English (cf. Table 74). These results coincide with Anghel, Cabrales and Carro's (2016) and Fernández Sanjurjo, Fernández Costales and Arias Blanco's (2019) outcomes, according to which CLIL programmes tend to have a negative effect on students from a low socioeconomic background. However, recent investigations have proved that CLIL has canceled out differences among social classes (Pérez Cañado 2017b; Pavón 2018; Rascón and Bretones, 2018; Lorenzo, 2019).

Group	Skills	SES	Mean	Std. Deviation	Eta Squared	<i>p</i> value
General	Use of English	Low	21.13	10.25	0.001	0.872
		Medium	21.81	11.13		
		High	21.00	10.18		
	Vocabulary	Low	8.28	3.26	0.150	0.000
		Medium	9.54	3.48		
		High	11.71	3.22		
	Listening	Low	5.19	3.18	0.236	0.000
		Medium	5.97	3.77		
		High	10.32	4.90		
	Reading	Low	3.23	1.97	0.197	0.000
		Medium	4.23	2.99		
		High	7.18	4.24		
	Total	Low	37.83	13.04	0.120	0.000
		Medium	41.56	14.51		
		High	50.20	14.19		

Table 74. Comparison among cohorts regarding SES

When analysing the cohorts separately, we can also see that the same tendency is repeated among CLIL students, where those pupils with a high socioeconomic level are revealed to also have the highest level in all skills tested but use of English. In the case of non-CLIL students, statistically significant differences in favour of those having high socioeconomic level exist only when dealing with their knowledge of vocabulary (cf. Table 75).

Group	Skills	SES	Mean	Standard Deviation	Eta Squared	<i>p</i> value
Non-CLIL	Use of English	Low	14.82	7.26	0.021	0.684
		Medium	12.70	7.15		
		High	12.00	9.43		
	Vocabulary	Low	6.00	3.32	0.177	0.030
		Medium	8.25	4.15		
		High	10.88	3.27		
	Listening	Low	5.45	4.32	0.098	0.157
		Medium	6.35	4.66		
		High	9.50	4.78		
	Reading	Low	2.18	1.54	0.046	0.427
		Medium	3.50	3.59		
		High	3.75	2.76		
	Speaking	Low	3.333	1.6073	0.235	0.102
		Medium	6.182	2.3798		

CLIL	Total	High	6.625	1.9738	0.036	0.518
		Low	28.45	8.69		
		Medium	30.80	15.99		
		High	36.13	16.52		
	Use of English	Low	23.06	10.33	0.021	0.161
		Medium	25.28	10.48		
		High	21.93	9.98		
	Vocabulary	Low	8.97	2.95	0.143	0.000
		Medium	10.05	3.17		
		High	11.96	2.96		
	Listening	Low	5.11	2.82	0.275	0.000
		Medium	5.95	3.47		
		High	10.58	4.82		
	Reading	Low	3.56	1.99	0.214	0.000
		Medium	4.58	2.72		
		High	7.62	4.18		
	Speaking	Low	6.692	1.5075	0.125	0.141
		Medium	7.688	1.6677		
		High	8.083	2.0595		
	Total	Low	40.69	12.87	0.116	0.000
		Medium	45.86	11.65		
		High	52.09	12.89		

Table 75. Comparison within cohorts per SES (Anova)

These results were afterwards corroborated by applying the Post-Hoc Tukey HSD test. Hence, in the chart below, we can see how all statistically significant differences detected, both within and across cohorts are in favour of those participants with a high socioeconomic status (cf. Table 76). Although Anghel, Cabrales and Carro (2016) and Fernández Sanjurjo, Fernández Costales and Arias Blanco (2019) acknowledged that a more disadvantaged background negatively affects students' achievement in CLIL, the opposite tendency appears in more recent investigations. Hence, this finding runs counter to all the latest investigations, according to which there is no social bias (Admiraal, Westhoff and De Bot, 2006; Rascón Moreno and Bretones, 2018) which influences students' engagement and achievement in CLIL programmes. In this regard, Lorenzo et al. (2020, p. 409) found that "CLIL creates a liveable atmosphere for lower-class students, who are, in fact, the ones who benefit most from the programme".

Group	Skills	SES	Low	Medium	High
General	Vocabulary	Low		0.098	<0.001
		Medium	0.098		<0.001
		High	<0.001	<0.001	
	Listening	Low		0.568	<0.001
		Medium	0.568		<0.001
		High	<0.001	<0.001	
	Reading	Low		0.259	<0.001
		Medium	0.259		<0.001
		High	<0.001	<0.001	
	Total	Low		0.323	<0.001
		Medium	0.323		<0.001
		High	<0.001	<0.001	
Non-CLIL	Vocabulary	Low		0.264	0.023
		Medium	0.264		0.233
		High	0.023	0.233	
CLIL	Vocabulary	Low		0.664	0.043
		Medium	0.664		0.455
		High	0.043	0.455	
	Listening	Low		0.601	<0.001
		Medium	0.601		<0.001
		High	<0.001	<0.001	
	Reading	Low		0.336	<0.001
		Medium	0.336		<0.001
		High	<0.001	<0.001	
	Total	Low		0.130	<0.001
		Medium	0.130		0.011
		High	<0.001	0.011	

Table 76. Post-hoc Tukey HSD Test (SES)

5.2.2.2.4. Extramural exposure to the FL

In the initial stage of our study, students were asked about the **amount of contact** they had **with the FL** outside the school and to reflect on the number of hours they devoted to developing certain activities in English per week. In the questionnaires they answered, nine hours or less of extramural exposure was considered low, and more than nine hours a week devoted to English was classified as high exposure. When the first analyses were carried out, it was found that those pupils with a higher exposure to English possessed the highest FL competence. This result, which coincides with most of the research conducted in this respect so far (Sundqvist, 2009; Sylvén, 2004, 2006, 2010; Olsson and Sylvén; Lancaster, 2018), does not seem to be surprising, but it only appeared

when referring to the sample as a whole. On the contrary, when turning to the evaluation of the effects of extramural exposure to English per cohort, no statistically significant differences were detected, except for vocabulary and reading skills in the case of non-CLIL students. No differences were ascertained within the CLIL group, suggesting, thus, that the CLIL programme alone is able to develop students' language skills to a greater extent, provided that learners are exposed to an increased meaningful amount of FL, which was already underscored by Lancaster (2018) (cf. Table 77).

Group	Skills	Exposure	Mean	Standard Deviation	Cohen's d	p value
General	Use of English	<=9 hours	19.43	10.75	-0.282	0.042
		> 9 hours	22.40	10.37		
	Vocabulary	<=9 hours	9.74	3.98	-0.183	0.186
		> 9 hours	10.40	3.40		
	Listening	<=9 hours	7.42	5.03	-0.072	0.601
		> 9 hours	7.76	4.63		
	Reading	<=9 hours	4.75	3.56	-0.216	0.120
		> 9 hours	5.57	3.93		
Non-CLIL	Use of English	<=9 hours	13.82	8.30	0.122	0.689
		> 9 hours	12.79	8.55		
	Vocabulary	<=9 hours	6.77	3.53	-0.651	0.044
		> 9 hours	9.37	4.46		
	Listening	<=9 hours	5.23	3.93	-0.635	0.050
		> 9 hours	8.11	5.15		
	Reading	<=9 hours	2.23	2.14	-0.702	0.031
		> 9 hours	4.21	3.46		
CLIL	Use of English	<=9 hours	21.69	11.007	-0.224	0.160
		> 9 hours	23.99	9.833		
	Vocabulary	<=9 hours	11.07	3.352	0.147	0.356
		> 9 hours	10.59	3.201		
	Listening	<=9 hours	8.49	5.127	0.158	0.323
		> 9 hours	7.74	4.570		
	Reading	<=9 hours	5.83	3.524	0.002	0.991
		> 9 hours	5.82	3.959		
	Total	<=9 hours	47.08	12.874	-0.080	0.617
		> 9 hours	48.14	13.433		

Table 77. Comparison regarding extramural exposure (T-test)

5.2.2.2.5. Type of school

Lastly, the variable of **type of school** was also incorporated, offering us valuable results when the analysis was carried out both generally and specifically within each group of students. Thus, in general terms, statistically significant differences were found for all skills considered in favour of those students belonging to a private bilingual school, with the exception of use of English, for which pupils from public bilingual schools obtained better outcomes. These results were corroborated with the application of the Post-hoc Tukey HSD test and are in line with Paran (2013), who suggests that CLIL only benefits high achievers in elite contexts and certain types of schools (normally urban, private ones) (as cited in Pérez Cañado, 2020, p. 2). This leads us to think that, in line with Paran (2013), Bruton (2013), and Madrid and Hughes (2011), CLIL has, on occasions, discriminated learners in terms of academic, social and economic reasons, favouring those whose purchasing power, as well as academic progress, is higher. However, the superiority of public school learners in use of English suggests that differences between types of school are not so clear and may be cancelled out in the long run (Pérez Cañado, 2020). Hence, further investigation is needed in this area, as there is still “little understanding of the factors that contribute to the success of CLIL” (Paran, 2013, p. 335).

Group	Skills	Type of school	Mean	Standard Deviation	Cohen's d	p value
General	Use of English	Public school non-CLIL	13.34	8.32	0.252	0.000
		Public school CLIL	25.88	10.62		
		Private school CLIL	16.98	5.72		
	Vocabulary	Public school non-CLIL	7.98	4.15	0.271	0.000
		Public school CLIL	9.65	3.06		
		Private school CLIL	13.34	1.98		
	Listening	Public school non-CLIL	6.56	4.71	0.556	0.000
		Public school CLIL	5.46	3.08		

		Private school CLIL	13.96	1.66		
	Reading	Public school non-CLIL	3.15	2.96	0.455	0.000
		Public school CLIL	4.14	2.50		
		Private school CLIL	9.81	3.39		
	Total	Public school non-CLIL	31.02	15.24	0.249	0.000
		Public school CLIL	45.12	13.41		
		Private school CLIL	54.09	10.41		

Table 78. Comparison across cohorts in terms of type of school (Anova)

Group	Skills	School per Group	Public School non-CLIL	Public School CLIL	Private School CLIL
General	Use of English	Public school non-CLIL		<0.001	0.143
		Public school CLIL	<0.001		<0.001
		Private school CLIL	0.143	<0.001	
	Vocabulary	Public school non-CLIL		0.008	<0.001
		Public school CLIL	0.008		<0.001
		Private school CLIL	<0.001	<0.001	
	Listening	Public school non-CLIL		0.135	<0.001
		Public school CLIL	0.135		<0.001
		Private school CLIL	<0.001	<0.001	
	Reading	Public school non-CLIL		0.128	<0.001
		Public school CLIL	0.128		<0.001
		Private school CLIL	<0.001	<0.001	
	Total	Public school non-CLIL		<0.001	<0.001
		Public school CLIL	<0.001		0.011
		Private school CLIL	<0.001	0.011	

Table 79. Post-hoc Tukey HSD (Type of school comparison)

The same pattern is repeated when evaluating Primary students separately. Hence, private bilingual school students obtain higher results on vocabulary, use of English, listening and reading (cf. Table 80).

Group	Skills	Type of school	Mean	Standard Deviation	Eta Squared	<i>p</i> value
Primary Education	Use of English	Public school non-CLIL	10.94	7.20	0.131	0.002
		Public school CLIL	13.35	7.26		
		Private school CLIL	16.98	5.72		
	Vocabulary	Public school non-CLIL	11.13	2.96	0.138	0.002
		Public school CLIL	11.20	3.94		
		Private school CLIL	13.34	1.98		
	Listening	Public school non-CLIL	11.88	2.25	0.273	0.000
		Public school CLIL	11.50	2.12		
		Private school CLIL	13.96	1.66		
	Reading	Public school non-CLIL	5.25	3.36	0.213	0.000
		Public school CLIL	7.35	3.90		
		Private school CLIL	9.81	3.39		
	Total	Public school non-CLIL	39.19	14.52	0.206	0.000
		Public school CLIL	43.40	16.06		
		Private school CLIL	54.09	10.41		

Table 80. Comparison in terms of type of school (Primary Education- Anova)

Different results are obtained for Compulsory Secondary Education pupils, as no private bilingual schools were considered in our study. Thus, statistically significant differences were found on all skills analysed in favour of public bilingual school students, in line with previous investigations which attest to the superiority of CLIL over EFL

programmes (Ruiz de Zarobe, 2010; Lasagabaster, 2009; Pascual Bajo, 2018) (cf. Table 81).

Group	Skills	Type of School	Mean	Standard Deviation	Eta Squared	p value
Compulsory Secondary Education	Use of English	Public school non-CLIL	14.88	8.762	0.246	0.000
		Public school CLIL	28.27	9.434		
		Private school CLIL				
	Vocabulary	Public school non-CLIL	5.96	3.518	0.174	0.000
		Public school CLIL	9.35	2.784		
		Private school CLIL				
	Listening	Public school non-CLIL	3.16	1.700	0.084	0.001
		Public school CLIL	4.30	1.455		
		Private school CLIL				
	Reading	Public school non-CLIL	1.80	1.658	0.165	0.000
		Public school CLIL	3.52	1.513		
		Private school CLIL				
	Total	Public school non-CLIL	25.80	13.515	0.264	0.000
		Public school CLIL	45.45	12.915		
		Private school CLIL				

Table 81. Comparison in terms of type of school (Secondary Education- Anova)

5.2.2.3. Durability of effects of the CLIL programme on FL competence

In this section the delayed post-test results will be discussed both from a general and a group-focused viewpoint. Moreover, a comparison between the results obtained in the post- test and in the delayed post-test phases will be established, in order to confirm

if the effects of CLIL pervaded once the programme is discontinued or if they gradually disappear. Thus, our RQ8 will be dealt with. In the same vein, the possible evolution of the control group's FL competence between the two phases will be analysed.

5.2.2.3.1. Delayed post-test results: Experimental group

In order to address RQ8, a comparison was carried out between the results obtained in the post-test phase and the outcomes of the delayed post-tests sat by the same students six months later. First of all, it is important to mention that in order to establish this comparison, the evolution of those students who took the tests in the two different phases has been analysed. Consequently, our sample has been reduced.

Starting with the analysis of the CLIL group, our findings indicate that students obtained slightly better results in most skills tested, although no statistically significant differences were detected except for listening ($p = <0.001$). Slightly worse results were found for use of English in the delayed post-test phase, although still not significant (cf. Table 82).

Group	Skills	Post/Delayed	Mean	Standard Deviation	Cohen's d	p value
CLIL	Use of English	Post	33.51	9.456	0.031	0.687
		Delayed	33.22	8.792		
	Vocabulary	Post	10.43	3.373	-0.216	0.097
		Delayed	11.08	2.637		
	Listening	Post	4.71	1.683	-0.393	<0.001
		Delayed	5.35	1.535		
	Reading	Post	4.20	1.472	-0.208	0.213
		Delayed	4.51	1.474		
	Total	Post	52.86	13.519	-0.100	0.106
		Delayed	54.16	12.686		

Table 82. Delayed-post test results. Experimental group

5.2.2.3.2. Delayed post-test results: Control group

Turning now to the analysis of the non-CLIL students, no statistically significant differences were detected between the two phases except for the reading skill ($p = 0.007$).

Moreover, it is necessary to highlight the fact that slightly worse results were detected in the delayed-post tests for use of English and listening, something which clearly differs from the results obtained in the experimental group. Non-CLIL pupils were also found to have a higher knowledge of vocabulary, although no statistically significant differences were ascertained for this skill (cf. Table 83).

Group	Skills	Post/Delayed	Mean	Standard Deviation	Cohen's d	p value
Non-CLIL	Use of English	Post	15.58	5.551	0.031	0.899
		Delayed	15.42	5.248		
	Vocabulary	Post	5.33	2.348	-0.682	0.056
		Delayed	6.83	2.038		
	Listening	Post	3.00	1.348	0.306	0.422
		Delayed	2.58	1.379		
	Reading	Post	1.33	1.303	-1.201	0.007
		Delayed	2.83	1.193		
	Total	Post	25.25	7.124	-0.334	0.281

Table 83. Post- to delayed post-test comparison of the non-CLIL cohort's skills

5.2.2.3.3. Delayed post-test results: Across-group comparisons

After having expounded on the results obtained in the delayed-post test phase by both CLIL and non-CLIL students, let us now analyse if statistically significant differences emerge across the cohorts. Thus, with the help of the T-test, clear-cut tendencies were discerned, pointing to the supremacy of the bilingual programme, as statistically significant differences emerged on all the skills considered in favour of CLIL pupils.

As can be observed in the table below, CLIL students outperformed their non-CLIL peers on their use of English ($p = <0.001$) and on their knowledge of vocabulary ($p = <0.001$) in the FL. In the same vein, the means obtained for both listening and reading skills were significantly higher for CLIL students (5.35 and 4.51, respectively), something which coincides with previous studies by Pladevall-Ballester and Vallbona (2016) and Pascual Bajo (2018). Thus, CLIL benefits pervade after the discontinuity of the programme and the advantages it poses for students do not disappear, at least in the short run. CLIL pupils whose learning programme undergoes a complete change when

starting the first year of Baccalaureate continue evincing superior outcomes to their EFL partners, simply because the advantages of the methodology with which they have been taught throughout Primary and Compulsory Secondary Education are internalised by them. However, these results must be interpreted with caution, since the large effect sizes shown by the Cohen's *d* values have to be taken into consideration in our assessment (cf. Table 84).

Group	Skills	Group	Mean	Standard Deviation	Cohen's <i>d</i>	<i>p</i> value
General	Use of English	Non-CLIL	15.42	5.25	-2.159	<0.001
		CLIL	33.22	8.79		
	Vocabulary	Non-CLIL	6.83	2.04	-1.675	<0.001
		CLIL	11.08	2.64		
	Listening	Non-CLIL	2.58	1.38	-1.834	<0.001
		CLIL	5.35	1.54		
	Reading	Non-CLIL	2.83	1.19	-1.176	<0.001
		CLIL	4.51	1.47		
	Total	Non-CLIL	27.67	7.36	-2.231	<0.001
		CLIL	54.16	12.69		

Table 84. Comparison in terms of group (T-test)

5.2.3. Effects of CLIL on the L1

In this section the possible effects which CLIL programmes are having on students' first language competence will be discussed. After our analysis was carried out, interesting results arose, evincing many statistically significant differences between the experimental and the control group. To carry out these analyses, the final marks of pupils for Spanish language were compared across the different cohorts in contemplation of metaconcern 3, articulated in RQ9 and RQ10. In the same vein, a subsequent analysis of the possible effects that the intervening variables have on students' L1 performance was conducted.

5.2.3.1. Across-cohort comparison

The level attained by both CLIL and non-CLIL students in the Spanish language and Literature subject was calculated in an initial overall comparison which can be found in the table below. As can be observed, no mark exists for the non-CLIL students in Primary Education. That is why a subsequent analysis with these students was not possible. However, it was observed that the means obtained by the cohorts were slightly higher for the CLIL strand (7,41 and 6,47), showing that statistically significant differences appear when the analysis is carried out both generally and specifically within the Secondary Education group. Hence, coinciding with previous studies such as the ones developed by Bergroth (2006), Madrid and Barrios (2018), Merino and Lasagabaster (2015), Merisuo-Storm (2006; 2007), Pérez Cañado (2017a), Seikkula-Leino (2007), Pascual Bajo (2018) and Navarro Pablo and López Gándara (2020), the appearance of negative effects on L1 competence due to the more reduced exposure to the mother tongue is not sustained (cf. Table 85).

Educational Level	Subject	Group	Mean	Standard Deviation	Cohen's d	p value
General	L1	Non-CLIL	5.00	0.00	-1.439	<0.001
		CLIL	7.41	1.69		
Primary Education	L1	Non-CLIL				
		CLIL	8.00	1.61		
Secondary Education	L1	Non-CLIL	5.00	0.00	-1.079	0.001
		CLIL	6.47	1.41		

Table 85. L1 Competence. Comparison by group (T-test)

5.2.3.2. Differential effects of intervening variables on L1 competence

5.2.3.2.1. Gender

With a view to answering our RQ10, the possible effects exerted on students' L1 by the intervening variables considered in our study will be analysed. We will start our commentary by taking into account the variable of **gender**. First of all, it is important to mention that statistically significant differences were detected across cohorts in favour of the female participants. As occurred in the analysis of the effects of CLIL on the FL, women continue obtaining better results in their mother tongue competence ($p= 0.032$).

However, no statistically significant differences were found when the evaluation was carried out within each cohort. Due to the small sample of non-CLIL participants taking part in the study, it was impossible to carry out an evaluation of differences between men and women in the control group. In the same vein, there are no differences between women and men within the CLIL cohort (cf. Table 86).

Group	Subject	Gender	Mean	Standard Deviation	Cohen's d	p value
General	L1	Male	6.13	1.55	-0.876	0.032
		Female	7.58	1.68		
Non-CLIL	L1	Male	5.00			
		Female	5.00			
CLIL	L1	Male	6.29	1.60	-0.839	0.052
		Female	7.66	1.64		

Table 86. Effects of CLIL on the L1 competence in terms of gender (T-test)

5.2.3.2.2. Setting

The following variable to take into consideration was that of **setting**. Here, we distinguished between those students belonging to schools situated in a rural or a urban environment. Statistically significant differences arose across cohorts in favour of the students from urban schools ($p= 0.001$). In the same vein, significant differences were detected within the CLIL group, corroborating the superiority of pupils from an urban setting ($p= 0.004$). In contrast to the outcomes obtained by Pavón (2018), Pérez Cañado (2018c) and Navarro Pablo and López Gándara (2020), according to which differences in L1 between CLIL and non-CLIL strands are not determined by setting, our results suggest that pupils who belong to an urban school have better skills in the L1 than their rural counterparts. Finally, it is necessary to mention that analysing the results by setting in the non-CLIL group was not possible, since the sample considered did not incorporate the marks in the L1 of Primary students from a urban school. Thus, evaluating the difference between students from rural and urban schools within the non-CLIL cohort was not possible (cf. Table 87).

Group	Subject	Setting	Mean	Standard Deviation	Cohen's d	p value
General	L1	Rural	6.29	1.40	-1.114	0.001
		Urban	8.00	1.62		
Non-CLIL	L1	Rural	5.00	0.00		
		Urban				
CLIL	L1	Rural	6.47	1.41	-0.996	0.004
		Urban	8.00	1.62		

Table 87. Effects of CLIL on L1 competence in terms of setting (T-test)

5.2.3.2.3. Exposure to the FL outside the school

Taking into account the identification variable referred to **extramural exposure to the FL**, no statistically significant differences emerged among CLIL and non-CLIL students ($p = 0.879$). However, slightly higher means were obtained in favour of those pupils who had more than nine hours of exposure outside school. In contrast to the recurrent concern among stakeholders that the increased exposure to the FL would cause a detrimental effect on L1 learning, bilingual education does not seem to hinder L1 development (Navarro Pablo and López Gándara, 2020). Thus, we cannot conclude that exposure to the FL outside the school is a substantial variable that negatively influences L1 learning. Further investigation must be conducted on the role which the L1 has inside bilingual schools, in order to understand why and prove that, regardless of the increased amount of FL instruction, L1 skills continue being fostered.

As happened with the setting variable, it was not possible to carry out an analysis of the findings in terms of this variable with non-CLIL students, as there was only one student in each group. Moreover, no statistically significant differences were detected within the CLIL group (cf. Table 88).

Group	Subject	Exposure	Mean	Standard Deviation	Cohen's d	p value
General	L1	<=9 hours	7.23	1.780	-0.052	0.879
		> 9 hours	7.32	1.740		
Non-CLIL	L1	<=9 hours	5.00			
		> 9 hours	5.00			
CLIL	L1	<=9 hours	7.42	1.730	0.005	0.988
		> 9 hours	7.41	1.716		

Table 88. Effects of CLIL on L1 competence in terms of exposure to the FL (T-test)

5.2.3.2.4. Socioeconomic status (SES)

Socioeconomic status is one of the variables that yielded statistically significant differences among students, both generally and when they were analysed separately according to the learning programme followed. Although it was not possible to run an ANOVA with non-CLIL students, statistically significant differences did emerge in favour of those pupils with a high socioeconomic status. Running counter to many recent studies (Rascón Moreno and Bretones Callejas, 2018; Pérez Cañado, 2020; Lorenzo, Granados and Rico, 2020), according to which CLIL programmes have the same successful effects on students regardless of their social background, our results show that those students from the most privileged families obtain the highest marks in the Spanish language and literature subject, coinciding, thus, with previous investigations (Pascual Bajo, 2018; Madrid and Barrios, 2018; Pérez Cañado, 2018c). Hence, socioeconomic background seems to exert a great influence on academic scores, something which should be carefully analysed and evaluated, in order to shed light on such an important issue (cf. Table 89).

Group	Subjects	SES	Mean	Standard Deviation	Eta Squared	p value
General	L1	Low	6.11	1.27	0.187	0.022
		Medium	7.00	1.55		
		High	7.88	1.69		
Non-CLIL	L1	Low				
		Medium				
		High				
CLIL	L1	Low	6.25	1.28	0.158	0.045
		Medium	7.00	1.55		
		High	7.88	1.69		

Table 89. Effects of CLIL on L1 competence in terms of SES (Anova)

Tukey HSD comparisons confirmed that the differences between the grades obtained by low and medium SES students were not statistically significant, while those found between the high SES students and the rest were considerable (cf. Table 90).

Group	Skills	SES	Low	Medium	High
General	L1	Low		0.544	0.018
		Medium	0.544		0.451
		High	0.018	0.451	
CLIL	L1	Low		0.664	0.043
		Medium	0.664		0.455
		High	0.043	0.455	

Table 90. Effects of SES on Spanish grades. Tukey's HSD comparisons

5.2.3.2.5. Type of school

The last variable to take into account in the evaluation of CLIL effects on Spanish language competence is that related to the **type of school** where the study was conducted. Hence, by means of ANOVA, we undertook a detailed analysis of the three class groups considered: public non-CLIL school, public CLIL school and private CLIL school. The findings confirmed the existence of statistically significant differences between the groups ($p= 0.002$), although the levels achieved by CLIL and non-CLIL pupils in the Secondary public schools were similar and no differences could be found between them ($p= 0.172$). This result suggests that CLIL has had neither positive nor negative effects on the Spanish language of the students in the experimental group (cf. Table 91).

Educational Level	Subjects	School per Group	Mean	Standard Deviation	Eta Squared	<i>p</i> value
General	L1	Public school non-CLIL	5.00	0.00	0.272	0.002
		Public school CLIL	6.47	1.41		
		Private school CLIL	8.00	1.62		
Compulsory Secondary Education	L1	Public school non-CLIL	5.00	0.000	0.120	0.172
		Public school CLIL	6.47	1.407		
		Private school CLIL				

Table 91. Comparison in terms of type of school (Anova)

The Tukey HSD comparison subsequently corroborated that those statistically significant differences found by the ANOVA test were in all cases in favour of pupils

studying in a private CLIL centre. Thus, pupils studying in private schools implementing a CLIL programme obtain the best grades in the Spanish language and Literature subject, something which is in line with Pérez Cañado's (2018c) and Madrid and Hughes' (2011) outcomes, according to which CLIL groups, both in public and private schools, clearly outstrip public and charter non-bilingual ones (cf. Table 92).

Group	Skills	Type of School	Public School non-CLIL	Public School CLIL	Private School CLIL
General	L1	Public school non-CLIL		0.414	0.028
		Public school CLIL	0.414		0.011
		Private school CLIL	0.028	0.011	

Table 92. Effects of the type of school variable on Spanish grades. Tukey's HSD Comparison

5.2.4. Effects of CLIL on content subject learning (Science)

After having analysed the results obtained by both CLIL and non-CLIL students in the FL and in their L1, it is now turn to investigate the outcomes pupils obtain when learning a content subject following a traditional EFL programme or the innovative CLIL methodology. Hence, by looking at the final marks of pupils for the subject of Science, a comparison between the cohorts could be carried out, addressing then our metaconcern 4, articulated in RQ11 and RQ12.

As a consequence, many statistically significant differences were detected between the experimental and the control group (cf. Section 5.2.4.1), as well as many differences regarding the effect of the different intervening variables considered in our study on students' content performance (cf. Section 5.2.4.2).

Many previous investigations have already addressed this issue (Madrid and Hughes, 2011; Pérez Cañado, 2018c; Anghel, Cabrales and Carro, 2016; Fernández Sanjurjo, Fernández Costales and Arias Blanco, 2019; Rascón Moreno and Bretones Callejas, 2018), although research on the influence of CLIL on non-language subjects is still scarce and less conclusive than research on language outcomes (Hughes and Madrid, 2020). CLIL has historically been conceived as a methodology whose main focus of

attention is the improvement of FL skills, but little attention has been given to its influence on content learning, although it is intrinsically linked to these programmes as well. That is why our results will try to shed light on such an important aspect of CLIL methodology, and if necessary, they will serve as the basis to improve future bilingual practices.

5.2.4.1. Across-cohort comparison

Pertaining to the level attained by students in the Science subject, statistically significant differences emerge in favour of the CLIL cohort ($p = <0.001$), something which coincides with previous investigations, where it was proved that bilingual education does not hamper the learning of content subjects, despite being taught through a FL (Mattheoudakis, Alexiou and Laskaridou, 2014; Serra, 2007; Surmont et al., 2016; Vázquez, 2007; Jäppinen, 2005). However, there have also been many scholars who found that there is a decrease in pupils' performance in the subject content taught through CLIL when being compared to students learning content in their mother tongue (Marsh, 2000; Pascual Bajo, 2018; Anghel, Cabrales and Carro, 2016; Dallinger et al., 2016; Piesche et al., 2016; Fernández Sanjurjo, Fernández Costales and Arias Blanco, 2019), and some others where no substantial differences between cohorts could be detected (Admiraal, Westhoff and De Bot, 2006; Bergroth, 2006; Seikkula-Leino, 2007; Stehler, 2006) (cf. Table 93).

Educational Level	Subject	Group	Mean	Standard Deviation	Cohen's d	p value
General	Science	Non-CLIL	5.00	0.00	-1.642	<0.001
		CLIL	7.46	1.51		
Primary Education	Science	Non-CLIL				
		CLIL	7.75	1.59		
Secondary Education	Science	Non-CLIL	5.00	0.00	-1.581	<0.001
		CLIL	7.00	1.31		

Table 93. Across-cohort comparison. Content learning (T-test)

As it occurred with the L1, no mark exists for the non-CLIL students in Primary Education, so a subsequent comparison between CLIL and non-CLIL Primary students could not be carried out. This is not the case of Secondary schools, where statistically significant differences were once more found in favour of bilingual students. Thus, CLIL

pupils outperform their non-CLIL counterpart in the learning of content, as can be observed in the table above ($p = <0.001$).

5.2.4.2. Differential effects of intervening variables on content subject

5.2.4.2.1. Gender

In this section, we are going to evaluate the possible effects that the different intervening variables incorporated in our investigation have on students' content learning, with a view to answering RQ12. The variable of **gender**, which will be commented on first, did not yield any significant differences between students in terms of the level attained in the Science subject. In contrast to the findings pertaining to the effects of the gender variable on the FL and L1, no substantial differences were detected in the case of content learning. However, female students continue obtaining slightly higher means than males, coinciding with the rest of subjects analysed (cf. Table 94).

Group	Subject	Gender	Mean	Standard Deviation	Cohen's d	p value
General	Science	Male	6.50	1.31	-0.680	0.092
		Female	7.55	1.58		
Non-CLIL	Science	Male	5.00			
		Female	5.00			
CLIL	Science	Male	6.71	1.25	-0.608	0.153
		Female	7.63	1.54		

Table 94. Comparison by gender. Content learning (T-test)

Similarly, no statistically significant differences were discovered when the evaluation was developed separately, within each cohort. Because of the small number of participants in the non-CLIL group who participated in the study, it was not possible to carry out an evaluation of differences between boys and girls in the control group. No differences were detected between women and men within the CLIL cohort (cf. Table 94).

5.2.4.2.2. Setting

Regarding **setting**, statistically significant differences were found in favour of students learning in an urban environment ($p= 0.047$), thus coinciding with the results obtained for both FL and L1 subjects. Nevertheless, no substantial differences were found within the CLIL group, although the means obtained by those pupils belonging to an urban school were slightly higher than those whose educational centres are situated in rural areas (0.136). Tallying with Hughes and Madrid (2020), students from urban centres tend to outstrip their rural counterparts in content-subject learning. In their opinion, this could be better understood if we take into account that most of the bilingual schools in Andalusia are situated in major towns and cities, where there is a higher degree of receptiveness to FL learning among learners, who have a better access to resources and, thereby, higher levels of motivation (Díaz, 2017; Hughes and Madrid, 2020).

To finish with this section, it is important to remember that it was not possible to carry out a further analysis of the results by setting in the non-CLIL cohort (cf. Table 95).

Group	Subject	Setting	Mean	Standard Deviation	Cohen's d	p value
General	Science	Rural	6.76	1.39	-0.650	0.047
		Urban	7.75	1.59		
Non-CLIL	Science	Rural	5.00	0.00		
		Urban				
CLIL	Science	Rural	7.00	1.31	-0.502	0.136
		Urban	7.75	1.59		

Table 95. Comparison by setting. Content learning (T-test)

5.2.4.2.3. Exposure outside the school

The following identification variable to take into consideration refers to the amount of **extramural exposure to the FL**. In this respect, no statistically significant differences emerge between the cohorts ($p= 0.609$), something which coincides with the results obtained for the rest of subjects analysed (FL and L1). However, it is noticeable that once more, slightly higher means are obtained by those pupils who spend more than nine hours in contact with the FL outside the educational centre (7.43).

Similar results can be found within the CLIL cohort, as no substantial differences were detected in favour of any of the groups, although higher means were obtained by those pupils with a greater exposure to the FL. In our study, no significant differences have been detected in terms of hours devoted to English outside the classroom in FL and L1 learning (cf. Sections 5.2.2.2 and 5.2.3.2.). However, the connection between extramural exposure and language outcomes could have been regarded as obvious and self-evident, as the more time devoted to learning and practising a language, the higher the level achieved. Nonetheless, the extent to which this extra support in the FL might improve content learning is not so clear. Hence, coinciding with Hughes and Madrid (2020), there is no real connection between the extramural exposure to the FL and the outcomes students obtain in the subject of Natural Sciences.

As occurred with the other variables, it was impossible to analyse the effect that the time of exposure outside school has on students belonging to the non-CLIL cohort (cf. Table 96).

Group	Subject	Exposure	Mean	Standard Deviation	Cohen's d	p value
General	Science	<=9 hours	7.15	1.510	-0.174	0.609
		> 9 hours	7.43	1.610		
Non-CLIL	Science	<=9 hours	5.00			
		> 9 hours	5.00			
CLIL	Science	<=9 hours	7.33	1.435	-0.120	0.730
		> 9 hours	7.52	1.578		

Table 96. Comparison in terms of exposure to English outside the classroom. Content learning (T-test)

5.2.4.2.4. Socioeconomic status (SES)

In contrast to the results obtained in terms of **socioeconomic status** for the learning of the FL and L1, and also running counter to many previous investigations (Pérez Cañado, 2018c; Anghel, Cabrales and Carro, 2016; Fernández Sanjurjo, Fernández Costales and Arias Blanco, 2019), no statistically significant differences among students were detected when analysing subject content learning. Hence, through ANOVA, it was found that although higher means are obtained in favour of those students with a high socioeconomic status (7.72), it could not be statistically confirmed that the differences were significant. In the same vein, no statistically significant differences were unearthed

within the CLIL group, although the highest means still correspond to the students living in a more privileged environment. Thus, as Pérez Cañado (2020, p. 3) underscores, in future investigations, the differences in content attainment among pupils in terms of SES should be evaluated considering the language level of parents instead of their educational level, which clearly does not exert a great influence on their children's subject content learning (cf. Table 97).

Group	Subjects	SES	Mean	Standard Deviation	Eta Squared	p value
General	Science	Low	6.78	1.48	0.074	0.237
		Medium	7.00	1.55		
		High	7.72	1.54		
CLIL	Science	Low	7.00	1.41	0.053	0,375
		Medium	7.00	1.55		
		High	7.72	1.54		

Table 97. Comparison in terms of SES. Content learning (T-test)

5.2.4.2.5. Type of school

The last variable to take into account refers to the **type of school** where participants are studying. Hence, a differentiation between public schools implementing CLIL and EFL programmes and a private school with CLIL provision is made. Here, statistically significant differences emerged among cohorts in the general comparison in favour of the students belonging to the private school ($p= 0.030$). In other words, those pupils who are learning content through CLIL in a private centre obtain better grades than those learners from public schools, either in a CLIL or non- CLIL group. This was later corroborated by the Tukey HSD comparisons.

Finally, it is worth mentioning that, although no substantial differences were detected between CLIL and non-CLIL cohorts in the public schools, the means obtained by CLIL students were higher than those of non-CLIL groups. Hence, we can infer that CLIL students' grades on Science are better than the grades in the same subject of non-CLIL pupils (7.75) (cf. Table 98).

These results converge, to a great extent, with the results obtained by Madrid and Hughes (2011), Madrid and Barrios (2018) and Pérez Cañado (2018c), according to which public bilingual (CLIL) schools, along with private bilingual (CLIL) schools,

outperformed the monolingual classes, which lagged behind the rest (Pérez Cañado, 2020, p. 4). However, charter schools were also considered in two of these investigations (Madrid and Barrios, 2018; Pérez Cañado, 2018c), which also caused outcomes to be different. Hence, further research must be developed on this front.

Educational Level	Subjects	School per Group	Mean	Standard Deviation	Eta Squared	p value
General	Science	Public school non-CLIL	5.00	0.00	0.169	0.030
		Public school CLIL	7.00	1.31		
		Private school CLIL	7.75	1.59		
Compulsory Secondary Education	Science	Public school non-CLIL	5.00	0.000	0.227	0.053
		Public school CLIL	7.00	1.309		
		Private school CLIL				

Table 98. Effects of the type of school variable on Science grades by cohort

Group	Skills	SES	Public School non-CLIL	Public School CLIL	Private School CLIL
General	Science	Public school non-CLIL		0.182	0.040
		Public school CLIL	0.182		0.281
		Private school CLIL	0.040	0.281	

Table 99. Post-hoc Tukey's HSD Comparisons (Effect of the type of school variable on Science grades)

5.2.5. Appraisal of competence differential: Discriminant analysis

In this new section, which aims to address RQ13, the effect of the different intervening variables considered will be quantified. Hence, we will discuss the results obtained in our discriminant analysis. By using this statistical technique, we will be able to calculate the discriminating potential of the moderating and independent variables included in our research. That is to say, the discriminant analysis will help us determine

which variables are truly responsible for the differences detected between the CLIL and non-CLIL strands when taking the English, Spanish and Science tests.

As for the differences found between the experimental and the control group in English, it can be clearly seen in the table below that the independent variable (Group – CLIL programme), together with the moderating variables of socioeconomic status (SES) and verbal intelligence, are the ones which display the greatest significance ($p= 0.000$). Accordingly, these variables selected were later used in a discriminant function, which proved that all of them were significant, as the p value obtained is 0.000. Thus, we can confirm that the CLIL programme has the greatest weight in explaining the language competence differential between the experimental and control groups, mirroring Pérez Cañado's (2018a) and Pascual Bajo's (2018) outcomes (cf. Table 100).

Tests of Equality of Group Means					
	Wilks' Lambda	F	df1	df2	Sig.
Exposure to English	.991	2.013	1	214	.157
SES	.854	36.672	1	214	.000
Verbal_Intelligence	.837	41.827	1	214	.000
Goodwill	.999	.138	1	214	.711
Anxiety	.992	1.660	1	214	.199
Lack_of_interest	.954	10.400	1	214	.001
Selfcommitment	.986	3.050	1	214	.082
Type	.864	33.604	1	214	.000
Group	.940	13.670	1	214	.000
Gender	.998	.425	1	214	.515

Variables in Analysis									
Step	Entered	Wilks' Lambda							
		Statistic	df1	df2	df3	Exact F			
						Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
1	Verbal_Intelligence	.837	1	1	214,000	41,827	1	214,000	.000
2	SES	.762	2	1	214,000	33,193	2	213,000	.000
3	Group	.734	3	1	214,000	25,551	3	212,000	.000

Eigenvalues				
Function	Eigenvalue	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Canonical Correlation
1	.362 ^a	100.0	100.0	.515
a. First 1 canonical discriminant functions were used in the analysis.				

Wilks' Lambda				
Test of Function(s)	Wilks' Lambda	Chi-square	Df	Sig.
1	.734	65.586	3	.000

Standardised Canonical Discriminant Function Coefficients	
	Function
	1
SES	.539
Verbal_Intelligence	.642
Group	.373

Table 100. Discriminant Analysis. English grades

Turning now to the Spanish grades, the tests of equality of group means point at socioeconomic status, verbal intelligence, type of school, lack of interest and self-commitment as the variables with the greatest discriminating potential between CLIL and non-CLIL groups. In the same vein, the discriminant function created corroborated that the students' lack of interest clearly influences their marks. It was then confirmed that this variable negatively affects the students' performance: the lower the lack of interest, the higher the mark obtained. In this respect, it is worth mentioning that the scores obtained in the Spanish Language and Literature subject are not negatively affected by students being taught through a bilingual programme. It is not the teaching programme which affects their results. Rather, it is their own characteristics which determine the degree of acquisition and management of the L1. In agreement with Navarro Pablo and López Gándara (2020) and Barrios (2021), bilingual education does not hamper L1 learning, but benefits it. There are other intervening variables which do explain the differences detected and should be also taken into consideration in future research projects so as not to distort the results obtained.

Tests of Equality of Group Means					
	Wilks' Lambda	F	df1	df2	Sig.
Exposure to English	1.000	.019	1	38	.891
SES	.793	9.900	1	38	.003
Verbal_Intelligence	.781	10.680	1	38	.002
Goodwill	.970	1.181	1	38	.284
Anxiety	1.000	.002	1	38	.963
Lack_of_interest	.735	13.695	1	38	.001
Selfcommitment	.854	6.510	1	38	.015
Type of School	.770	11.325	1	38	.002
Group	.962	1.520	1	38	.225
Gender	.974	1.013	1	38	.320

Eigenvalues				
Function	Eigenvalue	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Canonical Correlation
1	.716 ^a	100.0	100.0	.646
a. First 1 canonical discriminant functions were used in the analysis.				

Wilks' Lambda				
Test of Function(s)	Wilks' Lambda	Chi-square	df	Sig.
1	.583	19.170	5	.002

Standardised Canonical Discriminant Function Coefficients	
	Function 1
SES	.146
Verbal_Intelligence	.239
Lack_of_interest	.215
Selfcommitment	.647
Type	.455

Table 101. Discriminant Analysis. Spanish grades

Finally, the grades obtained in the content subject considered (Science) were also analysed. In this case, the academic level attained in the Science subject does not discriminate between cohorts, that is to say, as can be observed in the table below, learning content through a FL does not affect this learning: either positively or negatively. On the contrary, the differences detected between the experimental and the control group can be ascribed to the variables having to do with students' self-commitment and lack of interest. Again, as in the Spanish grades, the tendency is repeated: the greater the lack of interest, the lower the mark obtained, or, in other words: the higher the self-commitment, the higher the mark. Coinciding with Hughes and Madrid (2020), bilingual education does not exert a negative influence on subject content learning. CLIL and non-CLIL students' results on non-linguistic areas are determined by more personal features related to motivation and engagement rather than to the teaching programme they are following (cf. Table 102).

Tests of Equality of Group Means					
	Wilks' Lambda	F	df1	df2	Sig.
SES	.956	1.734	1	38	.196
Verbal_Intelligence	.924	3.115	1	38	.086
Lack_of_interest	.735	13.695	1	38	.001
Selfcommitment	.710	15.523	1	38	.000
Type	.927	3.008	1	38	.091
Group	.962	1.520	1	38	.225
Gender	.974	1.013	1	38	.320
Goodwill	.923	3.178	1	38	.083
Anxiety	.993	.261	1	38	.612
Horas_ingles_R1	1.000	.019	1	38	.891

Variables Analysis									
Step	Entered	Wilks' Lambda							
		Statistic	df1	df2	df3	Exact F			
						Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
1	Self-commitment	.710	1	1	38.000	15.523	1	38.000	.000

2	Lack of interest	.571	2	1	38.000	13.912	2	37.000	.000

Eigenvalues				
Function	Eigenvalue	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Canonical Correlation
1	.752 ^a	100.0	100.0	.655
a. First 1 canonical discriminant functions were used in the analysis.				

Wilks' Lambda				
Test of Function(s)	Wilks' Lambda	Chi-square	df	Sig.
1	.571	20.749	2	.000

Standardised Canonical Discriminant Function Coefficients	
	Function
	1
Lack_of_interest	-.676
Selfcommitment	.722

Table 102. Discriminant Analysis. Content subject grades

All these statistical operations have allowed us to obtain encouraging results for the CLIL programme, which not only fosters foreign language learning, but also does not obstruct the learning of the mother tongue and the acquisition of content. Hence, it can be stated that bilingualism is a reliable form of education which improves language outcomes while concomitantly not hindering content ones.

CHAPTER VI:

CONCLUSIONS

After having expounded in depth on the qualitative and quantitative results obtained in the present study, and in order to support its main hypotheses, a summary of the principal findings in relation to the metaconcerns outlined in section 4.2 will be offered in this chapter, more concretely in section 6.1 below. A recapitulation of these outcomes will be presented in three different sections: section 6.1.1. will respond to the first research questions pertaining to the qualitative side of our investigation, which has focused on stakeholders' perspectives. The remaining sections (cf. Section 6.1.2. and 6.1.3.) will focus on the conclusions drawn from the quantitative data analyses, which have evaluated the effects of CLIL on the FL, on Spanish language competence and on content subject knowledge. Finally, the second part of the chapter (cf. Section 6.2) will deal with the limitations of the present investigation and the lines for future research.

6.1. Recapitulation

6.1.1. Metaconcern 1

As seen in Chapter IV, our first metaconcern was to carry out a SWOT (strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats) analysis on the implementation of CLIL in the province of Jaén by evaluating all stakeholders' perspectives. Thus, three different validated questionnaires (for students, teachers and parents) were employed for the collection of data, and semi-structured interviews were also conducted and served as the second qualitative tool to further corroborate our findings. Stakeholder perspectives on competencies, methodology, materials and resources, evaluation, teacher training, mobility programmes, coordination and organisation, and workload were thereby gauged.

Metaconcern 1 was subdivided into five research questions (RQ1, RQ2, RQ3, R4 and RQ5), which this section will address and answer with the evidence obtained after the analysis of the data.

RQ1. *What are the teachers', coordinators', students' and parents' perceptions of the way in which the Bilingual Schools Programme is functioning at all curricular and organisational levels?*

Coinciding with many other qualitative studies on stakeholders' perceptions developed in the Spanish context (cf. Chapter III), our results corroborate that those students, teachers and parents involved in a CLIL programme have a positive opinion regarding, mainly higher levels of self-confidence and interest in the subject (Cabezas Cabello, 2010; Lasagabaster, 2009; Navarro Pablo and García Jiménez, 2018; Pascual Bajo, 2018; Oxbrow, 2018; Rubio Mostacero, 2009). In the same vein, and also in harmony with most of the previous investigations, all stakeholders coincide that there has been an important improvement of FL skills as a result of studying in a bilingual programme (Pérez Cañado, 2018a; Ráez Padilla, 2018; Gálvez Gómez, 2013; Lancaster, 2012; Lorenzo et al., 2009; Madrid and Hughes, 2011; Oxbrow, 2018).

Most of the results obtained through the questionnaires were afterwards corroborated by the interviews carried out with both teachers and students (cf. Sections 5.1.2.1.; 5.1.2.2.). Hence, we obtain the conclusion that students are generally satisfied with the CLIL experience, although teachers are more cautious. In line with Pascual Bajo (2018) and Pladevall-Ballester (2015), we can say that educators' viewpoints are the most realistic, as they claim they are satisfied with the programme but they feel frustrated when dealing with the excessive workload and the lack of adequate support, especially from educational authorities.

Results pertaining to the first block, dealing with *use, competence and development of English in class*, are mainly positive for the three cohorts. Most of the students agree that the English level used in the classroom by their teachers is adequate to participate in the bilingual programme and all of them also affirm that their own level in the FL has increased due to their participation in the CLIL scheme. Similarly, teachers claim that their pupils' use and control of the FL has increased considerably since they joined the CLIL programme. Moreover, teachers mostly feel their own level in English is suitable to take part in bilingual sections. Regarding the development of key competences, all stakeholders coincide in the fact that oral and the written skills are normally practised in a balanced way within the classroom, with reading and writing being the skills in which better results are normally obtained.

However, some discrepancies appear when enquiring about content learning. Although the great majority of students and parents claim to be satisfied in this respect, teachers seem to be more cautious about this issue, especially in the oral interviews, upholding that the learning of contents improves progressively as pupils access superior educational stages, but they also consider that contents are sometimes reduced when they have to be taught in the FL. These results coincide with the ones obtained by Pérez Cañado (2018b), Rodríguez Sabiote et al. (2018) and Pascual Bajo (2018), who revealed that according to educators, learning through a FL slowed progress, especially at the beginning, until students finally caught up with their peers. In line with the foregoing, despite the general optimism shown by families, it is worth mentioning that more than 60% of them consider their children have more difficulties in learning content subjects through a FL.

In relation to the learning of L1, the cohorts believe that CLIL has not influenced Spanish language learning. Hence, Spanish competence has not improved or been hampered because of taking part in a bilingual section. On the contrary, most participants affirm having a higher consciousness about how languages work and about the interrelation of languages, something which was already corroborated in previous studies (Coyle, 2006; Heras and Lasagabaster, 2015; Lancaster, 2016; Lasagabaster, 2011; Lorenzo, Casal and Moore, 2009; Merisuo-Strom, 2007; Seikkula-Leino, 2007; Pascual Bajo, 2018).

Finally, when dealing with the student's degree of participation and self-confidence in the classroom, mixed opinions appear, with parents being the most optimistic. In this respect, teachers also seem to be satisfied with pupils' participation, as it increases progressively, as they get used to the bilingual programme. Thus, students gradually forget their initial shyness and start speaking naturally in the FL. However, the cohorts claim they would not like English to be used to a greater extent within the classroom, coinciding with Lancaster (2015, 2016) and Milla Lara and Casas Pedrosa (2018).

The outlook harboured on the second block on *methodology* can also be considered primarily optimistic, as most of the students and teachers agree that the FL is used for both interactional and transmissive functions within the CLIL classroom, although they also recognise that doubts are normally solved in Spanish, coinciding with San Isidro and Lasagabaster (2018).

Tasks are normally developed in the classroom giving priority to those activities which imply thinking and understanding, aimed at developing students' critical thinking, and not simply memorising. Mixed opinions transpire as regards groupings in the classroom. Indeed, students affirm they normally work autonomously, although teachers are making efforts to implement cooperative learning. Projects are not usually carried out as 30% of teachers underscore, but the guidelines of the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages and the European Language Portfolio are normally being followed. To finish this block, it is necessary to highlight the general discomfort transmitted by parents when asked about their own abilities to help their children with homework. In this sense, 80% of families claim to feel completely unable to cope with this situation and ask for further support in this respect.

Moving on now to the third block, on *materials and resources*, once again encouraging results are discovered. Both teachers and students affirm using authentic and adapted materials within the CLIL classroom, coinciding with previous investigations (Pascual Bajo, 2018). Moreover, both cohorts consider already existing materials to be innovative and interesting, with teachers harbouring a somewhat more optimistic outlook, something which differs greatly from their answers vis-à-vis resources to cater for diversity. In this sense, teachers openly complain about the fact that there are no suitable materials to adapt to all students' learning rhythms. In contrast, extremely positive perspectives are obtained regarding the levels of collaboration among teachers, who usually work conjointly to create new materials and try to alleviate the effects of this lack of resources. However, during the interviews, educators asked for specific time allocation in their timetables devoted to tasks of coordination and the design and creation of new specific materials, in agreement with many previous researchers (Durán Martínez and Beltrán Llavador, 2016, 2017; Fernández and Halbach, 2011; Infante, Benvenuto and Lastrucci, 2009; Massler, 2012; Pérez Cañado, 2014, 2016a; Durán Martínez, Beltrán Llavador and Martínez Abad, 2016; Pascual Bajo, 2018).

As for ICTs, all stakeholders agree they are normally used in class, but students and teachers are not totally optimistic about their employment. Blogs, wikis and webquests have not been incorporated into classes yet, and computer-mediated communication is not normally employed. Moreover, teachers recognise there are no whiteboards in all classes and, on some occasions, they do not work properly. Thus, they complain that the

real number of facilities do not correspond with the widespread use of ICTs there ought to be within CLIL classrooms.

To finish this block, parents continue showing their concern for the lack of guidelines in Spanish in already existing materials. Thus, they ask for materials that adapt to their own needs. If materials included some extra help in Spanish, parents would feel more empowered to help their children, something which would also benefit students. This negativity also transpired in previous investigations by Cabezas Cabello (2010), Pérez Cañado (2011), Gálvez Gómez (2013), Lancaster (2015), Milla Lara and Casas Pedrosa (2018), Ráez Padilla (2018) and Pascual Bajo (2018).

In the fourth block, dealing with *evaluation*, primarily optimistic perspectives are discerned, although some degree of disagreement appears as regards oral evaluation. In this respect, most students and parents affirm oral tests are normally employed, while teachers are more cautious. Therefore, we are led to the conclusion that maybe students are not really conscious about which oral activities will be taken into account for their final mark and which will not.

An overall consensus is reached on the evaluation of content, which is generally given priority. Moreover, the three cohorts agree that all the contents taught in CLIL lessons are evaluated through formative or summative assessment. To finish, it is important to mention that self-evaluation is not normally used.

The next block contains items related mainly to the role of teachers within the bilingual section. Thus, it is entitled *teacher training* in the instructors' questionnaire, *training and information* in the parents' questionnaire and *teachers' use, competence and development of English in class* in the students' questionnaire. The items are equivalent so that comparability among them is possible.

In general, teachers feel confident about their own skills in the FL and their knowledge of sociocultural aspects, an opinion that is also shared by most parents and students, who claim to be satisfied with teachers' abilities. In the same vein, the majority of pupils feel motivated by their FL and NLA teachers, something which does not occasionally happen with language assistants. Hence, even though language teaching assistants are considered to be essential for a completely successful CLIL implementation since they offer support to both teachers and students (Sánchez Torres, 2014; Pascual Bajo, 2018), it has been

documented herein that some of them would need specific training to participate in a bilingual section, especially regarding the content they are supposed to teach.

Regarding teachers' pedagogic preparation, all of them claim to have taken part in different teacher training initiatives, but they consider it compulsory to continue learning and upgrading their present linguistic knowledge. However, most of the educators complain that it is not that easy to participate in these courses because of time constraints and/or the lack of support by the educational authorities. Furthermore, neither teachers nor parents feel satisfied with their knowledge of the regional Plurilingualism Plan and the inner workings of CLIL, a problem that was also found in Pascual Bajo's investigation (2018). To finish this block, it is worth mentioning that teacher training continues to be one of the most important aspects to take into consideration within bilingual sections and, as such, it is frequently listed in the CLIL literature. That is the main reason why it still needs to figure prominently on the CLIL agenda (Rubio Mostacero, 2009; Cabezas Cabello, 2010; Lancaster, 2012; Gálvez Gómez, 2013; Pérez Cañado, 2012, 2015b, 2016b; Pérez Cañado and Ráez Padilla, 2015; Milla Lara and Casas Pedrosa, 2018; Pascual Bajo, 2018).

The most negative perspectives are found in block number six (mobility). Coinciding with many previous investigations (Lancaster, 2012; Gálvez Gómez, 2013; Pascual Bajo, 2018), the great majority of students have not participated in any mobility programmes yet and 40% of them claim they do not feel encouraged by their families to do it, something which differs greatly from parents' responses. In this respect, our results corroborate what Ráez Padilla already mentioned in his 2018 study. According to the latter, further research is required in this area since there is a clear opposition between the families' theoretical enthusiasm towards mobility programmes and the real number of cases in which their children have taken advantage of such initiatives (Ráez Padilla, 2018, p. 193).

In the case of teachers, a slightly more optimistic outlook is perceived, as some of them claim to have participated in exchange programmes or linguistic courses abroad. However, it is not common for educators to take part in study licenses and methodological training courses in another country, a situation that was also documented in the investigations by Cabezas Cabello (2010), Gálvez Gómez (2013), Lancaster (2012) and Pérez Cañado (2012). However, mobility must be an essential aspect for teacher development and, thus, greater emphasis should be placed on it, because the CLIL

experience will be successful only if we count on motivated and adequately trained teachers.

The last block, entitled *improvement and motivation towards learning English* in the students and parents' questionnaires, and *coordination and organisation* in the teachers' questionnaire, once again attests to the success of CLIL. Thus, most of the participants in the three cohorts agree that taking part in a bilingual section is worthwhile despite the increased workload it implies. Moreover, most students coincide in the fact that their level in the FL has increased due to their participation in a bilingual section, something which their families also corroborate. In the same vein, motivation towards learning a FL seems to have increased among students, but not among parents, who transmit different opinions in this respect (Cabezas Cabello, 2010; Navarro Pablo and García Jiménez, 2018; Pérez Cañado, 2018b; Pascual Bajo, 2018). This result may be linked to the difficulties parents find when helping their children with tasks and it can also explain why more than 60% of families do not contact CLIL teachers regularly to check on their child's progress. This worrying situation, acknowledged by previous researchers such as Pascual Bajo (2018), needs to be addressed since communication between families and educators becomes a must for a success-prone implementation and development of CLIL.

Items concretely directed at teachers obtain slightly more negative results in this block. Thus, most of the educators polled consider there is no adequate support from the educational authorities and demand further endorsement on their part (Durán Martínez and Beltrán Llavador, 2016; San Isidro and Lasagabaster, 2018; Pascual Bajo, 2018). Moreover, teachers also ask for assistance in the creation of new materials due to the scarcity of suitable published resources and reiterate the need for adequate teacher training initiatives which are specifically linked to bilingualism. To finish, more positive perspectives appear regarding the levels of collaboration between teachers and the communication they maintain within and outside the school. Most of them claim to be satisfied with the work carried out by the bilingual coordinator even if they also recognise that organisation in general could be improved.

As a conclusion, after analysing the general perspectives which stakeholders have about the bilingual programme, the main strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats of CLIL can be pointed out:

1. Among the **strengths**, it is necessary to highlight the use of innovative, student-centred pedagogical practices such as task-based and project-based learning, which lead to a clear improvement of pupils' FL skills and to the development of key competences. Moreover, there is a progressively increased motivation on the part of learners, who also develop their affective, social and cultural skills. Coinciding with Barrios (2019), Coyle (2007, 2013), Pladevall-Ballester (2015) and Cabezas Cabello (2010), our findings reveal that priority is given to activities which entail thinking and understanding rather than memorising, which, at the same time, help students develop superior critical thinking skills.

Another strength of the bilingual programme is related to the high levels of collaboration existing among teachers, whose willingness to make the most of the CLIL experience for all the agents involved makes the programme even more attractive. In the same vein, thanks to this collaborative work and the educational leadership exerted by the bilingual coordinator, which is praised on most occasions, students can benefit from a wider variety of teaching materials, which are adapted and supervised to make them more practical and engaging. In this respect, cooperation in the design and use of materials has greatly increased. As Cabezas Cabello (2010), Durán Martínez and Beltrán Llavador (2016) and Barrios (2019) underscore, bilingual teachers seem to work together more closely than those educators in traditional programmes, and they seem to use digital resources (e.g. whiteboards, ICTs) to a greater extent.

Mirroring Barrios (2019), evaluation seems to be another strength of CLIL, as pupils are assessed by means of different tools and a diverse range of procedures, including self- and peer- evaluation, as well as oral and written tests.

2. In turn, one of the main **weaknesses** of the programme involves the lack of teacher training on how to implement CLIL successfully; that is to say, teachers worryingly reveal that they are not totally sure about how to put the programme into practice, as they do not have enough information, or they have not received enough training about the Plurilingualism Plan and/or the inner workings of CLIL. This perceived lack of suitable competence makes the programme not be totally uniform, as it is adapted to the own interpretation of each educator and to the characteristics of each subject. It is true that CLIL is conceived as a flexible methodology which can be modified according to the students' features and needs, and according to the distinctive characteristics of the subject taught. However, in

Barrios' words: "not all realisations of CLIL count as effective CLIL" (2019, p. 190). Thus, there must be a consensus on the approaches to integrate language and content (Nikula et al., 2016), bearing in mind that "well-trained teachers" (Cenoz, 2013, p. 389) are a key aspect for successful content and language learning. From this acknowledged weakness arises the need for tailor-made teacher training programmes, as mentioned in previous research projects (Durán Martínez and Beltrán Llavador, 2016; Gálvez Gómez, 2013; Marsh et al., 2012; Massler, 2012; McDougald, 2015; Mehisto and Asser, 2007; Pena Díaz and Porto Requejo, 2008; Pérez Cañado, 2016a; 2016c). However, so far, the demands that this teaching methodology poses on teachers have, on most occasions, been overlooked and have received little attention.

In the same line, teachers also complain that there is no consensus on the use of English within the classroom, with a very different percentage existing in each one of the centres sampled. Hence, although we might think they are adapting their teaching to the necessities of students, there should be clearer guidelines on how much FL should be used in content lessons. Educators should be more aware of this, since these methodological deficiencies hinder successful teaching practices.

Following now with the materials used in class, both teachers and parents complain that they do not incorporate any guidelines in Spanish that enable families to help their children at home. This problem was already documented by Cabezas Cabello (2010), Gálvez Gómez (2013), Ráez Padilla (2018) and Pascual Bajo (2018), who believe it would be essential to provide parents with this extra support in the L1, as they would feel more involved in the learning of their children. In our study, many families recognised they do not maintain much communication with schools, which needs to be seen with caution, as families' engagement is pivotal to obtain successful outcomes in a CLIL programme.

Finally, another weakness detected in our study is related to the figure of the language assistant, who, on many occasions lacks the adequate training to work in a bilingual school, obviously not because of the FL, but because of the content subject they are supposed to teach. In this respect, teachers ask for more control in the selection of the assistants, on the one hand, to guarantee a quality content-subject teaching and, on the other hand, to diminish assistants' stress when facing a (sometimes) totally different subject from the one that (s)he has really studied.

Previous researchers (Hibler, 2010; Scobling, 2011; Tobin and Abello-Contesse, 2013; Gerena and Ramírez Verdugo, 2014; Buckingham, 2018) already documented this problem and also asked for further control to select the most suitable language assistants according to the specific needs of each centre.

3. The **opportunities** found are related to the possibility all stakeholders have of upgrading their level in the foreign language. Students benefit from a more natural way of learning a language in a meaningful environment and teachers can participate in in-service courses to improve their skills. In addition, parents' own motivation towards learning another language can be enhanced thanks to the bilingual programme. In the same vein, mobility initiatives are an excellent opportunity for stakeholders (students and teachers), who can take part in an exchange programme or in courses abroad. In order for centres to be part of this network of mobility initiatives, online communication (e-Twinning) and different websites are available. These online portals help educators and pupils use the language outside the classroom for a concrete purpose; that is to say, language is not only used for the transmission of content, which may be considered a clear opportunity to improve their competences (not only linguistic competence, but also social and cultural knowledge). This real communication mentioned above can also be developed in their own centre, as participants can interact with native speakers, through the figure of language assistants, who are an essential part of CLIL. Students feel highly motivated towards working with assistants and classes are normally more engaging when a native speaker participates in them.
4. The **threats** found are directly related to the weaknesses mentioned above, and are primarily acknowledged by teachers, who openly complain about the lack of adequate support from educational authorities and the increased workload CLIL implies. This lack of support, together with the insufficient information about the principles of the programme, can make teachers simply implement recommended practices at superficial level, which is a risk that was already documented by Barrios (2019). In our investigation, mixed results appear when enquiring into the implementation of the European Language Portfolio and there seem to be discrepancies between policy and practice (Cabezas Cabello, 2010; Barrios, 2019). That is why further attention should be given to these issues to avoid putting CLIL programmes' success in risk.

In the same line, teachers complain about the insufficient time they have to create appropriate materials that help them transmit the content more easily and, at the same time, that can cope with the mixed abilities present in every classroom. That is why, in the oral interviews, they asked for a specific time allocation that favours the creation and/or adaptation of materials, as well as the coordination among the members of the programme. This can be considered a threat to the programme, as teachers' motivation towards bilingualism can decrease, making their work be simply a routine without a clear focus.

Another problematic area that can be considered a threat for the development of bilingualism at schools is the lack of information parents receive about the programme and their anxiety when being unable to help their children with homework, something that already surfaced in previous investigations (Gálvez Gómez, 2013; Barrios, 2019; Ráez Padilla, 2018). If parents feel they cannot support their children with tasks and those with a lower socioeconomic status are not able to pay for extra help outside the classroom, they can discourage their children from enrolling in CLIL.

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

In order to address the second research question of our project, the parallel items in the student, teacher and parent questionnaire were matched, allowing us to carry out a comprehensive comparison of the three cohorts. Thus, by means of the T-test, the statistically significant differences which exist among students, teachers and parents were detected, together with the items for which these differences were manifest. Although mixed perceptions were collected on the part of the three cohorts, their differences in perception rarely reached statistical significance. That is to say, their opinions on the strengths of the Plan as well as their main problems did not vary too much. In this sense, only five items present statistically significant differences, confirming the tendency that teachers' vision of CLIL is the most positive, with students coming across as the most critical cohort.

In general terms, teachers are more optimistic about students' L1 learning and about their own written skills in the FL. Moreover, educators have the most positive viewpoint regarding CLIL materials, which they consider quite interesting and motivating. In contrast, parents are the most positive cohort when speaking about their children's self-confidence inside the classroom and students' written skills in the FL, coinciding then with Pladevall-Ballester (2015) and Pascual Bajo (2018), who detected that families tend to be more positive than those more directly involved in the CLIL programme.

RQ3. *Within the teacher cohort, are there any statistically significant differences in perception in terms of the identification variables considered (age, gender, teaching experience, administrative situation, type of school, setting, English level)?*

Our RQ3 was addressed with the help of ANOVA and the T-test, which allowed us to detect the statistically significant differences within the teacher cohort in terms of the identification variables considered (cf. Section 4.3.3.). Hence, the variables that have yielded substantial differences are: type of teacher, administrative situation, English level and number of subjects taught through English.

To start with, considering the variable of **type of teacher**, statistically significant differences arose in all blocks of the questionnaire, evincing that FL teachers are more enthusiastic about the bilingual programme than NLA teachers. Hence, when asked about *students' use, competence and development of English in class*, FL teachers seem to be more optimistic about the English learning of their pupils and the development of key competences in class. In the same vein, FL teachers' perspectives about their students' understanding of the connection between languages are more positive than NLA instructors'. Moreover, FL teachers consider the level of participation of students is higher thanks to their participation in a bilingual programme, something which also happens with students' oral skills and their sociocultural knowledge. This clear tendency shows that, as confirmed in the oral interviews, content teachers have more doubts on the success of CLIL programme as far as content learning is concerned; that is, NLA teachers, who stated that contents have to be adapted and reduced to be taught through a FL, fear that language learning is somehow hampering content learning, something that was subsequently evaluated in the quantitative side of our project. Moving on to the block on

methodology, FL teachers continue to be more optimistic about the bilingual section and they claim to use projects to a greater extent than in the non-linguistic subject class. Cooperative learning as well as the recommendations of the Common European Framework of Reference and the European Language Portfolio are followed by the FL teachers rather than by NLA teachers, who are also more pessimistic about *materials and resources*. In this respect, FL teachers consider that bilingual materials are very interesting and innovative, apart from the fact that they follow communicative principles and they normally adapt to all learning rhythms, an opinion with which non-linguistic area teachers seem to disagree. The block on *evaluation* presents more heterogeneous results, although FL teachers are once again found to be more optimistic about CLIL. However, significant differences in favour of non-linguistic area teachers arise on the evaluation of content over language, an obvious result if we take into account the fact that NLA teachers are more interested in the content learning of students despite the possible mistakes they may commit when expressing themselves in the FL. The block on *teacher training* does not present many statistically significant differences, but FL teachers continue to have a better opinion on their own oral and written skills, on their own sociocultural knowledge and on their intercultural awareness. As for *mobility*, FL teachers claim to have taken part in more methodological courses abroad than non-linguistic area teachers and they are also more optimistic about the benefits of belonging to a bilingual section. Lastly, NLA teachers feel more dissatisfied with the support received by the governmental authorities, which should serve them as guides throughout the whole academic year, providing them with real help if they need it.

Regarding **teachers' administrative situation**, most of the statistically significant differences found are in favour of the "other" category, that is to say, the group of teachers who are more enthusiastic about CLIL are those who are not civil servants with definite or temporary posts, nor are they supply teachers. Hence, in the first block of the questionnaire, these teachers consider the English level of pupils as well as their understanding of how languages interconnect have improved to a greater extent thanks to their participation in a bilingual programme. This group of teachers, among which language assistants could be included, are found to be more satisfied with students' participation and interest within classes and they are also more positive about pupils' oral skills. The second block (*methodology*) yields similar results, thereby confirming the greater optimism of teachers in this last category, who claim to use projects and

cooperative learning to a greater extent than their counterparts. The same happens when asked about the application of the CEFR recommendations and the European Language Portfolio. Regarding block three on *materials and resources*, the same tendency is observed, although civil servants with a temporary post are found to be more enthusiastic about the use of digital whiteboards in class. Few differences have been detected in the last block of the questionnaires, but they again attest to the greater enthusiasm shown by those “other” educators, who claim to have a higher knowledge of sociocultural aspects in the FL and affirm having taken part in more mobility initiatives.

More important differences were discovered in terms of teachers’ **English level**. Heterogeneous results appear across all the blocks of the questionnaire. To start with, teachers with a B1 level in the FL are more positive when asked about their pupils’ improvement in English and about the development of projects within the classroom. Moreover, these educators claim to be more satisfied with the materials and resources employed, as they normally follow communicative principles. In the same vein, teachers with a B1 level are the ones that best evaluate their own receptive and productive skills in the FL, as well as their sociocultural knowledge, and they are the educators whose perceptions on CLIL in general are the most positive. On the contrary, educators with the highest level in the FL (C2) feel more satisfied with the development of key competences in class and with pupils’ understanding of the connection between languages. Moreover, they are the most optimistic about students’ interest and motivation in the bilingual class, and they offer the highest opinions on materials catering for diversity. Similarly, regarding governmental support, teachers in possession of a C2 level in the FL are the most positive. This may be understood if we consider that the most skilled educators in the FL are perhaps the ones who do not need extra support to carry out a successful CLIL programme. Thus, they feel the support they already receive is more than enough to be able to develop adequate bilingual practices.

To finish the commentary on the statistically significant differences which arose after the within-cohort comparison, the identification variable of **number of subjects taught in the FL** needs to be mentioned. Similar tendencies are discerned for students and teachers. Thus, the more subjects taught through the FL, the better the opinions teachers hold about CLIL, especially regarding materials and resources. It can be observed that,

as the number of CLIL subjects increases, the quality of the outcomes obtained is also enhanced. In other words, CLIL generates a greater satisfaction among stakeholders when they get used to the methodology and when their school curriculum is based on a bilingual scheme.

RQ4. *Within the student cohort, are there any statistically significant differences in perception in terms of the identification variables considered (age, gender, grade, type of school, setting, English level, time of exposure within and outside school)?*

In our attempt to answer RQ4, student perceptions were compared in terms of the different identification variables (cf. Section 4.3.3.). As a result, substantial differences were detected in terms of gender, grade, location, type of school, number of years studying in a bilingual programme and number of subjects taught in the bilingual programme. Considering **gender**, statistically significant differences appeared in favour of female students. In this sense, in the first block of the questionnaire (students' use, competence and development of English in class), females show a greater satisfaction with their knowledge about how languages are interconnected and about their sociocultural knowledge. Moreover, they display greater agreement on the development of key competences in class. Moving to the third block on *materials and resources*, females continue to be more satisfied with the use of authentic materials fostering communication in class and with the use they make of ICTs. As for *teachers' use, competence and development of English in class*, only one item presents statistically significant differences, revealing that female students seem to collaborate more actively with language assistants than males. Finally, it was found that female students have a generally better opinion of the CLIL programme since they mostly consider it is worthwhile to take part in it despite the increased workload it can imply.

Vis-à-vis the **grade** variable, many statistically significant differences were detected throughout all blocks of the questionnaire, revealing that Primary Education students harbour a more positive opinion about the bilingual programme than their Secondary Education peers, except for the sixth block on *mobility* programmes. Primary Education learners claim to be more confident and participative within the CLIL lessons than Secondary Education pupils, something that can easily be understood regarding the lower

affective filter in most children (Krashen, 1985). In the same vein, these students consider their level in Spanish as well as in English has improved to a greater extent and they feel more satisfied with their own oral skills in the FL. This situation, which was already acknowledged by Cenoz, Genesee and Gorter (2013) and Lasagabaster and Sierra (2009), shows how optimism among learners diminishes as they progress academically. Thereby, pupils' perspectives seem to be more negative when they get to superior educational stages, where their effort must be higher. As for *methodology*, tasks and projects are held to be developed to a greater extent in Primary Education classes, where vocabulary is also given more importance so as to set the basis for a broad control of the language. Once again, statistically significant differences were found on all items of the block on *materials and resources*, corroborating that Primary Education students feel more satisfied with the resources they employ in the bilingual class. A more positive outlook is also perceived on *evaluation* on the part of Primary Education pupils, who claim to be more motivated towards learning a FL due to their participation in a bilingual section.

The third variable that yielded substantial differences within the student cohort was that of **location**, which distinguished between students belonging to a rural or an urban school. There is not a clear tendency here, since heterogeneous results were obtained throughout all blocks of the questionnaire. Thus, in block one, urban students are more optimistic about the development of key competences in class and their English sociocultural knowledge. However, rural students consider their knowledge of the Spanish language has improved to a greater extent than that of the urban school pupils. Moving to block two (*methodology*), group-work is revealed to be more frequently used in rural schools than in urban centres. As for *materials and resources*, statistically significant differences were detected in favour of rural school students, who consider CLIL materials to be more interesting and innovative. Moreover, these pupils also claim to make a greater use of digital tools and digital whiteboards in class, something which contrasts with the results obtained regarding online communication (e-Twinning), for which urban school learners are much more optimistic. In block four, focusing on *evaluation*, only one item presents statistically significant differences in favour of urban students, who claim to take part in oral examinations to a greater extent than their rural school peers. As for *teachers' use, competence and development of English in class*, rural students again seem to be more satisfied with their non-linguistic area teachers and the

work developed by language assistants. To finish, the block on *mobility* also presents some statistically significant differences, this time in favour of urban school students, who are found to be more motivated towards taking part in any mobility initiative. Urban learners feel more encouraged to participate in exchanges and other mobility programmes which enable them to foster linguistic and social skills. It is important to show the benefits of such initiatives among rural students, who can also take advantage of them in order to be skilled adults, able to manage in a globalised world.

Concerning the variable of **type of school**, more statistically significant differences arose, revealing that private school students are generally more optimistic about bilingual sections than pupils studying in a public school. Hence, private school learners feel more satisfied with their own *use, competence and development of English in class* and they also consider their level of English as well as their Spanish competence has improved to a greater extent thanks to their participation in a bilingual programme. Similarly, they claim to have a better knowledge of sociocultural aspects in the FL. All items comprised in the second block of the questionnaire, dealing with *methodology*, present statistically significant differences, which attest again to the more optimistic perspectives by private school students, with the exception of group-work, which is shown to be more widely employed in public schools. The same tendency is repeated when asked about *materials and resources, evaluation, teachers' use, competence and development of English in class*, and *improvement and motivation towards learning English*. However, public school students are found to be more satisfied with the use they make of digital tools such as blogs, wikis or webquests, and they feel more optimistic about participating in *mobility* programmes.

The next variable taken into consideration is that of **years studying in a bilingual programme**. Many statistically significant differences were unearthed in this respect, confirming the idea that the more years students belong to a bilingual section, the more optimistic they are about it. Hence, in contrast to the differences obtained in terms of grade, the more experienced CLIL students show better perspectives regarding the development of key competences in class and their own level in both L1 and FL, whose connections they also claim to understand better. It is not surprising, then, that these students feel more confident and participative within the bilingual classes. The same tendency is repeated as regards *methodology*, since more tasks and projects are developed with students who have a more prolonged experience with CLIL. In the same vein, pupils

who have belonged to a bilingual programme for four or more years are found to be more satisfied with the materials and resources employed, and they also practise continuous and final evaluation more often, something which also happens when asked about teachers' use, competence and development of English in class. To finish, although the more experienced students consider there has been a greater improvement in their English language learning due to their participation in CLIL and their own motivation towards learning foreign languages has also increased, those students whose experience within a bilingual section is not so wide feel more optimistic about mobility programmes and they claim to be more encouraged to take part in such initiatives by their parents and teachers.

Similar results to the ones that we have just commented on were obtained regarding the variable of **number of subjects taught within the bilingual programme**. Thus, the more subjects students learn through the FL, the more enthusiastic they are about CLIL. However, as had happened with the previous variable, the tendency changes when dealing with mobility programmes.

RQ5. *Within the parent cohort, are there any statistically significant differences in perception in terms of the identification variables considered (age, gender, level of studies, grade of their children, setting, English level)?*

Few statistically significant differences were detected within the parent cohort, but some identification variables deserve our attention, more concretely, age, gender, grade of their children and level of studies. In terms of **age**, the tendency confirms that older parents are more critical about the bilingual programme than younger parents, being the former, however, more conscious about the theoretical underpinnings of CLIL. Younger parents feel more optimistic about their children's improvement in the FL and about materials, which they normally consider to be interesting and motivating. In the same vein, younger parents are more satisfied with oral assessment and with the focus vocabulary receives in the bilingual class. It seems that older parents are wary of CLIL success, although it is not possible to extrapolate these meagre differences to the whole evaluation of the programme. Regarding **gender**, only four items present statistically significant differences, showing that mothers are more positive about CLIL than fathers.

In this respect, mothers feel more enthusiastic about their children's improvement in the Spanish language and about their learning of vocabulary within the bilingual class. They feel more content with the materials employed and show better opinions on oral evaluation. Once again, these differences do not allow us to paint a complete picture of the bilingual programme in terms of gender. However, we must take into account that, although a greater number of fathers is progressively paying more attention to their children's education, it is still normal for mothers (especially in rural areas) to be the ones in charge of being informed about the educational progress of their offspring, which could account for these more positive perspectives. As for **level of studies**, differences arose in favour of those parents with a university degree or a Doctorate. Those parents who lack of Secondary studies present the most negative vision of bilingual programmes. These results could be understood if we take into account the discomfort these parents feel when they are unable to help their children with homework and assignments. Moreover, parents with a higher educational level are more conscious about the benefits of studying a foreign language and of taking part in international initiatives, which would make their children globalised citizens. The variable of **grade** refers to the academic year in which children are enrolled and it distinguishes between Primary and Secondary Education. Statistically significant differences were discovered in favour of parents whose children belong to Primary Education classes, since they are found to be more optimistic about the innovative methodologies used in the classroom and clearly they feel more capable to help their children with tasks. It is not surprising that the greater the demand of help from parents, the more negative the opinions they show about CLIL, coinciding with Ráez Padilla's outcomes (2018, p. 192). Their optimism is also greater regarding materials and evaluation, as they claim to be satisfied with the different evaluation tools employed, among which tests are highlighted. In the same vein, these parents consider their children's results have improved to a greater extent thanks to their belonging to a bilingual section. Taking into account that Primary Education students usually have a more continuous monitoring by their parents on their academic performance and regular meetings are held in the centres with families to keep them informed, it is easy to understand that the best perspectives are obtained in favour of these families, who tend to be more in contact with the schools than parents of Secondary Education learners.

6.1.2. Metaconcern 2

Our second metaconcern, the first in the quantitative side of our study, aimed at analysing the effects that the CLIL programme has on students' foreign language learning. Thus, it is further subdivided into RQ6, RQ7 and RQ8. A comprehensive evaluation of the English language tests was developed taking into consideration the different intervening variables. Moreover, the duration of the differential effects of CLIL on FL skills was analysed. Below, the answer to the three research questions included here will be offered, with an in-depth explanation of the results obtained.

***RQ6.** Do CLIL programmes implemented with Primary and Secondary school students (experimental group) develop superior linguistic competence (grammar, vocabulary, receptive skills and oral production) to that promoted by EFL programmes with students from the same level (control group)? More simply, is there a linguistic competence differential between CLIL and EFL groups at Primary and Secondary school level in the province of Jaén?*

An exhaustive examination of students' performance in the L2 was carried out, evaluating them on the above-mentioned linguistic skills. As a result, this assessment allowed us to confirm the superior linguistic competence in English of those learners following the CLIL programme. As detailed in section 5.2.2.1., the CLIL cohort outperformed the non-CLIL stream in all skills analysed, with listening as the only skill for which no statistically significant differences were detected, although the CLIL students once again obtained higher means. Focusing on speaking, the oral production of CLIL and non-CLIL students was analysed, taking into account their use of English (grammar and vocabulary), their pronunciation and fluency, and their adequacy to the task. The outcomes obtained attested to the superiority of CLIL students, especially in their knowledge and use of grammar, and in their pronunciation in the FL (Madrid and Barrios, 2018; Nieto Moreno de Diezmas, 2016; Ruiz de Zarobe, 2008; Pascual Bajo, 2018). However, no statistically significant differences appeared when analysing learners' lexical range, fluency or their adaptability to the task presented, although higher means were once again obtained by those pupils belonging to the CLIL group.

A total confirmation of these results was provided when evaluating students separately according to their educational stage. Thus, when comparing 4th year of CSE students following a traditional EFL programme with their CLIL peers, the latter outperformed the former on all the skills and aspects considered. On the contrary, slightly more negative results were obtained regarding the oral production of 6th grade of Primary Education students, since no differences appeared between cohorts. All in all, our results corroborate what many previous investigations have suggested: the positive effects of CLIL on FL attainment. Thus, the vast majority of studies discussed in our literature review (cf. Chapter III) serve as a framework for these outcomes.

***RQ7.** What is the modulating (differential) effect exerted on the Primary and Secondary students' English language competence by the following intervening variables: type of school (public and private), setting (rural-urban), gender, sociocultural status, motivation, verbal intelligence, English level, time of exposure to English in and outside school and linguistic competence of the teacher?*

With the objective of fully understanding the effects of CLIL on English competence, the data obtained on the English tests were also analysed taking into consideration the different intervening variables outlined in section 4.3.3. Starting with the **gender** variable, no statistically significant differences were detected in the initial general analysis, coinciding with the results obtained in previous investigations (Heras and Lasagabaster, 2015; Pascual Bajo, 2018). Yet, upon a deeper examination, it was found that CLIL female students possessed a higher level of vocabulary in the FL than their male peers and generally outperformed them. As for the non-CLIL group, no statistically significant differences were detected between girls and boys on any of the skills tested.

Moving on to the variable of **setting**, in the general comparison of students, statistically significant differences appeared in favour of those pupils whose school is situated in an urban environment, especially in their use of English. However, those learners belonging to a rural school outperformed their urban counterparts on the listening skill, which means that CLIL attenuates differences previously related to the urban-rural setting distinction (Pérez Cañado, 2020). Similar results were obtained when analysing students' results separately, as statistically significant differences arose in favour of CLIL

students from urban schools. In contrast, rural school students following a traditional EFL programme obtained better results than their CLIL peers on all the skills tested, with the exception of use of English. This last result must be analysed carefully and more investigative projects need to be developed in order to find out which reasons are behind the failure of CLIL in some rural environments and if the situation is the same in other rural centres, where the bilingual programme has been implemented together with an EFL stream.

Socioeconomic status was also taken into consideration, distinguishing three different groups according to the level of studies of parents. As a result, statistically significant differences were found in favour of students with a high socioeconomic status on all the skills considered, except for use of English. The same tendency was repeated when analysing the data separately. Hence, CLIL students whose families have a higher socioeconomic status present the highest level of competence in the FL, with the exception of use of English. These results corroborate Anghel, Cabrales and Carro's (2016), and Fernández Sanjurjo, Fernández Costales and Arias Blanco's (2019) outcomes, according to which bilingual programmes negatively affected those students whose socioeconomic status was lower. In contrast to many recent studies which have defended CLIL is cancelling out differences among social classes (Pérez Cañado, 2017b; Pavón, 2018; Rascón and Bretones, 2018; Lorenzo, 2019), the elitist label the programme has borne throughout the years does not seem to have completely fallen.

On the contrary, no statistically significant differences arose in terms of socioeconomic status among non-CLIL learners in any of the skills evaluated, except for their knowledge of vocabulary. That is, non-CLIL students have a greater knowledge of vocabulary when their families have a higher socioeconomic status. Hence, all these results must be taken with caution and need to be revised, in order to determine whether these existing differences might be eliminated in the long run.

The next variable incorporated in our research refers to students' **extramural exposure to the FL**. Pupils were asked to reflect on the time they usually devote to carry out activities in English per week. The general analyses concluded that those students who have a higher exposure to English (more than nine hours per week) possessed the highest FL competence. However, when analysing each cohort separately, no statistically significant differences were detected, except for vocabulary and reading skills in the case of non-CLIL students with a higher level of exposure. Coinciding with previous

investigations (Pascual Bajo, 2018), this lack of differences in the CLIL class can be clearly understood, as the greater exposure to the FL in class may have helped those students with a lesser access to English outside the school, eliminating the existing gap between them and the other students with greater access.

Statistically significant differences were also detected in terms of the **type of school** variable. In the overall comparisons, differences appeared on all the skills considered in favour of those students belonging to a private bilingual school, except for use of English, in which learners from public bilingual schools were found to obtain better outcomes. The same tendency was repeated when analysing the results from Primary schools. Hence, students from private Primary schools obtained better results in vocabulary, use of English, listening and reading. As happened with the variable of socioeconomic status mentioned above, without which the school type variable would be non-significant (Madrid and Barrios, 2018, p. 33), CLIL seems to favour especially those students whose social and economical background is more advantageous; that is, those who belong to the so-called elite, among which private school students are found. In line with Paran (2013), Bruton (2013) and Madrid and Hughes (2011), bilingualism has, on occasions, discriminated students in terms of their academic, social and economic situation. In Secondary Education, the situation changed, as no private bilingual schools were considered in our research. As a result, statistically significant differences were found on all the skills tested in favour of the CLIL group from public centres, corroborating then Pérez Cañado's (2018a) outcomes. This encouraging result suggests that the differences detected between the different types of schools are not clear-cut and they can be eliminated in the long run (Pérez Cañado, 2020).

RQ8. *Do the possible differential effects exerted by CLIL programmes on English language competence pervade six months after the CLIL programme is discontinued or do they gradually disappear?*

RQ8 aimed at confirming if the effects that CLIL exerts on English learning pervaded after the discontinuation of the programme (six months later), or if, on the contrary, they tended to disappear. To that end, the results obtained in the post-test phase were compared with the outcomes of the delayed post-test phase. Hence, after analysing the results of the

CLIL group, no statistically significant differences were detected on any of the skills tested, except for listening. That is, although CLIL students obtained slightly better results in the delayed post-tests on all the skills considered, the differences were only significant for their oral receptive skill.

Turning now to the analysis of non-CLIL students' results, no statistically significant differences appeared between the two phases, with the exception of reading. Differences in means were also detected in vocabulary, favouring the delayed post-tests, although they did not reach statistical significance. However, slightly worse results were obtained in the delayed post-phase for use of English and listening, something which clearly differs from CLIL group's results.

To finish, we analysed the possible statistically significant differences across the cohorts in the delayed post-test phase. The outcomes obtained attest to the supremacy of the bilingual programme, since significant differences arose for all skills considered in favour of CLIL pupils. Coinciding with the results of previous studies (Pladevall-Ballester and Vallbona, 2016; Pascual Bajo, 2018; Lorenzo, 2019), CLIL students outperformed their EFL counterpart on receptive skills (listening and reading) as well as on use of English and knowledge of vocabulary.

As a conclusion, we can affirm that our data point to the general improvement of skills in the FL, although it is not significant on all aspects evaluated. Hence, we consider that our results support the continuity of CLIL programmes in post-Secondary stages, something which would help to consolidate their positive effects among students. In line with Pérez Cañado (2018a), our results indicate that, although many of the effects of bilingual education remain, these can gradually disappear if the programmes are discontinued.

6.1.3. Metaconcern 3

Metaconcern 3, articulated in RQ9 and RQ10, aimed at discovering the effects of CLIL on students' Spanish competence (L1). By taking into account the final marks of pupils for Spanish language, a comparison was carried out across the different cohorts, and a subsequent analysis of the possible effects that the intervening variables have on students' L1 competence was also conducted.

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

Our initial overall comparison of the level attained by the two cohorts in the Spanish subject revealed that the means obtained by the CLIL group were significantly higher in comparison to the non-CLIL strand's. Although no marks from Primary Education students could be used for a subsequent analysis, statistically significant differences were detected within the Secondary Education group. Hence, corroborating previous studies' findings (Bergroth, 2006; Madrid and Barrios, 2018; Merino and Lasagabaster, 2015; Merisuo-Strom, 2006, 2007; Pérez Cañado, 2017a; Seikkula-Leino, 2007; Pascual Bajo, 2018; Lorenzo, 2019), the lower exposure to the mother tongue of CLIL students does not result in a poorer performance in their L1. Hence, CLIL can no longer be considered a "competitor to L1 learning" (Lorenzo, Casal and Moore, 2009, p. 435).

***RQ10.** What is the modulating (differential) effect exerted on the Primary (6th grade) and Secondary (4th year CSE) students' Spanish language competence by the following intervening variables: type of school (public and private), province, setting (rural-urban), gender, sociocultural status, motivation, verbal intelligence, English level, time of exposure to English in and outside school and linguistic competence of the teacher?*

Regarding the variable of **gender**, statistically significant differences were observed across cohorts in favour of the female participants. Following the tendency of CLIL effects on FL, better results were obtained by females in the Spanish language subject. However, when the analysis was carried out within each cohort, no statistically significant differences were found in the CLIL group. No comparisons could be carried out within the non-CLIL cohort.

The next variable considered was that of **setting**, which yielded statistically significant differences across cohorts in favour of those students in urban schools. In the same vein, when the analyses were developed within cohorts, differences arose in the CLIL group, corroborating once again the superiority of learners from urban centres. As happened with the effects of CLIL on FL, setting is an important variable that clearly

influences L1 learning, once again in favour of those learners who belong to urban schools, something which runs counter to Pavón Vázquez's (2018), Pérez Cañado's (2018c) and Navarro Pablo and López Gándara's (2020) outcomes, for whom the rural-urban divide does not determine the differences between CLIL and non-CLIL learners.

Taking into consideration the amount of **exposure to the FL** students have **outside the school**, no statistically significant differences appeared among CLIL and non-CLIL learners, although slightly higher means were obtained in favour of those students with a higher level of exposure. Despite not being statistically significant, these positive results lead to the conclusion that a greater exposure to the FL can also generate a higher metalinguistic awareness in the student, who would also be more conscious of the connection between languages, something which Cenoz (2015) already documented. That is why FL learning in CLIL does not hamper L1 learning; rather, it enhances it. In the within-cohort comparison, no differences were detected either within the CLIL group.

Significant differences were obtained in terms of **socioeconomic status**, both across and within cohorts. Thus, although it was not possible to run ANOVAs within the non-CLIL group, mirroring previous studies (Pascual Bajo, 2018; Pérez Cañado, 2018c), pupils with a higher socioeconomic status obtained better results in their L1. These outcomes were confirmed by the Tukey HSD comparison, which corroborated that the differences between low and middle socioeconomic status were not significant, while those in favour of the high SES pupils were considerable. However, further statistical operations like the discriminant analyses included in section 5.2.5. and summarised in RQ13 proved necessary to accurately describe the influence of this variable.

The last variable taken into account was the **type of school**. Thus, by means of ANOVA, we carried out a comprehensive analysis of the three class groups included in our study: public non-CLIL school, public CLIL school and private CLIL school. Statistically significant differences were detected in favor of private school students. Nevertheless, no differences were found between CLIL and non-CLIL groups in the public school. As a result, we can conclude that CLIL does not exert a negative effect on the Spanish language of students in the experimental group.

To finish, a general conclusion can be drawn in this respect: CLIL does not hinder L1 learning, as had generally been assumed. However, as happened with FL learning, it tends to favour especially those pupils who belong to a private school in an urban

environment, where the socioeconomic status is higher. Once again, the elitist tendency of CLIL programmes is documented (Paran, 2013; Bruton, 2013) and should be investigated in depth in order to guarantee equality of opportunities among students.

6.1.4. Metaconcern 4

Metaconcern 4, subdivided into RQ11 and RQ12, was aimed at evaluating the impact of CLIL on content learning. Thus, similarly to the Spanish subject discussed in the previous section, the final grades obtained by students in the Science subject were collected from the schools and analysed both per cohort and per group. In the same vein, the effects of the different intervening variables on the content subject learning by students were also assessed.

RQ11. Does CLIL impact the acquisition of content in Science by the experimental group following this programme, in comparison to that obtained by the EFL control?

In the initial across-cohort comparison, statistically significant differences were detected in favour of the CLIL cohort, corroborating then the findings of previous investigations (Mattheoudakis, Alexiou and Laskaridou, 2014; Serra, 2007; Surmont et al., 2016), according to which teaching content through a FL has no detrimental effect on its learning. As had happened with the Spanish subject, it was not possible to carry out a more in-depth analysis of CLIL and non-CLIL Primary students. However, in the case of Secondary schools, statistically significant differences emerged in favour of bilingual students. Hence, CLIL learners outperform their non-CLIL counterparts in the learning of content.

RQ12. What is the modulating (differential) effect exerted on the Primary (6th grade) and Secondary (4th year CSE) students' Science competence by the following intervening variables: type of school (public and private), province, setting (rural-urban), gender, sociocultural status, motivation, verbal intelligence, English level, time of exposure to English in and outside school and linguistic competence of the teacher?

With regards to the first variable considered, the statistical analyses performed revealed that **gender** did not yield any statistically significant differences between students in terms of the level attained in the Science subject. Although female students obtained slightly higher means, they did not reach statistical significance. The same happened when the analysis was carried out within each cohort.

In contrast, statistically significant differences emerged in terms of **setting**, once again, in favour of those urban school learners. Nevertheless, when the comparisons were performed within each cohort, higher means were obtained in the CLIL group by students from urban centres, but they did not reach statistical significance. Thus, in harmony with Pavón Vázquez (2018), it can be assumed that CLIL works equally effectively with pupils regardless of their setting. As with the rest of variables, it was not possible to carry out a further analysis of the results by setting in the non-CLIL cohort.

As for the amount of **exposure to the FL outside the school**, no statistically significant differences appeared across the cohorts, coinciding with the results obtained for FL and L1 learning. However, it is noticeable that once more, slightly higher means were obtained by those pupils who spend more than nine hours in contact with the FL outside the educational centre, which is not surprising, as the higher the contact with the FL, the higher control of the language students have and the easier it is for them to understand content. When the analyses were conducted within the CLIL cohort, similar results appeared, as no substantial differences were observed. Hence, this variable is not significant in accounting for variability in subject content learning.

Socioeconomic status did not yield significant differences among students in terms of content learning. Although higher means were obtained in favour of those learners with a high socioeconomic status, the differences cannot be considered statistically substantial. Similarly, no differences were discovered within the CLIL group, which, in contrast to Anghel, Cabrales and Carro (2016), but in line with Rascón Moreno and Bretones Callejas (2018), means that content learning in a bilingual environment is not affected by the social and cultural background of pupils.

Regarding the **type of school**, in the initial analysis carried out across cohorts, statistically significant differences were detected in favour of students belonging to a private school. That is to say, those pupils who are learning content through CLIL in a private centre obtain better grades than their CLIL or non-CLIL peers from public

schools, something which was later corroborated by the Tukey HSD comparisons. In the comparisons within the cohorts, the analysis could only be performed in public schools, resulting in differences in favour of CLIL students, who obtain better grades in the Science subject than the non-CLIL pupils. However, these differences were not statistically sustained, suggesting then that this variable did not affect students' content learning to a great extent.

6.1.5. Metaconcern 5

In order to underpin the key assumptions of this Thesis, the principal outcomes obtained in our discriminant analysis will be presented below (cf. Section 5.2.5). This statistical evaluation aimed at quantifying the effect of the different intervening variables considered in our research. Therefore, by applying this statistical technique, we could calculate the discriminating potential of the moderating and independent variables included in our investigation, with a view to determining whether the differences found can be truly ascribed to CLIL or not.

RQ13. If there is a competence differential between the treatment and comparison groups, is it truly ascribable to language learning based on academic content processing?

As mentioned above, on addressing the last research question, successive discriminant analyses were carried out to conclude which variables best account for the differences detected between the experimental and the control groups in English, Spanish and Science. Starting with the English language subject, it was revealed that the independent variable (Group-CLIL programme) together with the moderating variables of socioeconomic status and verbal intelligence are the ones which display the greatest discriminating potential. The subsequent analyses indicated that all of these variables were significant, corroborating that although SES clearly benefits both CLIL and non-CLIL students, those belonging to a CLIL programme obtain better results in English. Thus, it can be concluded that the main reason behind the successful results obtained by the CLIL group is precisely being taught in a bilingual environment where L2 learning is fostered more naturally. Generally speaking, CLIL students outperform their non-CLIL

counterparts because of the learning programme they are following, which is a crucial factor in the acquisition of this new language.

In the case of Spanish language competence, CLIL was not found to discriminate between cohorts. The analyses performed evinced that the differences could be ascribed to the variables of socioeconomic status, verbal intelligence, type of school, lack of interest and selfcommitment. Thus, learning the students' L1 by means of a bilingual programme does not influence the outcomes obtained, with other variables being responsible for the differences detected across cohorts.

Lastly, regarding content subject learning, a similar situation was discerned, as it was found that the academic level attained in the Science subject does not discriminate between cohorts; that is, teaching content through a FL did not affect students' learning, either positively or negatively. Instead, results pointed to self-commitment and lack of interest as the variables with greatest discriminating potential between groups.

All the analyses performed confirm that the CLIL scheme is the variable which accounts for the main differences found between the groups in English learning. Thus, it can be affirmed that the better results obtained by the experimental cohort are truly ascribable to CLIL. Moreover, it was proved that CLIL does not hamper content learning and it does not negatively affect the students' mother tongue. Therefore, students should benefit from bilingual programmes, as they offer multiple opportunities, making their learning more attractive and giving them different tools to cope with their future necessities. As has been proved, their academic results will not be hampered but fostered, despite a possible increase of the workload.

In conclusion, it seems to be clear that CLIL programmes are here to stay and everybody must embrace them as the gateway to the broadening of opportunities for our young learners, to the creation of more skilled and motivated adults and, above all, to the internationalisation of our societies.

6.2. Limitations of the study and lines for future research

This Thesis has addressed one of the most important current areas of interest in second language acquisition (SLA) research: to analyse how CLIL is playing out in our

community, which is one of the Spanish monolingual regions where there is not a deep-rooted tradition for learning foreign languages. More concretely, we have conducted our investigation in the Andalusian province of Jaén, an area where little research on the topic has been carried out so far. However, our study has some limitations, which we will try to present here, suggesting at the same time possible lines for future research.

Firstly, one of its limitations has to do with the geographically reduced sample that participated in the study. Although our investigation can be characterised as a case study, in which our main focus of attention has been the province of Jaén, it would be interesting to incorporate more participants to the sample and work conjointly with other researchers. This would allow us to carry out a greater number of statistical analyses than those possible with a numerically limited sample. Moreover, with an increased number of participants, we would be able to examine pupils from other types of schools in the province (charter schools), or even analyse other areas of the region. Thus, we would determine if the results coincide with the conclusions of this investigation and if the PEDLA is working efficiently throughout the community of Andalusia.

Secondly, instead of considering the pupils' final grades in Spanish and Science subjects which the schools provided us, standardised tests would have been a better tool for the collection of data. However, this was done in the interest of the feasibility of our investigation. It would have been impossible to administer additional tests for students since schools were already overloaded because of the various testing phases corresponding to the qualitative and quantitative sides of the project. Despite this, we acknowledge that using standardised tests would be totally beneficial in future research projects with a greater number of schools participating.

Thirdly, regarding methodological triangulation, our study has employed two types of instruments to compare stakeholder perceptions about CLIL: questionnaires and interviews. A third tool could be incorporated so that we can better scrutinise and report on the realities of CLIL classrooms. To that end, observation protocols would allow us to personally witness the real implementation of bilingual programmes, with its strengths and drawbacks. Obviously, to guarantee the impartiality in the results, the observer would not belong to the school and would remain completely unobtrusive during the lesson.

Considering now stakeholder perceptions, some of the findings related to the figure of language assistants particularly drew our attention. There was an apparent

disagreement between teachers' opinions on the important role assistants play inside the bilingual classroom and their actual abilities to take part in certain classes, especially in Secondary Education. Bearing this situation in mind, we consider interesting lines for future research are open: we need to bridge the gap between teachers' positive perceptions about language assistants and their real skills to guarantee a successful implementation of CLIL.

In the same vein, following with stakeholder perceptions, another mismatch appeared, this time affecting mobility. Although most of the participants are conscious of the benefits mobility programmes have for FL learning, very few students have already taken part in any of these initiatives. Hence, it would be advisable to deepen into the contrast between the theoretical appraisal of mobility and its actual translation to the practical plane, in order to foster the latter more extensively.

Focusing on the analysis of CLIL effects on FL attainment, our study did not incorporate the data corresponding to the students' written productive skill. Although empirical evidence on the impact of CLIL programmes on pupils' use of English, vocabulary, the receptive skills and the oral productive skill was provided, it was not possible to assess students' written production. In future research projects, it would be desirable to evaluate this skill by taking into account different subaspects (communication, task, organisation, lexis-grammar and mechanics) and to complement this examination with a CAF (Complexity, Accuracy and Fluency) analysis.

Despite these limitations, the present longitudinal investigation has provided an in-depth portrait of the effects of CLIL implementation in a particular educational context, with the application of tried-and-tested instruments. All the data collected have allowed us to offer a detailed description of all stakeholder perceptions, as well as empirical evidence on the impact of CLIL programmes on FL competence and on student attainment in the Spanish language and Science subjects.

Furthermore, many of the limitations presented in previous research projects have been superseded in this Thesis, thereby confirming the reliability of its results. For example, it has employed a mixed methods research design (a combination of qualitative and quantitative features), and it has used different instruments, which have been distributed to a homogeneous sample. Homogeneity of the experimental and control

groups was guaranteed in terms of verbal intelligence and motivation. Moreover, three types of triangulation have been applied: data, methodological and location triangulation.

Previous investigations also presented other lacunae involving lack of statistical analyses and a failure to factor in important variables. In order to supersede these shortcomings, our study considered a wide number of dependent, independent and moderating variables (cf. Section 4.3.3) to gauge if and how they influenced our results. Moreover, successive discriminant analyses were conducted to determine the existence of significant differences between cohorts and to discover which variable was truly responsible for these differences.

To conclude, taking into account the urgent need for further empirical research in our region, our dissertation has sought to shed some light on the effects CLIL is actually having on students' FL competence, Spanish competence and on their subject content learning. Moreover, we have presented the general sentiments of all stakeholders involved about bilingual programmes, which can help us better understand the main weaknesses that should be tackled in the near future.

In spite of its limitations, we hope that this study can contribute to pushing forward CLIL implementation and research in our province and in the monolingual community of Andalusia to develop Andalusian citizens' competence in a foreign language.

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SUMMARY OF THESIS IN SPANISH

Impacto del Aprendizaje Integrado de Contenidos y Lenguas (AICLE) en el aprendizaje de la lengua materna (L1), la lengua extranjera (Inglés – L2) y el contenido (Ciencias): Un estudio cualitativo y cuantitativo

Justificación del estudio y metodología

Desde su nacimiento con los modelos de educación bilingüe en Canadá y Norte América, el Aprendizaje Integrado de Contenidos y Lenguas Extranjeras (AICLE) ha evolucionado hasta obtener reconocimiento en todo el continente europeo. Hasta el momento, el análisis de los resultados de los estudios desarrollados generalmente ha demostrado la influencia positiva que AICLE tiene sobre los estudiantes y los demás agentes involucrados en el proceso enseñanza-aprendizaje. Sin embargo, siguen existiendo algunos déficits en la evaluación de esta metodología de enseñanza, por lo que los resultados obtenidos deben ser interpretados con precaución.

Según algunos investigadores (Genesee, 1998; Pérez Cañado, 2011; Pérez Cañado and Ráez Padilla, 2015), hay una notable carencia de investigaciones empíricas verdaderamente fiables, así como estudios de naturaleza cuantitativa. La desafortunada realidad es que la amplia mayoría de evaluaciones de los programas bilingües existentes han trabajado con muestras numérica y geográficamente reducidas, no incluyen triangulación de datos ni consideran el efecto de importantes variables moderadoras. Asimismo, hay investigaciones que no garantizan la homogeneidad de la muestra, no utilizan instrumentos previamente validados y no llevan a cabo los análisis estadísticos necesarios para no solo descubrir si las diferencias entre los grupos son significativas, sino para determinar si las diferencias detectadas pueden realmente atribuirse al programa AICLE.

Esta situación es precisamente el punto de partida de nuestro estudio, ya que existe una urgente necesidad de investigaciones empíricas. Es necesario llevar a cabo análisis de una naturaleza más profunda para entender mejor la funcionalidad del programa bilingüe. Por lo tanto, nuestra Tesis pretende abordar y superar los problemas mencionados anteriormente ofreciendo una monitorización y un análisis profundo de la

implementación de AICLE, lo que es clave para un mejor entendimiento de los procesos y resultados de estos programas. Concretamente, nuestro estudio pretende examinar los efectos de AICLE desde una perspectiva cualitativa y cuantitativa. Por esta razón, en la parte cuantitativa de nuestro estudio se analiza el impacto del bilingüismo en el aprendizaje de la lengua extranjera, la lengua materna y el contenido. Nuestro objetivo es evaluar si los participantes del grupo bilingüe desarrollan unas destrezas superiores en el aprendizaje de lenguas y contenidos a aquellos estudiantes que siguen los programas tradicionales de enseñanza del inglés como lengua extranjera. Asimismo, el estudio pretende determinar si los posibles efectos ejercidos por el bilingüismo perduran seis meses después de que el programa se haya discontinuado o si, por el contrario, tienden a desaparecer.

Esta parte cuantitativa ha sido complementada desde un punto de vista cualitativo por medio de un análisis DAFO sobre la satisfacción generada por los programas AICLE entre todos los agentes implicados. Es decir, se han recogido las opiniones de profesores, padres y alumnos por medio de cuestionarios. Además, los profesores y los alumnos participan en entrevistas personales y grupales. Tal y como múltiples investigadores han señalado, evaluar las actitudes y el nivel de motivación de los participantes hacia el programa bilingüe debe convertirse en un elemento clave a tener en cuenta, ya que los factores afectivos ejercen una gran influencia sobre el éxito del programa. Igualmente, es importante examinar las perspectivas de los diferentes colectivos involucrados en el proceso de enseñanza-aprendizaje ya que no todos tienen una visión homogénea sobre el programa bilingüe y su implementación en nuestra comunidad.

En el ámbito cuantitativo, se han usado diferentes tipos de pruebas como instrumentos de nuestro estudio: pruebas de gramática, vocabulario, comprensión lectora, producción escrita, comprensión oral y producción oral. En esta parte cuantitativa, han participado grupos bilingües y no bilingües y se han tenido en cuenta procedimientos de triangulación múltiple.

La investigación se ha desarrollado en la comunidad autónoma de Andalucía, una comunidad tradicionalmente monolingüe, pero que lleva implementando el programa bilingüe más de diez años. Más concretamente, alumnos, profesores y padres pertenecientes a centros públicos y privados de la provincia de Jaén han sido nuestro principal foco de atención. De esta forma, nuestro principal objetivo ha sido analizar cómo los programas bilingües están realmente funcionando en esta provincia. Para

conseguirlo, la investigación se centra en determinar los logros obtenidos por ambos grupos (bilingüe y no bilingüe) en centros de Primaria y de Secundaria en dos momentos temporales distintos. Además, se utiliza la triangulación múltiple, ya que las opiniones de los agentes son comparadas para detectar los aspectos positivos y los posibles aspectos negativos del programa, sugiriendo al mismo tiempo posibles soluciones para mejorar la experiencia bilingüe.

Como se puede inferir de lo anteriormente mencionado, los objetivos de nuestra investigación deben tratarse de manera separada según la naturaleza de la investigación, ya que se persiguen fines cuantitativos y cualitativos. De una parte, la parte cuantitativa mide el progreso en la lengua extranjera de alumnos de 4º de ESO y de 6º de EP, y pretende descubrir si los participantes que pertenecen al programa bilingüe desarrollan unas habilidades superiores a aquellas que promueve el programa tradicional de la enseñanza del inglés como lengua extranjera con alumnos del mismo centro y del mismo nivel, y estudiantes de un colegio privado. El estudio también pretende determinar si el posible impacto del programa bilingüe en el aprendizaje del inglés perdura en el curso de 1º de Bachillerato, es decir, seis meses después de que el programa sea discontinuado, o si gradualmente desaparecen. Además, se evalúan los efectos de AICLE en el aprendizaje de la lengua materna (castellano) y del contenido (Ciencias). En este sentido, nuestro principal objetivo será descubrir si el programa bilingüe perjudica el aprendizaje de contenidos y de la lengua materna en comparación con grupos no bilingües, que estudian los contenidos de las áreas no lingüísticas en castellano.

De otra parte, la parte cualitativa del proyecto evalúa la satisfacción generada por el programa bilingüe entre todos los agentes implicados (alumnos, profesores y padres). Con vistas a desarrollar un análisis DAFO del AICLE, se utilizan tres cuestionarios diferentes y se llevan a cabo entrevistas con alumnos y profesores, respectivamente. Tres objetivos principales conducen nuestro proyecto y sirven como punto de referencia para la investigación:

1. La satisfacción generada por el programa bilingüe entre los principales agentes involucrados y la identificación de las fortalezas, debilidades, oportunidades y amenazas más importantes del programa. Se van a tener en cuenta todos los niveles curriculares y organizativos afectados por el programa bilingüe:
 - a. Competencias
 - b. Metodología

- c. Evaluación
 - d. Formación del profesorado
 - e. Programas de movilidad
 - f. Carga de trabajo
 - g. Coordinación y organización
2. Desarrollo de la competencia lingüística en inglés de los alumnos a través del programa bilingüe en una región tradicionalmente monolingüe. Por tanto, el impacto de CLIL será considerado en:
- a. Gramática
 - b. Vocabulario
 - c. Comprensión oral y escrita
 - d. Producción oral y escrita
3. Rendimiento del alumnado en la lengua materna y en el área no lingüística enseñada a través de la lengua extranjera. Los efectos de AICLE serán considerados en:
- a. Lengua Castellana y Literatura
 - b. Ciencias

Estos objetivos generales pueden subdividirse en las siguientes preguntas de investigación, a las que nuestra Tesis pretende dar respuesta:

Área focal 1: PERCEPCIONES DE LOS PARTICIPANTES

PI1: *¿Cuáles son las percepciones de los profesores, padres y estudiantes sobre el funcionamiento del programa bilingüe en todos los niveles curriculares y organizativos en su centro escolar?*

PI2: *¿Existen diferencias estadísticamente significativas entre las percepciones de los tres colectivos?*

PI3: *Dentro del colectivo de los profesores, ¿existen diferencias estadísticamente significativas de percepción en función de las variables de identificación (edad, género, experiencia laboral, situación administrativa, tipo de colegio, contexto y nivel de inglés)?*

PI4: *Dentro del colectivo de los alumnos, ¿existen diferencias estadísticamente significativas de percepción en función de las variables de identificación (edad, género, curso, tipo de colegio, contexto, nivel de inglés y tiempo de exposición al inglés dentro y fuera del aula)?*

PI5: *Dentro del colectivo de los padres, ¿existen diferencias estadísticamente significativas de percepción en función de las variables de identificación (edad, género, nivel de estudios, curso de sus hijos, contexto, nivel de inglés)?*

Área focal 2: EFECTOS DEL AICLE EN LA LENGUA EXTRANJERA

PI6: *¿Desarrollan los alumnos del grupo experimental AICLE implementado en centros de Primaria y de Secundaria competencias lingüísticas (gramática, vocabulario y las cuatro destrezas) superiores a las desarrolladas a través de programas tradicionales en grupos no AICLE del mismo nivel (grupo de control)?*

PI7. *¿Cuál es el efecto modulador de las variables intervinientes (tipo de centro: público-privado, contexto: rural-urbano, género, nivel socioeconómico, motivación, inteligencia verbal, nivel de inglés y tiempo de exposición al inglés dentro y fuera del aula) sobre la competencia en lengua extranjera del alumnado?*

PI8. *Según la evolución del grupo AICLE de la fase de post-test a la de seguimiento, ¿perduran los posibles efectos diferenciales ejercidos por el programa AICLE sobre la competencia lingüística en inglés seis meses después del fin de dicho programa o desaparecen gradualmente?*

Área focal 3: IMPACTO DEL AICLE EN LA LENGUA MATERNA

PI9: *¿Afecta el programa AICLE al nivel de lengua castellana del grupo experimental en comparación con el grupo de control?*

PI10: *¿Cuál es el efecto modulador de las variables intervinientes (tipo de centro: público-privado, contexto: rural-urbano, género, nivel socioeconómico, motivación,*

inteligencia verbal, nivel de inglés y tiempo de exposición al inglés dentro y fuera del aula) sobre la competencia en lengua castellana del alumnado?

Área focal 4: IMPACTO DEL AICLE EN EL APRENDIZAJE DE CONTENIDOS A TRAVÉS DEL INGLÉS

***PI11:** ¿Afecta el programa AICLE a la adquisición de contenidos de Ciencias del grupo experimental en comparación con el grupo de control?*

***PI12:** ¿Cuál es el efecto modulador de las variables intervinientes (tipo de centro: público-privado, contexto: rural-urbano, género, nivel socioeconómico, motivación, inteligencia verbal, nivel de inglés y tiempo de exposición al inglés dentro y fuera del aula) sobre la competencia en la asignatura de Ciencias del alumnado?*

Área focal 5: EVALUACIÓN DEL DIFERENCIAL. ANÁLISIS DISCRIMINANTE

***PI13:** En caso de existir diferencias significativas entre el grupo experimental y el de control, ¿pueden realmente atribuirse al programa AICLE?*

El capítulo 4 de nuestra Tesis presenta la metodología empleada para la recolección y el tratamiento de los datos durante las diferentes etapas del estudio:

1) Fase de homogeneización:

La primera fase de nuestra investigación tuvo como principal objetivo el de seleccionar la muestra final. Para tal fin, una lista de los diferentes centros públicos y privados existentes en la provincia que poseían las características específicas que demandábamos en nuestro proyecto (dos clases: una bilingüe y una no bilingüe) fue solicitada a la Delegación de Educación y al coordinador provincial de plurilingüismo. Después de contactar con los centros seleccionados, el proyecto fue debidamente presentado, explicando los procesos a llevar a cabo, así como sus beneficios. Posteriormente, los colegios firmaron su consentimiento para formar parte del estudio.

En esta fase, se utilizaron diferentes tipos de procedimientos para la recolección de datos, siendo todos ellos instrumentos validados ya existentes que pertenecen a la enseñanza de las lenguas y a la investigación del área psicológica. Antes de realizar dichos tests, los alumnos tuvieron que contestar diez preguntas personales, concretamente, su nombre, colegio, curso, grupo, edad, género, nacionalidad y edad y nivel de estudios de sus padres. Esta información biográfica es esencial para caracterizar nuestra muestra y para tenerla en cuenta como variables intervinientes.

El test de inteligencia verbal, que forma parte de la Evaluación Factorial de las Aptitudes Intelectuales (EFAI), diseñado por Santamaría et al. (2016), y los tests de motivación (Pelechano, 1994) se aplicaron en cada uno de los centros durante el transcurso de una hora, casi al final del curso académico 2014-2015, exactamente diez años después de la implementación del programa bilingüe en nuestra comunidad. Finalmente, se utilizó un cuestionario sobre la exposición al inglés fuera del centro, con el que los alumnos debían reflexionar sobre la cantidad de contacto que mantienen con el inglés fuera del aula, dando ejemplos concretos. De esta forma, los alumnos debían responder a cuestiones acerca de la cantidad de horas que dedican a la realización de actividades en inglés, leer libros o revistas en la lengua extranjera u otro tipo de actividades.

Tras analizar estos tests, no se detectaron diferencias estadísticamente significativas entre los grupos. La muestra final de nuestro estudio la conforman aquellos centros que mostraron homogeneidad en relación con las variables incluidas.

2) Fase Cualitativa

En la segunda fase de nuestra investigación, correspondiente a la parte cualitativa del proyecto, se utilizaron dos instrumentos diferentes para así garantizar la triangulación metodológica. Se diseñaron y validaron tres tipos de cuestionarios y protocolos para entrevistas semi-estructuradas, todos ellos siendo paralelos, es decir, diseñados para recoger el mismo tipo de información, permitiendo la comparabilidad de los datos e incrementando la validez y fiabilidad de los mismos. Como se ha mencionado anteriormente, todos ellos incluyen una serie de variables de identificación para cada colectivo.

Dentro del proyecto Mon-CLIL, se diseñaron tres tipos de cuestionarios, uno para cada uno de los colectivos (estudiantes, padres y alumnos), y se publicaron tanto en inglés como en castellano. Cada uno de ellos incluye preguntas demográficas o personales y preguntas de opinión para descubrir las perspectivas de los participantes, relacionadas con el programa AICLE. Estas preguntas aparecen en la forma de 50 ítems dentro del cuestionario de los estudiantes, 61 ítems en el cuestionario de los profesores y 40 ítems en el cuestionario de los padres, los cuales aparecen clasificados en siete bloques diferentes relacionados con aspectos importantes de la implementación del programa bilingüe:

- Bloque 1: Uso, competencia y desarrollo del inglés en clase por parte del alumnado
- Metodología
- Materiales y Recursos
- Evaluación
- Uso, competencia y desarrollo del inglés en clase por parte del profesor / Formación del profesorado / Formación e información
- Movilidad
- Mejoras y motivación hacia el aprendizaje del inglés / Coordinación y organización

Con los profesores y los estudiantes también se utilizaron protocolos de entrevista, con las que se pretende obtener información más detallada sobre aspectos curriculares y organizativos de los programas AICLE para nuestro análisis DAFO. Estos protocolos, que también pertenecen al proyecto Mon-CLIL, incluyen los mismos temas de los cuestionarios, facilitando así la comparabilidad de los datos, y se dividen en diez bloques temáticos:

- Bloque 1: Uso de la lengua extranjera en clase
- Bloque 2: Desarrollo de la lengua extranjera en clase: funciones discursivas
- Bloque 3: Desarrollo de las competencias en clase
- Bloque 4: Metodología y tipos de agrupamiento
- Bloque 5: Materiales y recursos
- Bloque 6: Coordinación y organización
- Bloque 7: Evaluación

- Bloque 8: Formación del profesorado y movilidad
- Bloque 9: Motivación y carga de trabajo
- Bloque 10: Evaluación general

3) Fase Cuantitativa

Para la fase cuantitativa del proyecto, todos los alumnos (bilingües y no bilingües) realizaron una serie de exámenes de inglés (cf. Madrid, Bueno y Ráez, 2018) que nos permitieran establecer su competencia en lengua extranjera antes de finalizar 6º de EP, 4º de ESO y, de nuevo, seis meses después cuando están cursando 1º de Bachillerato. Todas las pruebas incorporaban preguntas de gramática, vocabulario, comprensión oral y escrita, y producción oral y escrita. Es necesario mencionar que, aunque los tests utilizados incluían la evaluación de la producción escrita de los estudiantes, no ha sido posible evaluar sus composiciones para el presente estudio. Este es uno de los aspectos que debe ser evaluado en futuras investigaciones.

Los datos obtenidos en todos los tests y cuestionarios fueron analizados con la ayuda del programa SPSS en su versión 23.0. Para el área focal 1, se han realizado operaciones estadísticas como la media, mediana y moda, así como el rango y la desviación típica. Para determinar la existencia de diferencias estadísticamente significativas dentro de cada colectivo y entre ellos en relación con las diferentes variables de identificación consideradas, se ha llevado a cabo la evaluación de la normalidad y de la homocedasticidad por medio de los tests de Kolmogorov-Smirnov y Barlett. Asimismo, también se han utilizado el ANOVA, el test de Mann-Whitney y Tukey HSD o el test Bonferroni post hoc. Por último, se han desarrollado sucesivos análisis discriminantes para establecer qué variable o variables son verdaderamente responsables de las diferencias detectadas.

Para el análisis de las opiniones de los participantes, se han utilizado técnicas de análisis cualitativo y cuantitativo. En este caso, para analizar los protocolos de entrevista se utilizó la Teoría Fundamentada en Datos de Glaser y Strauss (1967) que permite categorizar, codificar y justificar las conclusiones alcanzadas. En cuanto a la parte cuantitativa, los resultados fueron presentados mediante datos, porcentajes y visualizaciones gráficas.

Los capítulos 5 y 6 ofrecen una detallada presentación y discusión de los resultados obtenidos, a la vez que se reconocen las principales limitaciones del estudio y se proponen las posibles líneas de investigación futuras. A continuación, vamos a presentar las principales conclusiones de nuestro estudio, teniendo en cuenta las preguntas de investigación enumeradas anteriormente y haciendo referencia a estudios previos de relevancia.

Conclusiones del estudio:

Área focal 1: PERCEPCIONES DE LOS PARTICIPANTES

Nuestro objetivo de desarrollar un análisis DAFO sobre la implementación del programa bilingüe en la provincia de Jaén evaluando las perspectivas de todos los colectivos implicados ha conllevado la aplicación de una serie de cuestionarios, así como de entrevistas personales y grupales. De este modo, se han recogido las opiniones de todos los participantes en relación a las competencias, la metodología, los materiales y recursos, evaluación, formación del profesorado, coordinación y organización, y carga de trabajo.

PI1: *¿Cuáles son las percepciones de los profesores, padres y estudiantes sobre el funcionamiento del programa bilingüe en todos los niveles curriculares y organizativos en su centro escolar?*

Coincidiendo con muchos otros estudios cualitativos sobre las percepciones de los tres colectivos desarrollados en España, nuestros resultados corroboran que aquellos estudiantes, profesores y padres implicados en un programa bilingüe tienen una opinión positiva sobre AICLE, especialmente relacionados con niveles más altos de autoconfianza e interés en la asignatura (Cabezas Cabello, 2010; Lasagabaster, 2009; Navarro Pablo and García Jiménez, 2018; Pascual Bajo, 2018; Oxbrow, 2018; Rubio Mostacero, 2009). Del mismo modo, los participantes también coinciden en que ha habido una importante mejora en las destrezas en la lengua extranjera como resultado de estudiar en un programa bilingüe (Pérez Cañado, 2018a; Ráez Padilla, 2018; Gálvez Gómez, 2013; Lancaster, 2012; Lorenzo et al., 2009; Madrid and Hughes, 2011; Oxbrow, 2018).

La mayoría de resultados obtenidos a través de los cuestionarios fueron después confirmados en las entrevistas llevadas a cabo con los profesores y los alumnos. Por lo tanto, los alumnos están generalmente satisfechos con su experiencia bilingüe, aunque los profesores se muestran algo más cautos en este sentido. De acuerdo con Pascual Bajo (2018) y Pladevall-Ballester (2015), podemos afirmar que las perspectivas de los profesores son las más realistas ya que, a pesar de afirmar que se sienten satisfechos con el programa, a menudo se sienten frustrados cuando deben manejar una excesiva carga de trabajo y una falta de apoyo adecuado, especialmente por parte de las autoridades educativas.

Los resultados pertenecientes al primer bloque, relacionado con el uso, competencia y desarrollo del inglés en clase, son principalmente positivos para los tres colectivos. La mayoría de estudiantes están de acuerdo en que el nivel de inglés usado en clase por sus profesores es adecuado para participar en el programa bilingüe y todos ellos afirman que su propio nivel en la lengua extranjera se ha incrementado debido a su participación en un programa AICLE. De igual forma, los profesores afirman que el uso y control de la lengua extranjera que tienen los alumnos ha mejorado considerablemente desde que se unieron al programa bilingüe. Además, los profesores mayoritariamente sienten que su propio nivel de inglés es adecuado para participar en las secciones bilingües. En cuanto al desarrollo de las competencias clave en clase, todos los colectivos coinciden en el hecho de que tanto las destrezas orales como las escritas se practican normalmente de manera equilibrada, siendo la comprensión y producción escritas en las que se obtienen mejores resultados.

Sin embargo, algunas discrepancias aparecen cuando se pregunta sobre el aprendizaje de contenido. Aunque la gran mayoría de estudiantes y padres afirman estar satisfechos en este sentido, los profesores parecen ser más cautelosos sobre este tema, especialmente en las entrevistas orales, afirmando que el aprendizaje de contenidos mejora progresivamente a la vez que el alumno accede a etapas educativas superiores, pero también consideran que estos contenidos a veces tienen que ser reducidos cuando se transmiten por medio de la lengua extranjera. Estos resultados van en línea con los obtenidos por Pérez Cañado (2018b), Rodríguez Sabiote et al. (2018) and Pascual Bajo (2018), quienes revelaron que, según los profesores, aprender a través de una lengua extranjera ralentiza el progreso, especialmente al principio. Cierta negatividad aparece

también por parte de los padres, algunos de los cuales (60%) consideran que sus hijos tienen más dificultades en aprender los contenidos a través de una lengua extranjera.

En relación con el aprendizaje de la lengua materna, los colectivos creen que AICLE no ha influenciado su desarrollo en castellano, ni de forma positiva ni negativa. Por el contrario, la mayoría de participantes afirma tener una mayor conciencia de cómo funcionan las lenguas y la interrelación entre ellas, algo que ya se había corroborado en estudios previos (Coyle, 2006; Heras y Lasagabaster, 2015; Lancaster, 2016; Lasagabaster, 2011; Lorenzo, Casal y Moore, 2009; Merisuo-Storm, 2007; Seikkula-Leino, 2007; Pascual Bajo, 2018).

Finalmente, en relación con el grado de participación y autoconfianza de los alumnos en clase, se han recogido diferentes opiniones, siendo los padres los más optimistas en este sentido. Los profesores, por su parte, también parecen estar satisfechos con la participación del alumnado, ya que esta aumenta progresivamente cuando se acostumbra al programa bilingüe. Los alumnos gradualmente olvidan su timidez inicial y empiezan a hablar naturalmente en la lengua extranjera. Sin embargo, los colectivos afirman que no les gustaría que hubiese un incremento en la cantidad de inglés usado en clase, coincidiendo así con Lancaster (2015, 2016) y Milla Lara y Casas Pedrosa (2018).

El segundo bloque, que trata sobre la metodología, también alberga opiniones principalmente optimistas, ya que la mayoría de estudiantes y profesores están de acuerdo en que la lengua extranjera se utiliza para funciones interaccionales y transmisivas dentro de la clase bilingüe, aunque también reconocen que las dudas se resuelven normalmente en castellano (San Isidro y Lasagabaster, 2018). Las tareas normalmente se desarrollan en clase dando prioridad a aquellas actividades que implican pensar y entender, cuyo objetivo es el de desarrollar el pensamiento crítico de los estudiantes y no simplemente memorizar. Diferentes opiniones aparecen cuando se habla de los agrupamientos utilizados en clase. De hecho, los alumnos afirman que ellos suelen trabajar de manera autónoma, aunque los profesores intentan implementar el aprendizaje cooperativo. Los proyectos no suelen desarrollarse con mucha asiduidad, aunque se siguen las indicaciones del Marco Común de Referencia y del Portfolio Europeo de las Lenguas. Para terminar este bloque, es necesario destacar la gran preocupación por parte de los padres cuando se les pregunta sobre sus propias habilidades para ayudar a sus hijos con los deberes. En este sentido, el 80% de las familias afirma sentirse completamente incapaz de afrontar esta situación y piden más apoyo.

Continuando con el bloque 3, que incorpora preguntas sobre materiales y recursos, vuelven a aparecer resultados alentadores por parte de todos los colectivos. Los profesores y estudiantes afirman utilizar materiales auténticos y adaptados dentro de la clase bilingüe, coincidiendo así con Pascual Bajo (2018). Además, ambos colectivos consideran que los materiales ya existentes son innovadores e interesantes, siendo los profesores los que transmiten una opinión ligeramente más optimista en este sentido, algo que difiere completamente de sus perspectivas cuando son preguntados sobre la existencia de materiales que se adapten a los diferentes ritmos de aprendizaje. Los profesores encuestados se quejan abiertamente de la carencia de materiales adecuados que se adapten a la diversidad existente en clase. Por el contrario, se obtienen unas opiniones extremadamente positivas cuando hablan de los niveles de colaboración entre los profesores, quienes trabajan conjuntamente para crear nuevos materiales e intentan aliviar los efectos de esta carencia de recursos. Sin embargo, durante las entrevistas, los profesores pedían que la Administración les permitiera dedicar unas horas de su trabajo para la coordinación del programa bilingüe y para el diseño y creación de nuevos materiales, algo que ya aparecía en investigaciones previas (Durán Martínez y Beltrán Llavador, 2016, 2017; Fernández y Halbach, 2011; Infante, Benvenuto y Lastrucci, 2009; Massler, 2012; Pérez Cañado, 2014, 2016a; Durán Martínez, Beltrán Llavador y Martínez Abad, 2016; Pascual Bajo, 2018).

En relación al uso de las tecnologías de la información y la comunicación (TICs), los alumnos y los profesores se muestran totalmente optimistas, habiendo incorporado muchas de ellas a las clases, aunque los blogs, las wikis y las webquests no son herramientas que se utilicen de manera generalizada en las aulas. Además, los profesores reconocen que no hay pizarras digitales en todas las clases y que, a veces, las existentes no funcionan correctamente. Por ende, se quejan de que el número real de instalaciones digitales existentes no se corresponde con el uso generalizado de las TICs que debería haber en las clases bilingües.

Para finalizar este bloque, los padres continúan mostrando su preocupación acerca de la falta de instrucciones o guías en castellano dentro de los materiales existentes que les permitan ayudar a sus hijos en casa. Por esta razón, solicitan que los materiales se adapten a sus propias necesidades. Si los materiales incluyeran alguna ayuda adicional en castellano, los padres se sentirían más capacitados para ayudar a sus hijos, algo que también beneficiaría a los propios alumnos. Esta negatividad también había aparecido en

investigaciones previas, tales como las desarrolladas por Cabezas Cabello (2010), Pérez Cañado (2011), Gálvez Gómez (2013), Lancaster (2015), Milla Lara y Casas Pedrosa (2018), Ráez Padilla (2018) y Pascual Bajo (2018).

En el bloque cuatro, donde los colectivos tenían que responder cuestiones relacionadas con la evaluación, de nuevo se vuelven a obtener perspectivas principalmente optimistas, aunque aparece cierto grado de desacuerdo en cuanto a la evaluación oral. En este sentido, la mayoría de los padres y alumnos afirman que los exámenes orales se desarrollan con normalidad dentro de la clase bilingüe, aunque los profesores se muestran algo más cautos. Por lo tanto, llegamos a la conclusión de que quizá los estudiantes no sean totalmente conscientes de qué actividades orales se tendrán en cuenta para su nota final y cuáles no. Sí existe consenso cuando se les pregunta sobre la evaluación del contenido, el cual recibe prioridad sobre la lengua. Los tres colectivos están de acuerdo en que se lleva a cabo una evaluación formativa y sumativa, aunque la autoevaluación no se utiliza con mucha asiduidad.

El siguiente bloque contiene preguntas relacionadas principalmente con el papel que los profesores tienen dentro de la sección bilingüe. Aunque el nombre que recibe el bloque varía ligeramente en los cuestionarios dependiendo del colectivo al que van dirigidos (*Formación del profesorado* en el cuestionario de los profesores; *Uso, competencia y desarrollo del inglés de los profesores* en el cuestionario de los alumnos; y *Formación e información* en el cuestionario de los padres), las preguntas son equivalentes, haciendo posible la comparabilidad entre ellas.

En general, los profesores se sienten seguros de sus propias habilidades en la lengua extranjera y en su conocimiento de aspectos socioculturales, una opinión que es compartida por la amplia mayoría de padres y alumnos, quienes también se muestran satisfechos con las destrezas de sus profesores. Del mismo modo, la mayoría de alumnos se sienten motivados por sus profesores de lengua extranjera y por los profesores de las áreas no lingüísticas, algo que no ocurre siempre con los auxiliares de conversación. Aunque los auxiliares de conversación se consideran figuras esenciales para una implementación más satisfactoria del programa bilingüe, ofreciendo apoyo a los profesores y a los estudiantes (Sánchez Torres, 2014; Pascual Bajo, 2018), algunos de ellos necesitarían más formación para participar en AICLE, especialmente relacionada con el contenido que deben enseñar.

Todos los profesores afirman haber participado en diferentes iniciativas de formación para fortalecer su preparación pedagógica, pero consideran obligatorio seguir aprendiendo e incrementar su conocimiento lingüístico actual. Sin embargo, muchos profesores se quejan de que no es fácil participar en estos cursos debido principalmente a la falta de tiempo y/o a la falta de apoyo recibido por parte de las autoridades educativas. Además, ni los padres ni los profesores se sienten satisfechos con el conocimiento o la información que reciben sobre el Plan Regional del Plurilingüismo, un problema que ya fue documentado por Pascual Bajo en 2018. Para concluir este bloque, es necesario mencionar que la formación del profesorado sigue siendo uno de los aspectos más importantes a tener en consideración dentro de las secciones bilingües, y como tal, normalmente aparece en los estudios realizados hasta el momento sobre AICLE (Rubio Mostacero, 2009; Cabezas Cabello, 2010; Lancaster, 2012; Gálvez Gómez, 2013; Pérez Cañado, 2012, 2015b, 2016b; Pérez Cañado y Ráez Padilla, 2015; Milla Lara y Casas Pedrosa, 2018; Pascual Bajo, 2018).

Las opiniones más negativas aparecen en el sexto bloque, que trata sobre la movilidad de los participantes. Coincidiendo con muchas investigaciones previas (Lancaster, 2012; Gálvez Gómez, 2013; Pascual Bajo, 2018), la gran mayoría de los estudiantes no ha participado en ningún programa de movilidad y el 40% de ellos dice no sentirse animado por sus familias para hacerlo, algo que difiere enormemente de las respuestas ofrecidas por los padres. En este sentido, los resultados coinciden con lo que Ráez Padilla ya mencionó en su estudio de 2018, según el cual se necesita más investigación en este aspecto ya que hay una gran oposición entre la concepción que los padres tienen de los programas de movilidad y el número real de casos en los que sus hijos se han beneficiado de tales iniciativas.

En el caso de los profesores, se puede vislumbrar una tendencia ligeramente más positiva, ya que algunos de ellos afirman haber participado en programas de intercambio o en cursos lingüísticos en el extranjero. Sin embargo, no es muy común que los profesores participen en licencias de estudios o en cursos metodológicos en otro país, una situación que ya fue documentada en las investigaciones de Cabezas Cabello (2010), Gálvez Gómez (2013), Lancaster (2012) y Pérez Cañado (2012). Dada esta situación preocupante, debería hacerse más hincapié en los beneficios que ofrecen las oportunidades de movilidad, ya que los programas bilingües serán verdaderamente exitosos si contamos con profesores motivados y debidamente formados.

El último bloque del cuestionario versa sobre mejoras y motivación hacia el aprendizaje del inglés en los cuestionarios de los padres y los estudiantes, y coordinación y organización en el cuestionario de los profesores. De nuevo avala el éxito de los programas bilingües. La mayoría de los participantes en los tres colectivos coinciden en que participar en una sección bilingüe merece la pena a pesar de la mayor carga de trabajo que implica. Además, los estudiantes están de acuerdo en que su propio nivel de inglés se ha incrementado debido a su participación en un programa AICLE, algo que sus familias también corroboran. La motivación hacia el aprendizaje de una lengua extranjera también se ha visto aumentada entre los estudiantes, pero no entre los padres, quienes han ofrecido diferentes opiniones en este aspecto (Cabezas Cabello, 2010; Navarro Pablo and García Jiménez, 2018; Pérez Cañado, 2018b; Pascual Bajo, 2018). Es posible que estos resultados estén relacionados con las dificultades que los padres encuentran cuando tienen que ayudar a sus hijos con las tareas en casa y puede asimismo explicar por qué más del 60% de las familias no contactan con regularidad con los profesores bilingües para comprobar el progreso de su hijo/a. Esta situación debería tratarse con más detenimiento ya que la comunicación entre las familias y los profesores es un aspecto esencial para el buen desarrollo de los programas bilingües.

Las preguntas dirigidas directamente a los profesores son las que obtienen unos resultados más negativos dentro de este bloque. La mayoría de los profesores encuestados consideran que no existe un apoyo adecuado por parte de las autoridades educativas y solicitan un mayor respaldo por su parte (Durán Martínez and Beltrán Llavador, 2016; San Isidro and Lasagabaster, 2018; Pascual Bajo, 2018). Además, los profesores piden más asistencia en la creación de materiales debido a la escasez de recursos publicados adecuados y reiteran la necesidad de iniciativas de formación adecuadas que estén directamente relacionadas con el bilingüismo. Para terminar, los profesores se muestran más optimistas en cuanto a los niveles de colaboración entre compañeros y la comunicación que ellos mantienen dentro y fuera del centro educativo. Asimismo, la mayoría de profesores afirman estar satisfechos con el trabajo desempeñado por el coordinador bilingüe, aunque reconocen que la organización en general podría mejorarse.

Como conclusión, después de analizar las perspectivas generales que los diferentes agentes involucrados en el programa bilingüe tienen sobre su implementación y funcionamiento, es posible realizar el análisis DAFO del mismo:

1. Entre las **fortalezas**, es necesario destacar el uso de prácticas innovadoras y centradas en el alumno, tales como aprendizaje basado en tareas y proyectos, lo cual lleva a una clara mejora de las destrezas de los alumnos en la lengua extranjera y al desarrollo de las competencias clave. Además, la motivación crece progresivamente entre los estudiantes, quienes también desarrollan sus habilidades afectivas, sociales y culturales. Coincidiendo con Barrios (2019), Coyle (2007; 2013), Pladevall-Ballester (2015) y Cabezas Cabello (2010), nuestros resultados muestran que las actividades que implican pensar y comprender en vez de memorizar reciben una mayor prioridad, lo que, al mismo tiempo, ayuda a los alumnos a desarrollar su pensamiento crítico. Otra fortaleza del plan bilingüe tiene que ver con los altos niveles de colaboración existentes entre los profesores, cuya voluntad de sacar el máximo provecho de la experiencia AICLE para todos los agentes implicados hace que el programa sea incluso más atractivo. En este mismo sentido, gracias a este trabajo colaborativo y al liderazgo ejercido por el coordinador bilingüe, los estudiantes pueden beneficiarse de una mayor variedad de materiales de enseñanza, los cuales se adaptan y supervisan para hacerlos más prácticos e interesantes. Es por ello que la cooperación para el diseño y el uso de materiales ha aumentado considerablemente. Por último, coincidiendo con Barrios (2019), la evaluación es otra fortaleza del programa bilingüe ya que los alumnos son evaluados por medio de diferentes herramientas y utilizando una amplia gama de procedimientos, entre los que se incluyen la autoevaluación y las pruebas orales y escritas.
2. Una de las principales **debilidades** del programa está relacionada con la falta de formación del profesorado en cuanto a cómo implementar el bilingüismo de manera exitosa: es decir, los profesores revelan que, en ocasiones, no están totalmente seguros sobre cómo poner el programa en práctica ya que carecen de información o no han recibido suficiente formación sobre el Plan de Plurilingüismo. Esta falta de competencia hace que el programa no sea del todo uniforme. Cada profesor lo adapta a su propia interpretación y a las características intrínsecas de cada asignatura. Es verdad que AICLE se concibe como una metodología flexible que se puede modificar según las características y las necesidades del alumnado y según la asignatura en cuestión. Sin embargo, tal y como Barrios señala: “no todas las puestas en práctica de AICLE cuentan como efectivas” (2019, p. 190). Por lo tanto, debe haber un consenso en la manera de

integrar la lengua y el contenido (Nikula et al., 2016), teniendo en cuenta que “los profesores bien formados” (Cenoz, 2013, p. 389) son un aspecto clave para el buen aprendizaje de lengua y contenido. De esta debilidad surge la necesidad de ofrecer programas de formación del profesorado especialmente diseñados ((Durán Martínez and Beltrán Llavador, 2016; Gálvez Gómez, 2013; Marsh et al., 2012; Massler, 2012; McDougald, 2015; Mehisto and Asser, 2007; Pena Díaz and Porto Requejo, 2008; Pérez Cañado, 2016a; 2016c), aunque por el momento, las demandas de esta metodología de enseñanza han recibido poca atención. En la misma línea, los profesores también se quejan de que no hay consenso sobre el uso del inglés en la clase, existiendo unos porcentajes muy diferentes en cada uno de los centros participantes. Aunque en principio podríamos pensar que están adaptando su enseñanza a las necesidades de los alumnos, debería haber unas guías más claras sobre la cantidad de lengua extranjera que se debe usar en las áreas no lingüísticas y los profesores deberían ser más conscientes de ello, ya que estas deficiencias metodológicas perjudican una exitosa práctica educativa.

Siguiendo ahora con los materiales usados en clase, tanto los padres como los profesores se quejan de que no incorporan ningunas guías en castellano que permitan a las familias ayudar a sus hijos en casa. Si queremos implicar más a las familias en el aprendizaje de sus hijos, debemos ofrecerles herramientas para que se sientan más involucrados en este proceso. La comunicación de las familias con los centros, carente según muchos padres en nuestro estudio, es uno de los ejes más importantes para lograr unos resultados óptimos del programa bilingüe. La última debilidad que encontramos en nuestro estudio está relacionada con la figura del auxiliar de conversación, quien, en muchas ocasiones, carece de la formación necesaria para trabajar en un centro bilingüe, obviamente, no por el conocimiento y manejo de la lengua extranjera, sino por el contenido que debe enseñar. En este sentido, los profesores solicitan que haya más control en la selección de los auxiliares, de una parte, para garantizar una enseñanza de las áreas no lingüísticas de calidad y, de otra, para disminuir el estrés que sufren estos auxiliares cuando deben enfrentarse a una asignatura totalmente diferente a la que ellos han estudiado realmente. Este problema ya ha aparecido en múltiples investigaciones previas (Hibler, 2010; Scobling, 2011; Tobin and Abello-Contesse, 2013; Gerena and Ramírez Verdugo, 2014; Buckingham, 2018), en las cuales también se solicita

un mayor control en la selección de los auxiliares más adecuados según las necesidades específicas de cada centro.

3. Las **oportunidades** encontradas están relacionadas con la posibilidad que tienen todos los colectivos de mejorar su nivel en la lengua extranjera. Los estudiantes se benefician de una manera más natural de aprender un idioma y los profesores pueden participar en cursos de formación para mejorar sus habilidades. Además, la propia motivación de los padres se ve incrementada gracias al AICLE. Las iniciativas de movilidad son otra oportunidad excelente para los profesores y alumnos, quienes pueden participar en programas de intercambio o en cursos en el extranjero. Para que los centros formen parte de esta red de iniciativas de movilidad, están disponibles directas páginas webs y portales online, los cuales ayudan al profesorado y al alumnado a utilizar el idioma fuera de la clase para un objetivo concreto. La lengua extranjera no solo se utiliza para la transmisión de contenido, lo que puede considerarse una clara oportunidad para mejorar sus competencias (no solo la competencia lingüística, sino también la social y la cultural). Esta comunicación real puede desarrollarse también en el propio centro educativo, cuando los estudiantes interactúan con hablantes nativos, a través de la figura de los auxiliares de conversación, quienes hacen que las clases sean más interesantes y motivadoras para los alumnos.
4. Las **amenazas** detectadas están directamente relacionadas con las debilidades mencionadas anteriormente y son reconocidas principalmente por los profesores, quienes se quejan abiertamente de la falta de apoyo por parte de las autoridades educativas y la mayor carga de trabajo que los programas de trabajo conllevan. Esta carencia de apoyo, junto con la insuficiente información sobre los principios del programa, puede hacer que los profesores implementen prácticas recomendadas a un nivel superficial, lo que es un riesgo para el futuro desarrollo del programa bilingüe. En nuestro estudio, aparecen resultados discrepantes cuando hablamos de la utilización del Portfolio Europeo de las Lenguas y también parece haber diferencias entre la política y la práctica real (Cabezas Cabello, 2010; Barrios, 2019). Por este motivo, estos problemas deben recibir más atención para evitar poner el éxito de los programas bilingües en riesgo. Asimismo, los profesores se quejan del poco tiempo del que disponen para crear materiales apropiados que les ayuden a transmitir el contenido de manera más fácil y, al mismo tiempo, que puedan utilizarse para atender a las distintas necesidades y

ritmos de trabajo presentes en la clase. Esta situación puede considerarse una amenaza para el programa porque la motivación de los profesores puede decaer, haciendo que su trabajo sea simplemente una rutina sin un objetivo claro. Otra problemática que puede convertirse en amenaza para el bilingüismo en los centros educativos es la falta de información que los padres reciben sobre el programa y su ansiedad cuando son incapaces de asistir a sus hijos en casa. Si los padres sienten que no pueden apoyar a sus hijos con sus tareas y aquellos con un nivel socioeconómico más bajo no pueden pagar una ayuda extra en casa (clases particulares, academias privadas...), pueden desanimar a sus hijos a la hora de inscribirse en el programa bilingüe.

PI2: *¿Existen diferencias estadísticamente significativas entre las percepciones de los tres colectivos?*

A la hora de intentar detectar la existencia de diferencias estadísticamente significativas entre las opiniones de los estudiantes, los profesores y las familias, los ítems paralelos en cada uno de los cuestionarios se han hecho concordar para garantizar una comparación exhaustiva de sus perspectivas. De esta forma, aunque se han recogido diferentes opiniones por parte de cada colectivo, sus diferencias de percepción raramente llegan a ser significativas. Solo cinco ítems presentan diferencias estadísticamente significativas, confirmando la tendencia de que la visión que los profesores tienen de AICLE es la más positiva, siendo los estudiantes los más críticos con el programa.

En términos generales, los profesores son los más optimistas sobre el aprendizaje de los alumnos de su lengua materna y de sus propias destrezas escritas en la lengua extranjera. Además, mantienen la opinión más positiva en cuanto a los materiales utilizados. Por el contrario, los padres son el colectivo más optimista cuando se habla de la seguridad y confianza que tienen los alumnos dentro de la clase y sobre las destrezas escritas en la lengua extranjera, coincidiendo así con Pladevall-Ballester (2015) y Pascual Bajo (2018).

PI3: *Dentro del colectivo de los profesores, ¿existen diferencias estadísticamente significativas de percepción en función de las variables de identificación (edad, género, experiencia laboral, situación administrativa, tipo de colegio, contexto y nivel de inglés)?*

Con la ayuda de ANOVA y de la prueba de T, hemos podido detectar las diferencias estadísticamente significativas dentro del colectivo de los profesores según las variables de identificación consideradas. De todas ellas, las variables en las que se han detectado las diferencias significativas son: tipo de profesor, situación administrativa, nivel de inglés y número de asignaturas enseñadas a través de una lengua extranjera.

Para comenzar, considerando la variable de tipo de profesor, se han detectado diferencias estadísticamente significativas en todos los bloques del cuestionario, evidenciando que los profesores de lengua extranjera son más optimistas y se muestran más entusiastas con respecto al programa bilingüe que los profesores de áreas no lingüísticas. Por lo tanto, cuando se les pregunta sobre el uso, competencia y desarrollo del inglés en clase por parte de los estudiantes, los profesores de lengua extranjera parecen ser más positivos sobre el aprendizaje del inglés de sus alumnos y el desarrollo de las competencias clave en clase. En la misma línea, los profesores de lengua extranjera son más positivos sobre la comprensión que tienen sus alumnos de la conexión entre las lenguas y consideran que el nivel de participación del alumnado en clase es mayor gracias a su pertenencia al programa bilingüe, algo que también ocurre con las destrezas orales de los alumnos y sus conocimientos socioculturales. Esta clara tendencia muestra que, como se confirmó en las entrevistas orales, los profesores de áreas no lingüísticas tienen más dudas sobre los beneficios de AICLE en lo que respecta al aprendizaje de contenido; es decir, estos profesores afirman que los contenidos tienen, en muchas ocasiones, que ser adaptados y reducidos para ser enseñados a través de una lengua extranjera y temen que el aprendizaje de las lenguas esté de alguna forma perjudicando al aprendizaje de contenidos.

Siguiendo con el bloque sobre metodología, los profesores de lengua extranjera continúan siendo más optimistas sobre el programa bilingüe y afirman utilizar proyectos en mayor medida que los profesores de áreas no lingüísticas. Asimismo, las recomendaciones del Marco Común Europeo de Referencia y el Porfolio de las Lenguas son utilizados principalmente en las clases de lengua extranjera. Los profesores de áreas no lingüísticas son más pesimistas también en el bloque de materiales y recursos. En este

sentido, los profesores de lengua extranjera consideran que los materiales bilingües son muy interesantes e innovadores, además de que siguen principios comunicativos y suelen adaptarse a todos los ritmos de aprendizaje, una opinión que no es compartida por los profesores de áreas no lingüísticas. El bloque de evaluación presenta resultados más heterogéneos, aunque los profesores de lengua extranjera sostienen una vez más una visión más positiva sobre el AICLE. Sin embargo, hay diferencias significativas a favor de los profesores de áreas no lingüísticas en la evaluación de contenido sobre la lengua, un resultado obvio si tenemos en cuenta el hecho de que estos profesores están más interesados en el aprendizaje del contenido a pesar de los posibles errores que los estudiantes pudieran cometer cuando utilizan la lengua extranjera. El bloque sobre la formación del profesorado no presenta muchas diferencias significativas, pero los profesores de lengua extranjera mantienen una mejor opinión sobre sus propias destrezas orales y escritas, su conocimiento de aspectos socioculturales y su conciencia intercultural. En cuanto a la movilidad, los profesores de lengua extranjera afirman haber participado en más cursos metodológicos en el extranjero que los profesores de áreas no lingüísticas y son también más optimistas sobre los beneficios de pertenecer a una sección bilingüe. Por último, los profesores de áreas no lingüísticas se muestran más pesimistas con respecto al apoyo recibido de las autoridades educativas, las cuales deberían servirles como guías a lo largo de todo el curso académico, ofreciéndoles ayuda real en el caso de necesitarla.

Teniendo en cuenta la situación administrativa de los profesores, la mayoría de las diferencias estadísticamente significativas detectadas están a favor de la categoría “otros”; es decir, el grupo de profesores que sostiene una opinión más positiva del programa bilingüe son aquellos que no son funcionarios con destino definitivo ni provisional, ni son profesores interinos. En el primer bloque del cuestionario, estos profesores consideran que el nivel de inglés de los alumnos, así como su entendimiento de cómo funcionan las lenguas, han mejorado considerablemente gracias a su participación en un programa bilingüe. Este grupo de profesores, entre los que podríamos incluir a los auxiliares de conversación, están más satisfechos con la participación y el interés que los alumnos muestran en clase y también son más positivos sobre las destrezas orales de los estudiantes. El segundo bloque arroja unos resultados similares, confirmando el mayor optimismo de estos profesores incluidos en la última categoría, quienes afirman utilizar proyectos y el aprendizaje cooperativo a un mayor nivel que sus

compañeros. Lo mismo ocurre cuando se les pregunta sobre la aplicación del Marco Común Europeo de Referencia y el Porfolio Europeo de las Lenguas. En el bloque sobre materiales y recursos, se observa esta misma tendencia, aunque los funcionarios con un puesto provisional son más entusiastas sobre el uso de las pizarras digitales en clase. En el último bloque del cuestionario se han detectado pocas diferencias, pero de nuevo corroboran un mayor optimismo por parte de los profesores incluidos en la categoría “otros”, quienes consideran que tienen un mayor conocimiento de aspectos socioculturales en la lengua extranjera y afirman haber participado en más iniciativas de movilidad.

Considerando el nivel de inglés que los profesores poseen, se han detectado más diferencias estadísticamente significativas a lo largo de todos los bloques del cuestionario. Para empezar, los profesores con un nivel B1 en la lengua extranjera son más positivos cuando se les pregunta sobre la mejora del nivel de inglés de sus alumnos y sobre el desarrollo de proyectos en clase. Además, estos profesores dicen estar más satisfechos con los materiales y recursos empleados ya que suelen seguir principios comunicativos. En el mismo sentido, los profesores que están en posesión del B1 son los que mejor valoran sus propias destrezas receptivas y productivas en la lengua extranjera, así como su conocimiento de aspectos socioculturales. Por el contrario, los profesores con el nivel más alto en la lengua extranjera (C2) se sienten más satisfechos con el desarrollo de las competencias clave en clase. Además, son los más optimistas en cuanto al interés y motivación de los estudiantes en la clase bilingüe, y ofrecen las valoraciones más altas sobre materiales que atienden a la diversidad. De igual forma, los profesores que tienen un nivel C2 no se muestran tan negativos con la falta de apoyo por parte de las autoridades educativas. Esto puede ser fácilmente entendible si consideramos que los profesores más preparados en la lengua extranjera son quizás los que menos apoyo adicional necesitan para llevar a cabo un programa AICLE de forma exitosa. Por este motivo, sienten que el apoyo que ya reciben es más que suficiente para poder desarrollar prácticas bilingües adecuadas.

Para concluir el comentario sobre las diferencias estadísticamente significativas que surgen después de la comparación intra-grupal del colectivo, debemos igualmente considerar la variable relacionada con el número de asignaturas enseñadas a través de la lengua extranjera. La tendencia encontrada aquí es la siguiente: cuantas más asignaturas se enseñan por medio de la lengua extranjera, mejores opiniones tienen los alumnos y los

profesores sobre CLIL, especialmente en relación con los materiales y recursos. Se puede ver que, a la vez que el número de asignaturas bilingües se incrementa, los resultados son mejores. Dicho de otra forma, los programas bilingües generan una mayor satisfacción entre los colectivos cuando estos se acostumbran a la metodología AICLE y cuando el currículum de los centros se basa en un esquema bilingüe.

PI4: *Dentro del colectivo de los alumnos, ¿existen diferencias estadísticamente significativas de percepción en función de las variables de identificación (edad, género, curso, tipo de colegio, contexto, nivel de inglés y tiempo de exposición al inglés dentro y fuera del aula)?*

Para responder nuestra pregunta de investigación número 4, las percepciones de los estudiantes han sido comparadas según las diferentes variables de identificación consideradas. Como resultado, se han detectado diferencias significativas en relación al género, curso, tipo de centro, contexto, número de años perteneciendo al programa bilingüe y número de asignaturas enseñadas a través de la lengua extranjera.

Teniendo en cuenta el género del alumnado, han aparecido diferencias estadísticamente significativas a favor de las alumnas. En este sentido, las estudiantes muestran una mayor satisfacción sobre el conocimiento de cómo funcionan y se relacionan las lenguas y sobre su conocimiento de aspectos socioculturales. Además, muestran un mayor optimismo en lo que al desarrollo de las competencias clave respecta. En el tercer bloque del cuestionario, que trata de materiales y recursos utilizados, las chicas continúan siendo más optimistas sobre el uso de materiales auténticos que fomentan la comunicación en clase y con el uso que se hace de las TICs. Del mismo modo, las estudiantes parecen colaborar más activamente con los auxiliares de conversación y tienen una opinión más positiva del programa bilingüe en general, ya que mayoritariamente consideran que merece la pena participar en él a pesar de la mayor carga de trabajo que este puede implicar.

En relación con el curso de los alumnos, muchas diferencias estadísticamente significativas han aparecido a lo largo de todos los bloques del cuestionario, revelando que los estudiantes de Educación Primaria transmiten una opinión más optimista sobre el programa bilingüe que los estudiantes de Educación Secundaria, excepto en el bloque número seis, donde se les pregunta por la movilidad. Por lo tanto, los estudiantes de

Educación Primaria afirman ser más participativos en las clases bilingües, algo que es fácilmente comprensible teniendo en cuenta que los alumnos más pequeños tienen un filtro afectivo más bajo (Krashen, 1985). Igualmente, estos alumnos consideran que su nivel de inglés y de su lengua materna ha mejorado en mayor medida gracias a su participación en un programa bilingüe y se muestran más satisfechos con sus propias habilidades orales en la lengua extranjera. Esta situación, que ya fue reconocida por Cenoz, Genesee y Gorter (2013) y por Lasagabaster y Sierra (2009), demuestra cómo el optimismo entre los alumnos disminuye conforme van avanzando en el sistema educativo. Por lo tanto, las perspectivas de los alumnos tienden a ser más negativas cuando llegan a cursos superiores, donde su esfuerzo debe ser mayor. En cuanto a la metodología, de nuevo los alumnos de Primaria dicen realizar tareas y proyectos de manera más asidua que sus compañeros de Secundaria. Asimismo, para sentar las bases que garanticen un buen control de la lengua extranjera, el vocabulario recibe mayor importancia en las clases de Primaria. Estos alumnos de Primaria también se muestran más satisfechos con los materiales y recursos empleados en clase y con la evaluación llevada a cabo por parte de sus profesores.

La tercera variable que ha arrojado diferencias significativas dentro del colectivo del alumnado ha sido la del contexto, según la cual distinguimos entre centros situados en zonas rurales y urbanas. No hay una clara tendencia aquí, ya que aparecen resultados heterogéneos en todos los bloques del cuestionario. En primer lugar, los estudiantes de zonas urbanas son más optimistas sobre el desarrollo de las competencias clave en clase y sobre su propio conocimiento de aspectos socioculturales en la lengua extranjera. Sin embargo, los alumnos de zonas rurales consideran que su conocimiento del castellano ha mejorado de manera más notable que los alumnos de centros urbanos. En cuanto a los materiales y recursos, aparecen diferencias estadísticamente significativas a favor de los alumnos de zonas rurales, quienes consideran que los materiales bilingües son más interesantes e innovadores. Además, estos alumnos también afirman hacer un uso mayoritario de las herramientas digitales y las pizarras electrónicas, algo que contrasta con las opiniones obtenidas en relación a la comunicación online, para la cual las opiniones de los alumnos de zonas urbanas son más optimistas. En el bloque cuatro, donde los alumnos reflexionan sobre la evaluación, solo un ítem presenta diferencias estadísticamente significativas. En este caso, los alumnos de centros situados en zonas urbanas consideran que realizan más pruebas orales que sus compañeros de zonas rurales.

En relación al uso, competencia y desarrollo del inglés en clase por parte del profesorado, los alumnos de zonas rurales de nuevo parecen estar más satisfechos con sus profesores de áreas no lingüísticas y con el trabajo que desarrollan los auxiliares de conversación. Para terminar, el bloque sobre movilidad también presenta algunas diferencias estadísticamente significativas, esta vez a favor de los alumnos de zonas urbanas, quienes se muestran más motivados a participar en cualquier iniciativa de movilidad. Asimismo, los estudiantes de zonas urbanas se sienten más animados a formar parte de intercambios y otros programas de movilidad que les permitan mejorar sus destrezas lingüísticas y sociales. Teniendo en cuenta estos resultados, es importante mostrar los beneficios de estas iniciativas también entre los alumnos de zonas rurales, quienes pueden beneficiarse igualmente de ellas para llegar a ser adultos preparados y capaces de manejarse en un mundo cada vez más globalizado.

Considerando la variable de tipo de centro, se perciben más diferencias estadísticamente significativas a lo largo del cuestionario, demostrando que los alumnos pertenecientes a centros privados son más optimistas sobre AICLE que los alumnos de centros públicos. Es por ello que los alumnos de centros privados se sienten más satisfechos con su propio uso, competencia y desarrollo de inglés en clase, y también consideran que su nivel de inglés y de castellano, así como su conocimiento de aspectos socioculturales en la lengua extranjera, han mejorado de forma más notoria gracias a su pertenencia a una sección bilingüe. En el bloque número dos, que trata sobre la metodología, todos los ítems presentan diferencias estadísticamente significativas de nuevo a favor de los alumnos de centros privados, con la excepción del trabajo en grupo, que parece ser más practicado en los centros públicos. La misma tendencia se repite en los bloques siguientes, aunque los alumnos de centros públicos dicen estar más satisfechos con el uso que realizan de las herramientas digitales tales como blogs, wikis y webquests. Además, los alumnos de centros públicos muestran mejores opciones con respecto a los programas de movilidad.

La siguiente variable está relacionada con los años que los alumnos llevan estudiando en un programa bilingüe, la cual ha hecho que surjan muchas diferencias estadísticamente significativas, confirmando la idea de que cuantos más años se pertenece a una sección bilingüe, más optimistas son los alumnos sobre estos programas. Al contrario que ocurriría con las diferencias detectadas según el curso de los alumnos, aquí los alumnos más experimentados muestran mejores perspectivas con respecto al

desarrollo de competencias clave en clase y con su propio nivel en la lengua materna y la lengua extranjera. No es sorprendente, por lo tanto, que estos alumnos se sientan más seguros de sí mismos y más participativos en las clases bilingües. Lo mismo ocurre cuando se les pregunta sobre la metodología, ya que con los alumnos que tienen una experiencia más larga en los programas AICLE se tienden a desarrollar más tareas y proyectos. Del mismo modo, estos alumnos tienen una mejor opinión de los materiales y recursos utilizados, y también practican la evaluación continua y final en mayor medida. Sin embargo, aunque los estudiantes con una mayor trayectoria en los programas bilingües consideran que ha habido una mayor mejora de su nivel de inglés debido a su participación en los mismos y su propia motivación para aprender nuevas lenguas extranjeras también ha aumentado considerablemente, aquellos alumnos cuya experiencia en un programa bilingüe no es tan amplia se sienten más optimistas sobre los programas de movilidad y afirman recibir mayor apoyo por parte de sus padres y profesores para participar en tales iniciativas.

Unos resultados muy similares a los anteriormente comentados aparecen cuando tenemos en cuenta la variable del número de asignaturas enseñadas dentro del programa bilingüe. Por lo tanto, la tendencia vuelve a ser la misma: cuantas más asignaturas estudian los alumnos por medio de la lengua extranjera, más optimistas son sobre el programa bilingüe. La tendencia vuelve a cambiar cuando preguntamos sobre los programas de movilidad, tal y como ha pasado con la variable anterior.

PI5: *Dentro del colectivo de los padres, ¿existen diferencias estadísticamente significativas de percepción en función de las variables de identificación (edad, género, nivel de estudios, curso de sus hijos, contexto, nivel de inglés)?*

Pocas diferencias estadísticamente significativas han sido detectadas dentro del colectivo de los padres, pero algunas variables moderadoras merecen nuestra atención, más concretamente, edad, género, curso de sus hijos y nivel de estudios. En cuanto a la edad, la tendencia confirma que los padres más mayores son más críticos con el programa bilingüe, aunque, a su vez, son más conscientes de los pilares teóricos de AICLE. Por otro lado, los padres más jóvenes son más optimistas sobre la mejora que sus hijos han tenido en la lengua extranjera, y sobre los materiales usados. Los padres más jóvenes también se muestran más satisfechos con la evaluación oral que se lleva a cabo y

con la importancia que la enseñanza del vocabulario adquiere en la clase bilingüe. Parece que los padres más mayores son más cautelosos acerca del éxito de los programas bilingües, aunque no es posible extrapolar estas diferencias a la evaluación general del programa.

La variable de género muestra que las madres son más optimistas sobre el programa bilingüe que los padres, aunque solo en cuatro ítems de los cuestionarios se han detectado diferencias estadísticamente significativas. Por lo tanto, no es posible que utilicemos estos datos para realizar una caracterización general de AICLE en relación al género. Sin embargo, debemos tener en cuenta que, aunque los padres están cada vez más prestando atención a la educación de sus hijos, todavía es normal (especialmente en zonas rurales) que las madres sean las encargadas de estar informadas sobre el progreso educativo de sus hijos, lo que podría estar detrás de estas perspectivas más optimistas. Teniendo en cuenta el nivel de estudios de los progenitores, las diferencias detectadas están a favor de aquellos que poseen un título universitario o un doctorado. Aquellos padres que carecen de estudios secundarios presentan la visión más negativa de los programas bilingües. Además, los padres con un nivel educativo más alto son más conscientes sobre los beneficios de estudiar una lengua extranjera y de participar en iniciativas internacionales, lo cual haría que sus hijos fueran unos ciudadanos más globalizados.

Considerando el curso en el que sus hijos están estudiando y distinguiendo entre centros de Primaria y Secundaria, aparecen estadísticamente significativas a favor de aquellos padres cuyos hijos pertenecen a clases de Educación Primaria. Estas familias se muestran más optimistas sobre las metodologías innovadoras utilizadas en clase y claramente se sienten más capaces de ayudar a sus hijos en casa con las tareas. No es sorprendente que cuanto mayor es la demanda de ayuda para con los padres, más negativas son las perspectivas que ellos mantienen sobre el AICLE (Ráez Padilla, 2018). Su optimismo también es mayor sobre los materiales y la evaluación, ya que afirman estar satisfechos con las diferentes herramientas de evaluación empleadas.

Área focal 2: EFECTOS DEL AICLE EN LA LENGUA EXTRANJERA

***PI6:** ¿Desarrollan los alumnos del grupo experimental AICLE implementado en centros de Primaria y de Secundaria competencias lingüísticas (gramática, vocabulario y las*

cuatro destrezas) superiores a las desarrolladas a través de programas tradicionales en grupos no AICLE del mismo nivel (grupo de control)?

Para poder responder a nuestra pregunta de investigación número 6, se ha llevado a cabo una exhaustiva evaluación del manejo que tienen los estudiantes en la lengua extranjera de cada una de las destrezas lingüísticas mencionadas anteriormente. Como resultado, este análisis nos ha permitido confirmar que los alumnos siguiendo un programa bilingüe poseen una competencia lingüística superior en inglés. De este modo, el grupo bilingüe supera al grupo no bilingüe en todas las destrezas analizadas, siendo la comprensión oral la única destreza para la que no se encontraron diferencias estadísticamente significativas. Centrándonos en la producción oral, aparecen diferencias estadísticamente significativas de nuevo a favor de los alumnos bilingües, quienes obtienen mejores resultados en el uso y conocimiento de la gramática del inglés y en pronunciación (Madrid y Barrios, 2018; Nieto Moreno de Diezmas, 2016; Ruiz de Zarobe, 2008; Pascual Bajo, 2018). Sin embargo, no se detectan diferencias significativas cuando analizamos el vocabulario, la fluidez o la adaptabilidad a la tarea asignada.

Estos resultados generales son confirmados posteriormente cuando evaluamos a los alumnos de manera separada según su etapa educativa, distinguiendo así entre alumnado de Educación Primaria y de Secundaria. Cuando comparamos alumnos de 4º de ESO que siguen un programa tradicional de enseñanza del inglés como lengua extranjera y sus compañeros del mismo nivel que cursan sus estudios en una sección bilingüe, éstos últimos obtienen mejores resultados en todas y cada una de las destrezas evaluadas. Por el contrario, en el caso del alumnado de 6º de Educación Primaria, no se han podido detectar diferencias estadísticamente significativas con respecto a sus compañeros no bilingües. En general, nuestros resultados corroboran lo que muchas investigaciones previas han sugerido: el impacto positivo que ejerce AICLE sobre el aprendizaje de una lengua extranjera.

PI7. *¿Cuál es el efecto modulador de las variables intervinientes (tipo de centro: público-privado, contexto: rural-urbano, género, nivel socioeconómico, motivación, inteligencia verbal, nivel de inglés y tiempo de exposición al inglés dentro y fuera del aula) sobre la competencia en lengua extranjera del alumnado?*

Con el objetivo de entender completamente los efectos del AICLE en la competencia lingüística de nuestro alumnado en la lengua extranjera, los datos obtenidos en los tests también fueron analizados considerando las diferentes variables moderadoras incluidas en el estudio. La variable de género no ha arrojado diferencias estadísticamente significativas en el análisis inicial general, coincidiendo así con los resultados obtenidos por Heras y Lasagabaster (2015) y Pascual Bajo (2018). Sin embargo, después de un análisis más exhaustivo, se puede observar cómo el alumnado femenino posee un nivel más alto de vocabulario en la lengua extranjera que sus compañeros, y las chicas generalmente obtienen mejores resultados que los chicos. En cuanto al grupo no bilingüe, no se han detectado diferencias estadísticamente significativas relacionadas con la variable de género en ninguna de las destrezas evaluadas.

Siguiendo con la variable de contexto (rural-urbano), en la comparación general de los estudiantes, aparecieron diferencias significativas a favor de aquellos alumnos cuyo centro está situado en un entorno urbano, especialmente en el uso del inglés. Sin embargo, aquellos alumnos que pertenecen a un centro rural obtienen mejores resultados en la comprensión oral, lo que significa que el AICLE atenúa las diferencias que previamente habían estado relacionadas con la diferenciación rural-urbana (Pérez Cañado, 2020). Cuando los resultados de los estudiantes se analizan de manera separada, vuelven a surgir diferencias estadísticamente significativas a favor de aquellos alumnos bilingües pertenecientes a un centro urbano. Por el contrario, los alumnos no bilingües que pertenecen a un centro rural superan a sus compañeros bilingües en todas las destrezas evaluadas, con la única excepción del uso del inglés. Este último resultado debe ser analizado minuciosamente y se deben realizar más proyectos de investigación para averiguar qué razones están detrás del fracaso del AICLE en algunos centros rurales y si esta situación es aislada o se repite en otros centros educativos situados en zonas rurales, donde el programa bilingüe se ha implantado junto con otra línea siguiendo el programa tradicional de la enseñanza del inglés como lengua extranjera.

El nivel socioeconómico de los alumnos también fue tenido en cuenta, distinguiendo tres grupos diferentes según el nivel de estudios de los padres. Como resultado, se han encontrado diferencias significativas a favor de aquellos alumnos con un alto nivel socioeconómico en todas las destrezas consideradas, excepto para el uso del inglés. Esta misma tendencia se repite cuando se analizan los datos de manera separada. Por lo tanto, aquellos alumnos bilingües cuyas familias tienen un nivel socioeconómico

superior presentan el nivel más alto de competencia en la lengua extranjera, lo cual corrobora los resultados obtenidos por Anghel, Cabrales y Carro (2016), y Fernández Sanjurjo, Fernández Costales y Arias Blanco (2019). Al contrario que muchas de las investigaciones recientes que defienden que el AICLE está acabando con las diferencias entre clases sociales (Pérez Cañado, 2017b; Pavón, 2018; Rascón and Bretones, 2018; Lorenzo, 2019), la etiqueta elitista que el programa bilingüe ha llevado durante todo este tiempo parece no haber caído del todo.

En el grupo no bilingüe, no se han detectado diferencias estadísticamente significativas en ninguna de las destrezas analizadas, excepto en el conocimiento del vocabulario. Es decir, los alumnos no bilingües cuyas familias tienen un nivel socioeconómico superior tienen un mayor manejo de vocabulario en la lengua extranjera. Todos estos resultados deben revisarse para determinar si estas diferencias existentes podrían eliminarse, al menos, a largo plazo.

La siguiente variable incorporada es la de la exposición al inglés fuera del centro. El resultado es claro: aquellos alumnos que tienen un nivel de exposición mayor (más de 9 horas por semana) poseen la competencia en lengua extranjera más alta. Sin embargo, cuando analizamos los grupos por separado, no se han detectado diferencias estadísticamente significativas, excepto para el vocabulario y para la comprensión lectora en el caso de estudiantes no bilingües con un nivel de exposición más alto. Coincidiendo con la investigación de Pascual Bajo (2018), esta falta de diferencias en la clase bilingüe puede ser fácilmente entendible, ya que la mayor exposición al inglés en clase puede haber ayudado a aquellos estudiantes con un acceso menor a la lengua extranjera fuera del aula.

Según el tipo de centro (privado o público), también se han podido detectar diferencias significativas a favor del alumnado perteneciente a un centro privado. Sin embargo, los alumnos de centros bilingües públicos obtienen mejores resultados en el uso del inglés. Cuando analizamos los datos por separado, la tendencia vuelve a repetirse entre el alumnado de Primaria. Como ha pasado con la variable del nivel socioeconómico mencionada anteriormente, los programas bilingües parecen favorecer especialmente a aquellos alumnos cuyo nivel social y económico es más favorable, es decir, aquellos que pertenecen a la llamada “élite”, entre los que se encuentra el alumnado de los centros privados. Coincidiendo con Paran (2013), Bruton (2013), y Madrid y Hughes (2011), el bilingüismo en ocasiones ha discriminado a los estudiantes según su situación académica,

social y económica. En Secundaria la situación cambia ya que nuestro estudio no ha incluido centros privados de Educación Secundaria. Por lo tanto, las diferencias detectadas han sido a favor del grupo bilingüe de los centros públicos, corroborando los resultados de Pérez Cañado (2018a). Este resultado tan positivo nos hace pensar que las diferencias detectadas entre los diferentes tipos de centro no están del todo claras y que podrían desaparecer a largo plazo (Pérez Cañado, 2020).

PI8. *Según la evolución del grupo AICLE de la fase de post-test a la de seguimiento, ¿perduran los posibles efectos diferenciales ejercidos por el programa AICLE sobre la competencia lingüística en inglés seis meses después del fin de dicho programa o desaparecen gradualmente?*

Para responder a nuestra pregunta de investigación número 8, los resultados obtenidos en la fase del post-test fueron comparados con la fase del seguimiento (*delayed post-test*). De esta forma, después de analizar los resultados del grupo bilingüe, no se han detectado diferencias en ninguna de las destrezas evaluadas, excepto en la de comprensión oral. Aunque los estudiantes bilingües obtienen mejores resultados en la fase de seguimiento en todas las destrezas consideradas, las diferencias fueron únicamente significativas para la comprensión oral. En el caso de los estudiantes no bilingües, no han aparecido diferencias entre las dos fases, con la excepción de la comprensión escrita.

Para terminar, analizamos las posibles diferencias estadísticamente significativas existentes entre los colectivos en la fase de seguimiento. Los resultados obtenidos avalan los beneficios del programa bilingüe, ya que aparecen diferencias para todas las destrezas evaluadas a favor de los alumnos del grupo bilingüe. Coincidiendo con los resultados de Pladevall-Ballester y Vallbona (2016), Pascual Bajo (2018) y Lorenzo (2019), los estudiantes que siguen el programa AICLE obtienen mejores resultados en la comprensión oral y escrita, así como en el uso del inglés y el conocimiento de vocabulario.

Como conclusión, podemos afirmar que nuestros datos respaldan la continuidad de los programas bilingües en las etapas post-obligatorias de la Educación Secundaria, algo que ayudaría a consolidar estos efectos positivos entre los alumnos. Siguiendo a Pérez Cañado (2018a), nuestros resultados indican que, aunque muchos de los efectos del

AICLE permanecen, estos podrían desaparecer paulatinamente si los programas no continúan.

Área focal 3: IMPACTO DEL AICLE EN LA LENGUA MATERNA

PI9: *¿Afecta el programa AICLE al nivel de lengua castellana del grupo experimental en comparación con el grupo de control?*

Teniendo en cuenta las calificaciones finales obtenidas por los alumnos en la asignatura de Lengua Castellana y Literatura, pudimos llevar a cabo una comparación entre los diferentes colectivos. En este sentido, nuestra comparación inicial muestra que los alumnos del grupo bilingüe obtienen mejores resultados que los alumnos no bilingües. Aunque no se pudieron utilizar las calificaciones de los alumnos de Primaria para un análisis posterior, las diferencias estadísticamente significativas aparecieron en el grupo de Secundaria. De este modo, coincidiendo con muchas investigaciones recientes (Bergroth, 2006; Madrid y Barrios, 2018; Merino and Lasagabaster, 2015; Merisuo-Storm, 2006, 2007; Pérez Cañado, 2017a; Seikkula-Leino, 2007; Pascual Bajo, 2018; Lorenzo, 2019), la menor exposición a la lengua materna por parte de los alumnos bilingües no da como resultado un peor manejo del castellano. Tal y como subraya Lorenzo, Casal y Moore (2009, p. 435), AICLE ya no puede ser considerado un competidor del aprendizaje de la lengua materna.

PI10: *¿Cuál es el efecto modulador de las variables intervinientes (tipo de centro: público-privado, contexto: rural-urbano, género, nivel socioeconómico, motivación, inteligencia verbal, nivel de inglés y tiempo de exposición al inglés dentro y fuera del aula) sobre la competencia en lengua castellana del alumnado?*

La primera variable que hemos considerado es la de género, la cual arroja diferencias estadísticamente significativas a favor de las alumnas participantes. Siguiendo la misma tendencia del impacto de AICLE sobre la lengua extranjera, las chicas obtienen mejores resultados en la asignatura de Lengua Castellana y Literatura. Sin embargo, cuando el análisis se realizó de manera separada, no se detectaron diferencias dentro del grupo bilingüe.

La variable de contexto también muestra diferencias estadísticamente significativas entre los colectivos, a favor de aquellos alumnos pertenecientes a centros urbanos. Asimismo, en la evaluación intra-grupal, las diferencias vuelven a surgir en el grupo bilingüe, corroborando de nuevo la superioridad de los alumnos de centros urbanos. Como pasó con los efectos del bilingüismo en la lengua extranjera, el contexto es una variable importante que claramente influencia el aprendizaje de la lengua materna, de nuevo a favor de aquellos alumnos que pertenecen a un centro urbano, algo que va en contra de los resultados obtenidos por Pavón Vázquez (2018), Pérez Cañado (2018c) y Navarro Pablo y López Gándara (2020), para quienes la diferenciación entre centros urbanos y rurales no determina las diferencias entre los alumnos bilingües y no bilingües.

Teniendo en cuenta el tiempo de exposición a la lengua extranjera fuera del centro, no se han detectado diferencias estadísticamente significativas entre los alumnos bilingües y no bilingües, aunque se han obtenido unas medias ligeramente más altas a favor de aquellos alumnos cuyo nivel de exposición es mayor. A pesar de no ser estadísticamente significativos, estos resultados tan positivos llevan a la conclusión de que una mayor exposición a la lengua extranjera también puede generar una conciencia metalingüística superior en el estudiante, el cual sería más consciente de la conexión entre las lenguas, algo que Cenoz (2015) ya recogió en su estudio. Esto es por lo que el aprendizaje de una lengua extranjera no perjudica el aprendizaje y desarrollo de la lengua materna, sino que lo mejora. En la comparación intragrupal, no se han detectado diferencias.

Según el nivel socioeconómico del alumnado, las diferencias significativas esta vez aparecen no solo entre los grupos, sino dentro de los mismos. Aunque no fue posible llevar a cabo el ANOVA dentro del grupo no bilingüe, coincidiendo con los estudios de Pascual Bajo (2018) y Pérez Cañado (2018c), los estudiantes que poseen un nivel socioeconómico más alto obtienen mejores resultados en su lengua materna. Estos resultados, confirmados después por medio de la comparación Tukey HSD, muestran que las diferencias entre los alumnos con un nivel socioeconómico bajo o medio no son significativas, mientras que aquellas a favor de los alumnos con un nivel socioeconómico más alto sí son considerables.

La última variable que debemos mencionar es la de tipo de centro. Por medio del ANOVA, se llevó a cabo un análisis exhaustivo de los tres grupos de clase incluidos en nuestro estudio: colegio público no bilingüe, colegio público bilingüe y colegio privado

bilingüe. De este modo, se detectaron diferencias significativas a favor de los estudiantes pertenecientes a un centro privado. Sin embargo, no se encontraron diferencias entre los grupos bilingües y no bilingües en el centro público. Como resultado, podemos concluir que el AICLE no ejerce un efecto negativo en la lengua materna del alumnado dentro del grupo experimental (bilingüe).

Por todo ello, podemos concluir diciendo que los programas bilingües no perjudican el aprendizaje de la lengua materna como se ha dicho tradicionalmente. Sin embargo, el programa bilingüe tiende a favorecer especialmente a aquellos alumnos que pertenecen a un centro privado situado en un entorno urbano, donde el nivel socioeconómico es más alto. Una vez más podemos comprobar la tendencia elitista del AICLE, ya documentada por investigadores como Paran (2013) o Bruton (2013). Por este motivo, deben realizarse más estudios sobre estos aspectos para garantizar la igualdad de oportunidades entre los alumnos.

Área focal 4: IMPACTO DEL AICLE EN EL APRENDIZAJE DE CONTENIDOS A TRAVÉS DEL INGLÉS

***PI11:** ¿Afecta el programa AICLE a la adquisición de contenidos de Ciencias del grupo experimental en comparación con el grupo de control?*

Teniendo en cuenta las calificaciones finales obtenidas por los alumnos en la asignatura de Ciencias, la primera comparación inter-grupal llevada a cabo muestra cómo existen diferencias estadísticamente significativas a favor del grupo bilingüe, coincidiendo así con Mattheoudakis, Alexiou y Laskaridou (2014), Serra (2007) y Surmont et al. (2016), según los cuales enseñar el contenido a través de una lengua extranjera no tiene un efecto prejudicial en su aprendizaje. Tal y como ha pasado con la asignatura de Lengua Castellana y Literatura, no fue posible llevar a cabo un análisis más profundo de los alumnos de Primaria bilingües y no bilingües. Sin embargo, en el caso de los centros de Secundaria, surgen diferencias a favor de los alumnos bilingües, los cuales obtienen mejores resultados que sus compañeros no bilingües en la adquisición de contenido.

PI12: *¿Cuál es el efecto modulador de las variables intervinientes (tipo de centro: público-privado, contexto: rural-urbano, género, nivel socioeconómico, motivación, inteligencia verbal, nivel de inglés y tiempo de exposición al inglés dentro y fuera del aula) sobre la competencia en la asignatura de Ciencias del alumnado?*

Con respecto a la primera variable que hemos considerado, los análisis estadísticos desarrollados no han detectado ninguna diferencia estadísticamente significativa relacionada con el género de los estudiantes. Aunque las alumnas obtienen unas medias ligeramente más altas, las diferencias no llegan a ser significativas. Lo mismo ocurre cuando los análisis intra-grupales.

En el caso de la localización, sí existen diferencias estadísticamente significativas en el aprendizaje de los contenidos a favor de los alumnos pertenecientes a centros urbanos. Sin embargo, cuando las comparaciones se realizan dentro de cada grupo, no existen diferencias significativas en el grupo bilingüe. Por lo tanto, podemos asumir que el AICLE funciona igualmente bien con los alumnos, independientemente de si están en un entorno rural o urbano (Pavón Vázquez, 2018).

En cuanto a la exposición a la lengua extranjera fuera del centro, no se han detectado diferencias estadísticamente significativas entre los grupos, coincidiendo así con los resultados obtenidos para la lengua extranjera y la lengua materna. Sin embargo, debemos mencionar que una vez más, se han obtenido unas medias más altas a favor de los alumnos que pasan más de nueve horas por semana en contacto con la lengua extranjera fuera del centro educativo, lo que no es sorprendente, ya que cuanto mayor sea el contacto que los alumnos mantienen con la lengua extranjera, más control tendrán de ella y más fácil será entender el contenido. Dentro del grupo bilingüe tampoco aparecen diferencias estadísticamente significativas.

El nivel socioeconómico parece no afectar demasiado al aprendizaje de contenidos, ya que no han aparecido diferencias estadísticamente significativas entre los estudiantes. De igual forma, tampoco hay diferencias dentro del grupo bilingüe, lo cual corrobora los resultados obtenidos por Rascón Moreno y Bretones Callejas (2018), quienes afirman que el aprendizaje de contenidos en un contexto bilingüe no está afectado por el contexto social y cultural del alumnado.

Para terminar, las diferencias estadísticamente significativas existentes entre el alumnado según el tipo de centro demuestran que aquellos alumnos pertenecientes a un centro privado obtienen mejores resultados. En la comparación intra-grupal, que solo pudo llevarse a cabo en centros públicos, las diferencias surgieron a favor del alumnado bilingüe, que obtiene mejores calificaciones en la asignatura de Ciencias que sus compañeros no bilingües.

Área focal 5: EVALUACIÓN DEL DIFERENCIAL. ANÁLISIS DISCRIMINANTE

***PI13:** En caso de existir diferencias significativas entre el grupo experimental y el de control, ¿pueden realmente atribuirse al programa AICLE?*

Para abordar la última pregunta de investigación, sucesivos análisis discriminantes han sido llevado a cabo para averiguar qué variables explican mejor las diferencias detectadas entre el grupo experimental (bilingüe) y el grupo de control (no bilingüe) en la lengua extranjera, en la lengua materna y en la asignatura de Ciencias. Comenzando con la asignatura de Lengua Extranjera (Inglés), la variable independiente (programa bilingüe), junto con las variables de nivel socioeconómico e inteligencia verbal, son las que muestran el mayor potencial discriminante. Los análisis siguientes indicaron que todas estas variables son significativas, corroborando que, aunque el nivel socioeconómico claramente beneficia a los alumnos bilingües y no bilingües, aquellos que pertenecen a un programa AICLE obtienen mejores resultados en inglés. Por lo tanto, podemos deducir que la principal razón detrás de los resultados positivos obtenidos por el grupo bilingüe es precisamente el ser enseñados en un ambiente bilingüe donde el aprendizaje de la lengua extranjera se fomenta de manera más natural. Generalmente hablando, el alumnado bilingüe obtiene mejor resultados que sus compañeros no bilingües a causa del programa educativo que están siguiendo, el cual es un factor crucial en la adquisición de este nuevo idioma.

En el caso de la lengua castellana, el programa bilingüe no discrimina los resultados entre los colectivos. Los análisis realizados evidencian que las diferencias pueden adscribirse a las variables de nivel socioeconómico, inteligencia verbal, tipo de colegio, carencia de interés y el compromiso personal. Por lo tanto, el programa bilingüe

no influencia los resultados obtenidos en la lengua materna, siendo otras variables las responsables de las diferencias detectadas entre los grupos.

Por último, en cuanto al aprendizaje del contenido, una situación similar puede observarse, ya que la enseñanza de contenido a través de una lengua extranjera no afecta al aprendizaje por parte de los alumnos, ni positiva, ni negativamente. En su lugar, los resultados apuntan al compromiso personal y a la carencia de interés como las variables con un mayor potencial discriminante entre los grupos.

Por lo tanto, los análisis realizados confirman que el programa bilingüe es la variable que explica las principales diferencias entre los grupos en el aprendizaje del inglés. Por lo tanto, los beneficios del grupo experimental en su competencia en la lengua extranjera pueden atribuirse al AICLE. Además, se ha demostrado que el bilingüismo no perjudica el aprendizaje de contenidos ni afecta negativamente a la lengua materna de los alumnos. Es por ello que los alumnos deberían beneficiarse los programas bilingües, ya que ofrecen múltiples oportunidades, haciendo que el aprendizaje sea más atractivo y ofreciendo diferentes herramientas para manejar sus necesidades futuras. Como se ha demostrado, sus resultados académicos no se verán perjudicados sino mejorados, a pesar de un posible incremento en la carga de trabajo.

En conclusión, parece estar claro que los programas bilingües han llegado para quedarse y todo el mundo debe acogerlos como la puerta hacia la ampliación de oportunidades para nuestros estudiantes, para la creación de adultos mejor formados y más motivados y, sobre todo, para la internacionalización de nuestras sociedades.

APPENDICES

Appendix I.

Initial questionnaire

**Proyecto MON-CLIL: Los Efectos del Aprendizaje Integrado de Contenidos y Lenguas
Extranjeras en Comunidades Monolingües: Un Estudio Longitudinal**

Cuestionario inicial

ALUMNADO

1. NOMBRE: _____
2. CENTRO: _____
3. CURSO Y CLASE: _____
4. EDAD: _____
5. SEXO: ☐ Hombre ☐ Mujer
6. NACIONALIDAD: _____
7. EDAD DE TU MADRE:
 - ☐ 20 – 30 años
 - ☐ 31 – 40 años
 - ☐ 41 – 50 años
 - ☐ 51 – 60 años
 - ☐ Más de 60 años
8. EDAD DE TU PADRE:
 - ☐ 20 – 30 años
 - ☐ 31 – 40 años
 - ☐ 41 – 50 años
 - ☐ 51 – 60 años
 - ☐ Más de 60 años
9. NIVEL DE ESTUDIOS DE TU MADRE:
 - ☐ Sin estudios
 - ☐ Título de Graduado Escolar
 - ☐ Título de Bachiller
 - ☐ Título de Formación Profesional
 - ☐ Título Universitario
 - ☐ Doctorado
10. NIVEL DE ESTUDIOS DE TU PADRE:
 - ☐ Sin estudios
 - ☐ Título de Graduado Escolar
 - ☐ Título de Bachiller
 - ☐ Título de Formación Profesional
 - ☐ Título Universitario
 - ☐ Doctorado

Ejemplos de problemas donde se debe seleccionar la palabra o palabras adecuadas:

E8 Completa la frase con el par de palabras que consideres más correcto, de forma que dé sentido y significado a la frase.

Una persona _____ es la que siempre llega _____

- A** nerviosa - tarde
- B** interesante - sencilla
- C** amable - más temprano
- D** puntual - a su hora

En el siguiente ejercicio, ¿qué par de palabras completa mejor la frase dotándola de sentido?

E9 MONEDA es a _____ como LLAVE es a _____

- A** dinero-metal
- B** hucha-cerradura
- C** billete-maestra
- D** fabricada-dentada

ESPERA, NO PASES LA PÁGINA

En los siguientes ejercicios, ¿qué par de palabras o expresiones (A, B, C o D) completan mejor la frase para que tenga sentido?

1 La _____ sobresalía _____.

- A jarra - del vaso
- B bebida - del agua
- C arena - del recipiente
- D cazuela - de la sopa

2 A menudo es conveniente ser _____ con lo que se _____ delante de los demás.

- A sincero - hace
- B modesto - opina
- C conforme - pacta
- D cauteloso - dice

3 Su postura era _____, no tenía una opinión _____ acerca de las ideas propuestas por su equipo.

- A positiva - adecuada
- B neutral - definida
- C ambigua - incierta
- D subjetiva - personal

En los siguientes ejercicios, ¿qué palabra (A, B, C o D) significa lo CONTRARIO que la escrita en mayúsculas?

4 RESPETO

- A deferencia
- B displicencia
- C desprecio
- D estima

5 SOSIEGO

- A intranquilidad
- B salazón
- C escarnio
- D ocurrencia

6 SUEÑO

- A sopor
- B modorra
- C letargo
- D vigilia

En los siguientes ejercicios, ¿qué par de palabras o expresiones (A, B, C o D) completa mejor la frase dotándola de sentido?

7 _____ es a DEMOCRACIA como REY es a _____

- A demócrata - reina
- B oligarquía - dictadura
- C pueblo - monarquía
- D voto - presidente

8 _____ es a ABETO como SANGRE es a _____

- A savia - hombre
- B clorofila - arteria
- C verde - rojo
- D hoja - célula

En los siguientes ejercicios, ¿cuál de las cuatro palabras (A, B, C o D) no pertenece al mismo grupo que las otras tres?

9 A arpa B trompeta C saxofón D flauta

10 A soluble B rollizo C fornido D enjuto

En el siguiente ejercicio, ¿qué palabra (A, B, C o D) significa lo CONTRARIO que la escrita en mayúsculas?

11 EBRIO

A embriagado

B sobrio

C pertinaz

D iluminado

En los siguientes ejercicios, ¿qué par de palabras o expresiones (A, B, C o D) completan mejor la frase para que tenga sentido?

12 Era un _____ que por su peligrosidad
_____ la intervención policial.

- A caso - controlaba
- B dilema - exigía
- C asunto - demandaba
- D hecho - completaba

13 La _____ de la tragedia fue de ridículas
dimensiones en comparación con su _____.

- A trama - predecesor
- B consecuencia - final
- C película - largometraje
- D causa - efecto

14 El joven _____ a la cita antes de tiempo
y tuvo que _____ la llegada de sus amigos.

- A llegaba - demorar
- B acudió - aguardar
- C asiste - esperar
- D venía - atender

En el siguiente ejercicio, ¿cuál de las cuatro palabras (A, B, C o D) significa lo CONTRARIO de la palabra que aparece en mayúsculas?

15 PARQUEDAD

A templanza

B educación

C humedad

D derroche

En los siguientes ejercicios, ¿cuál de las cuatro palabras (A, B, C o D) no pertenece al mismo grupo que las otras tres?

16 A señalar

B describir

C distinguir

D apuntar

17 A masía

B barraca

C quintal

D cortijo

18 A orca

B pantera

C cocodrilo

D lobo

En los siguientes ejercicios, ¿qué par de palabras (A, B, C o D) completa mejor la relación dotándola de sentido?

19 _____ es a DINERO como BIBLIOTECA es a _____.

- A moneda-lectura
- B moneda-hoja
- C billete-libro
- D banco-libro

20 _____ es a ACABAR como AMANECER es a _____.

- A oscurecer - clarear
- B terminar - atardecer
- C comenzar-anocheecer
- D dormir - despertar

En el siguiente ejercicio, ¿cuál de las cuatro palabras (A, B, C o D) no pertenece al mismo grupo que las otras tres?

21 A contable B endeble C abarcable D creíble

En el siguiente ejercicio, ¿qué par de palabras o expresiones (A, B, C o D) completan mejor la frase para que tenga sentido?

22 Su _____ hacía que la embarcación surcara los mares con _____.

- A potencia - parsimonia
- B ímpetu - vehemencia
- C fragilidad - ahínco
- D suavidad - arduidad

En el siguiente ejercicio, ¿qué palabra (A, B, C o D) significa lo CONTRARIO que la escrita en mayúsculas?

23 ANGOSTO A sereno B valiente C gélido D amplio



DETÉNTE. NO PASES A LA PRUEBA
SIGUIENTE HASTA QUE TE LO INDIQUEN.

CUESTIONARIO M-A

En la página que sigue se encuentran una serie de afirmaciones sobre tu modo de pensar y de actuar en la vida diaria. Para cada una de las afirmaciones hay dos opciones de respuesta SI o NO. Pon una cruz o enmarca en un círculo la que creas más conveniente y que se adapta mejor a tu forma de pensar. Lee atentamente cada una de las afirmaciones y no te olvides de señalar tu respuesta.

EJEMPLO:

Me gustan los animales	SI	NO

Si te gustan, tienes que señalar la respuesta SI

Si no te gustan , tienes que señalar la respuesta NO

CONTESTA, POR FAVOR, A TODAS LAS CUESTIONES.

SE SINCERO/A EN TUS RESPUESTAS.

1.- Si temo que me suspendan, estudio más.	SI	NO
2.- Después de hacer un examen, estoy nervioso(a) hasta que me dicen la nota.	SI	NO
3.- Mis amigos(as) dicen a veces que soy muy vago(a).	SI	NO
4.- Sinceramente, creo que hoy los estudiantes tienen que estudiar demasiado.	SI	NO
5.- Frecuentemente empiezo cosas que después no termino.	SI	NO
6.- Suelo realizar las cosas más difíciles con gran facilidad.	SI	NO
8.- Los fracasos me ponen triste.	SI	NO
9.- Saco más nota en un examen si me dan un premio.	SI	NO
10.- Yo hago, como máximo, lo que se me pide y no más.	SI	NO
11.- Me resulta fácil olvidarme del estudio en los días de fiesta.	SI	NO
12.- Mucha gente cree que estoy capacitado(a) para hacer cosas extraordinarias.	SI	NO
13.- Una de mis mayores virtudes es mi voluntad de hierro.	SI	NO
14.- Yo estaría también contento(a) si no tuviera que estudiar.	SI	NO
15.- Una de mis principales dificultades es el nerviosismo que siento antes de un examen.	SI	NO
16.- Cuando hago un examen o evaluación mal, estoy de mal humor.	SI	NO
17.- En momentos importantes estoy casi siempre nervioso(a).	SI	NO
18.- Prefiero hacer trabajos difíciles que hacer trabajos fáciles.	SI	NO
19.- Puedo estudiar mucho tiempo sin cansarme.	SI	NO
20.- Creo que soy un(a) vago(a).	SI	NO
21.- Estudio mucho para ser el primero de la clase.	SI	NO
22.- Las asignaturas que prefiero son, precisamente, las más difíciles.	SI	NO
23.- Normalmente estudio más que mis compañeros.	SI	NO
24.- Sería una suerte para muchos, ser tan inteligente como yo.	SI	NO
25.- Cuando hago algo, lo hago bien: si no, no lo hago.	SI	NO
26.- Las tareas demasiado difíciles las dejo sin hacer.	SI	NO
27.- Los demás creen que yo estudio demasiado	SI	NO
28.- Algunas veces quiero estudiar tanto, que no tengo tiempo ni para dormir.	SI	NO
29.- Al final de una discusión, mis puntos de vista son siempre los mejores.	SI	NO
30.- Sería muy difícil encontrar un colaborador tan bueno como yo.	SI	NO
31.- Cuando estudio con otros(as) chicos(as), estudio más que ellos(as).	SI	NO
32.- Yo me he propuesto ser muy importante.	SI	NO
33.- Si hago algunos fallos seguidos, me desanimo.	SI	NO
34.- Estudio tanto que los demás no pueden seguirme.	SI	NO
35.- En los exámenes difíciles llega a apoderarse de mí, a veces, una sensación de pánico	SI	NO
36.- Una cosa mal hecha me sienta mal.	SI	NO

Proyecto MON-CLIL: Los Efectos del Aprendizaje Integrado de Contenidos y Lenguas Extranjeras en Comunidades Monolingües: Un Estudio Longitudinal

Exposición al inglés fuera del aula¹

ALUMNADO

✍ Por favor, reflexiona sobre tu exposición al inglés fuera de clase y anota la media de horas que crees que dedicas a cada una de estas actividades semanalmente.

		Horas semanales
Leer libros en inglés	Ejemplo:	
Leer periódicos / revistas / blogs en inglés	Ejemplo:	
Ver programas o series de televisión en inglés (en la televisión o el ordenador)	Ejemplo:	
Ver películas en inglés (en el cine, en la televisión, en DVD, en el ordenador, etc.)	Ejemplo:	
Usar Internet / redes sociales / servicios de mensajería / foros con información en inglés	Ejemplo:	
Jugar a vídeo juegos (en el ordenador, PlayStation, Xbox, etc.) en inglés	Ejemplo:	
Escuchar canciones en inglés	Ejemplo:	
Ir a clases extraescolares de inglés	Lugar:	
Otras actividades	Ejemplo:	

¹ Basado en Sundqvist, P. & Sylvén, L. K. 2014. "Language-related computer use: Focus on young L2 English learners in Sweden". *ReCALL* 26(1): 3-20.

Appendix II.

Student

questionnaire

Proyecto MON-CLIL: Los Efectos del Aprendizaje Integrado de Contenidos y Lenguas Extranjeras en Comunidades Monolingües: Un Estudio Longitudinal

Cuestionario

ALUMNADO

1. CENTRO: _____
2. CURSO Y CLASE: _____
3. EDAD: _____
4. SEXO: ☐ Hombre ☐ Mujer
5. NACIONALIDAD: _____
8. ¿CÚANTOS AÑOS HAS ESTUDIADO EN UN PROGRAMA BILINGÜE? _____
9. ASIGNATURAS QUE ESTUDIAS EN INGLÉS ESTE CURSO:
 - ☐ Ciencias Naturales
 - ☐ Ciencias Sociales
 - ☐ Matemáticas
 - ☐ Dibujo
 - ☐ Música
 - ☐ Educación Física
 - ☐ Otra _____
10. EXPOSICIÓN AL INGLÉS DENTRO DEL PROGRAMA BILINGÜE :

¿Qué porcentaje de cada asignatura bilingüe se enseña en inglés? ☐ 30% ☐ 40% ☐ 50% ☐ No sé

POR FAVOR, INDICA HASTA QUÉ PUNTO ESTÁS DE ACUERDO CON LOS SIGUIENTES ASPECTOS RELACIONADOS CON LA ENSEÑANZA BILINGÜE (1=Totalmente en desacuerdo; 2=En desacuerdo; 3=De acuerdo; 4=Totalmente de acuerdo).

1. USO, COMPETENCIA Y DESARROLLO DEL INGLÉS DE LOS ALUMNOS EN CLASE

ASPECTOS	TOTALMENTE EN DESACUERDO	EN DESACUERDO	DE ACUERDO	TOTALMENTE DE ACUERDO
1. Se desarrollan las competencias clave en clase	1	2	3	4
2. Mi inglés ha mejorado debido a mi participación en un programa bilingüe	1	2	3	4
4. Mi español ha mejorado debido a mi participación en un programa bilingüe	1	2	3	4
5. Mi conocimiento de los contenidos de las asignaturas impartidas en inglés ha mejorado debido a mi participación en un programa bilingüe	1	2	3	4
6. Mi comprensión de cómo funcionan las lenguas ha mejorado debido a mi participación en un programa bilingüe	1	2	3	4
7. Mi comprensión de la conexión entre el inglés y el español ha mejorado debido a mi participación en un programa bilingüe	1	2	3	4
8. Tengo más confianza en mí mismo dentro de la clase bilingüe	1	2	3	4
9. Soy participativo en la clase bilingüe	1	2	3	4
10. Me intereso en la clase bilingüe	1	2	3	4

11. Me gustaría más uso del inglés dentro de la clase bilingüe	1	2	3	4
12. Tengo una capacidad adecuada en comprensión y expresión orales en inglés	1	2	3	4
13. Tengo una capacidad adecuada en comprensión y expresión escritas en inglés	1	2	3	4
14. Tengo un conocimiento adecuado de aspectos socio-culturales y una conciencia intercultural en inglés	1	2	3	4
Otro (especificar):	1	2	3	4

2. METODOLOGÍA

ASPECTOS	TOTALMENTE EN DESACUERDO	EN DESACUERDO	DE ACUERDO	TOTALMENTE DE ACUERDO
15. Se desarrollan tareas en clase	1	2	3	4
16. Se desarrollan proyectos en clase	1	2	3	4
17. Aprendo mucho vocabulario en la clase bilingüe	1	2	3	4
18. Se trabaja en grupo dentro de la clase bilingüe	1	2	3	4
Otro (especificar):	1	2	3	4

3. MATERIALES Y RECURSOS

ASPECTOS	TOTALMENTE EN DESACUERDO	EN DESACUERDO	DE ACUERDO	TOTALMENTE DE ACUERDO
19. Se utilizan materiales auténticos para la enseñanza bilingüe	1	2	3	4
20. Se adaptan materiales auténticos para la enseñanza bilingüe	1	2	3	4
21. Los materiales para la enseñanza bilingüe son interesantes e innovadores	1	2	3	4
22. Los profesores de la sección bilingüe colaboran para preparar y enseñar los materiales de enseñanza bilingüe en clase	1	2	3	4
23. Los materiales de enseñanza bilingüe fomentan la comunicación en inglés en clase	1	2	3	4
24. Los materiales de enseñanza bilingüe están adaptados para atender las necesidades de todos los alumnos	1	2	3	4
25. Se utilizan materiales multimedia (<i>software</i>) en clase	1	2	3	4
26. Se utilizan materiales de referencia <i>online</i> en clase	1	2	3	4

27. Se utilizan <i>blogs</i> , <i>wikis</i> (herramientas Web 2.0) y <i>webquests</i> en clase	1	2	3	4
28. Se utilizan pizarras electrónicas interactivas en clase	1	2	3	4
29. Se utiliza la comunicación mediada por ordenador en clase (e.g., <i>e-Twinning</i>)	1	2	3	4
Otro (especificar):	1	2	3	4

4. EVALUACIÓN

ASPECTOS	TOTALMENTE EN DESACUERDO	EN DESACUERDO	DE ACUERDO	TOTALMENTE DE ACUERDO
30. Se evalúan todos los contenidos enseñados en el programa bilingüe	1	2	3	4
31. A la hora de evaluar, se tienen más en cuenta los contenidos que la expresión lingüística	1	2	3	4
32. Se evalúa también oralmente	1	2	3	4
33. Se practica la evaluación continua y final	1	2	3	4
Otro (especificar):	1	2	3	4

5. USO, COMPETENCIA Y DESARROLLO DE INGLÉS DE LOS PROFESORES EN CLASE

ASPECTOS	TOTALMENTE EN DESACUERDO	EN DESACUERDO	DE ACUERDO	TOTALMENTE DE ACUERDO
34. Mis profesores de lenguas extranjeras imparten sus clases con éxito	1	2	3	4
35. Mis profesores de asignaturas bilingües imparten sus clases con éxito	1	2	3	4
36. Mis auxiliares de conversación imparten sus clases con éxito	1	2	3	4
37. Mis profesores de lenguas extranjeras motivan al alumno	1	2	3	4
38. Mis profesores de asignaturas bilingües motivan al alumno	1	2	3	4
39. Mis auxiliares de conversación motivan al alumno	1	2	3	4
40. Mis auxiliares de conversación colaboran con éxito con los alumnos de la clase bilingüe	1	2	3	4
41. Mis profesores tienen una capacidad adecuada en comprensión y expresión orales en inglés	1	2	3	4
42. Mis profesores tienen una capacidad adecuada en comprensión y expresión escritas en inglés	1	2	3	4

43. Mis profesores tienen un conocimiento adecuado de aspectos socio-culturales en la lengua inglesa	1	2	3	4
Otro (especificar):	1	2	3	4

6. MOVILIDAD

ASPECTOS	TOTALMENTE EN DESACUERDO	EN DESACUERDO	DE ACUERDO	TOTALMENTE DE ACUERDO
44. He participado en programas de intercambio dentro del programa bilingüe	1	2	3	4
45. Mis profesores de la sección bilingüe fomentan la participación en programas de intercambio	1	2	3	4
46. Mi familia me anima a participar en programas de intercambio	1	2	3	4
Otro (especificar):	1	2	3	4

7. MEJORAS Y MOTIVACIÓN PARA EL APRENDIZAJE DE INGLÉS

ASPECTOS	TOTALMENTE EN DESACUERDO	EN DESACUERDO	DE ACUERDO	TOTALMENTE DE ACUERDO
47. Formar parte de una sección bilingüe compensa el incremento de trabajo que implica	1	2	3	4
48. Ha habido una mejoría general de mi aprendizaje de inglés debido a mi participación en un programa bilingüe	1	2	3	4
49. Mi motivación hacia el aprendizaje del inglés ha aumentado debido a mi participación en un programa bilingüe	1	2	3	4
50. Tengo un acceso adecuado a materiales en inglés fuera del centro	1	2	3	4
Otro (especificar):	1	2	3	4

MUCHAS GRACIAS POR TU COLABORACIÓN

Appendix III.

Teacher questionnaire

Proyecto MON-CLIL: Los Efectos del Aprendizaje Integrado de Contenidos y Lenguas Extranjeras en Comunidades Monolingües: Un Estudio Longitudinal

**Cuestionario
PROFESORADO**

1. CENTRO: _____
2. EDAD: _____
3. SEXO: ☐ Hombre ☐ Mujer
4. NACIONALIDAD: _____
5. TIPO DE PROFESORADO:
☐ Lengua extranjera
☐ Área no lingüística
☐ Auxiliar lingüístico
☐ Otro: _____
6. SITUACIÓN ADMINISTRATIVA:
☐ Funcionario/a con destino definitivo
☐ Funcionario/a con destino provisional
☐ Interino/a
☐ Otro: _____
7. SU NIVEL EN LA LENGUA EXTRANJERA QUE ENSEÑA ES:
☐ A1
☐ A2
☐ B1
☐ B2
☐ C1
☐ C2
8. ASIGNATURAS QUE ENSEÑA EN INGLÉS:
☐ Ciencias Naturales
☐ Ciencias Sociales
☐ Matemáticas
☐ Dibujo
☐ Música
☐ Educación Física
☐ Otro _____
9. EXPOSICIÓN AL INGLÉS DE LOS ALUMNOS DENTRO DEL PROGRAMA BILINGÜE:
¿Cuántas asignaturas se enseñan en inglés? _____
¿Qué porcentaje de cada asignatura se enseña en inglés? ☐ 30% ☐ 40% ☐ 50% ☐ Otro _____
10. ¿ES COORDINADOR/A DE SU SECCIÓN BILINGÜE? ☐ Sí ☐ No
11. EXPERIENCIA DOCENTE GENERAL:
☐ Menos de 1 año
☐ 1-10 años
☐ 11-20 años
☐ 21-30 años
☐ Más de 30 años
12. EXPERIENCIA DOCENTE EN UN CENTRO BILINGÜE:
☐ Menos de 1 año
☐ 1-5 años
☐ 6-10 años
☐ 11-15 años
☐ Más de 15 años

POR FAVOR, INDIQUE HASTA QUÉ PUNTO ESTÁ DE ACUERDO CON LOS SIGUIENTES ASPECTOS RELACIONADOS CON LA ENSEÑANZA BILINGÜE (1=Totalmente en desacuerdo; 2=En desacuerdo; 3=De acuerdo; 4=Totalmente de acuerdo).

1. USO, COMPETENCIA Y DESARROLLO DEL INGLÉS DE LOS ALUMNOS EN CLASE

ASPECTOS	TOTALMENTE EN DESACUERDO	EN DESACUERDO	DE ACUERDO	TOTALMENTE DE ACUERDO
1. Se desarrollan las competencias clave en clase	1	2	3	4
2. El inglés de mis alumnos ha mejorado debido a su participación en un programa bilingüe	1	2	3	4
4. El español de mis alumnos ha mejorado debido a su participación en un programa bilingüe	1	2	3	4
5. El conocimiento por parte de mis alumnos de los contenidos de las asignaturas enseñadas en inglés ha mejorado debido a su participación en un programa bilingüe	1	2	3	4
6. La comprensión de mis alumnos de cómo funcionan las lenguas ha mejorado debido a su participación en un programa bilingüe	1	2	3	4
7. La comprensión de la conexión entre el inglés y el español de mis alumnos ha mejorado debido a su participación en un programa bilingüe	1	2	3	4
8. Mis alumnos tienen más confianza en sí mismos dentro de la clase bilingüe	1	2	3	4
9. Mis alumnos son participativos en la clase bilingüe	1	2	3	4
10. Mis alumnos se interesan en la clase bilingüe	1	2	3	4
11. A mis alumnos les gustaría más uso del inglés dentro de la clase bilingüe	1	2	3	4
12. Mis alumnos tienen una capacidad adecuada en comprensión y expresión orales en la lengua extranjera	1	2	3	4
13. Mis alumnos tienen una capacidad adecuada en comprensión y expresión escritas en la lengua extranjera	1	2	3	4
14. Mis alumnos tienen un conocimiento adecuado de aspectos socio-culturales y una conciencia intercultural en la lengua extranjera	1	2	3	4
Otro (especificar):	1	2	3	4

2. METODOLOGÍA

ASPECTOS	TOTALMENTE EN DESACUERDO	EN DESACUERDO	DE ACUERDO	TOTALMENTE DE ACUERDO
15. Se utiliza el aprendizaje basado en tareas en clase	1	2	3	4
16. Se utiliza el aprendizaje basado en proyectos en clase	1	2	3	4
17. Se da prioridad a la dimensión léxica en la clase bilingüe	1	2	3	4
18. Se utiliza aprendizaje cooperativo en la clase bilingüe	1	2	3	4
19. Se enfatiza la conexión entre la L1 y la L2	1	2	3	4
20. Se siguen las recomendaciones del Marco Común Europeo de Referencia	1	2	3	4
21. Se siguen las recomendaciones del Portfolio Europeo de Lenguas	1	2	3	4
Otro (especificar):	1	2	3	4

3. MATERIALES Y RECURSOS

ASPECTOS	TOTALMENTE EN DESACUERDO	EN DESACUERDO	DE ACUERDO	TOTALMENTE DE ACUERDO
22. Se utilizan materiales auténticos para la enseñanza bilingüe	1	2	3	4
23. Se adaptan materiales auténticos para la enseñanza bilingüe	1	2	3	4
24. Los materiales para la enseñanza bilingüe son interesantes e innovadores	1	2	3	4
25. Los profesores de la sección bilingüe colaboran para preparar y enseñar los materiales de enseñanza bilingüe en clase	1	2	3	4
26. Los materiales de enseñanza bilingüe siguen principios comunicativos	1	2	3	4
27. Los materiales de enseñanza bilingüe están adaptados para atender las necesidades de todos los alumnos	1	2	3	4
28. Se utilizan materiales multimedia (<i>software</i>) en clase	1	2	3	4
29. Se utilizan materiales de referencia <i>online</i> en clase	1	2	3	4
30. Se utilizan <i>blogs</i> , <i>Wikis</i> (herramientas Web 2.0) y <i>webquests</i> en clase	1	2	3	4
31. Se utilizan pizarras electrónicas interactivas en clase	1	2	3	4
32. Se utiliza comunicación mediada por ordenador en clase (e.g., <i>e-Twinning</i>)	1	2	3	4

33. Los materiales incluyen algunas pautas en español para que los padres puedan ayudar a sus hijos en casa				
Otro (especificar):	1	2	3	4

4. EVALUACIÓN

ASPECTOS	TOTALMENTE EN DESACUERDO	EN DESACUERDO	DE ACUERDO	TOTALMENTE DE ACUERDO
34. Se evalúan todos los contenidos enseñados en el programa bilingüe	1	2	3	4
35. A la hora de evaluar, se da prioridad al dominio de los contenidos frente a la competencia lingüística	1	2	3	4
36. A la hora de evaluar, se incluye un componente oral	1	2	3	4
37. Se practica la evaluación diversificada, formativa, sumativa y holística	1	2	3	4
Otro (especificar):	1	2	3	4

5. FORMACIÓN DEL PROFESORADO

ASPECTOS	TOTALMENTE EN DESACUERDO	EN DESACUERDO	DE ACUERDO	TOTALMENTE DE ACUERDO
38. Los profesores de lengua extranjera necesitan más formación	1	2	3	4
39. Los profesores de áreas no lingüísticas necesitan más formación	1	2	3	4
40. Los auxiliares lingüísticos necesitan más formación	1	2	3	4
41. Los profesores de lengua extranjera motivan al alumno en su aprendizaje del inglés	1	2	3	4
42. Los profesores de áreas no lingüísticas motivan al alumno en su aprendizaje del inglés	1	2	3	4
43. Los auxiliares lingüísticos motivan al alumno en su aprendizaje del inglés	1	2	3	4
44. Los auxiliares lingüísticos colaboran con éxito con los alumnos de la clase bilingüe	1	2	3	4
45. Los auxiliares lingüísticos colaboran con éxito con los otros profesores de la sección bilingüe	1	2	3	4
46. Tengo una capacidad adecuada en comprensión y expresión orales en inglés	1	2	3	4

47. Tengo una capacidad adecuada en comprensión y expresión escritas en inglés	1	2	3	4
48. Tengo un conocimiento adecuado de aspectos socio-culturales y una conciencia intercultural sobre la LE	1	2	3	4
49. Tengo conocimiento del plan de fomento del plurilingüismo de mi comunidad autónoma: objetivos, acciones, pilares, y marco legislativo	1	2	3	4
50. Tengo conocimiento de los principios básicos del Aprendizaje Integrado de Contenidos y Lenguas Extranjeras dentro de la educación bilingüe	1	2	3	4
51. He participado en formación sobre el Aprendizaje Integrado de Contenidos y Lenguas Extranjeras	1	2	3	4
52. He realizado cursos de actualización lingüística en las EOI	1	2	3	4
Otro (especificar):	1	2	3	4

6. MOVILIDAD

ASPECTOS	TOTALMENTE EN DESACUERDO	EN DESACUERDO	DE ACUERDO	TOTALMENTE DE ACUERDO
53. He participado en programas de intercambio dentro de la sección bilingüe	1	2	3	4
54. He participado en cursos lingüísticos en el extranjero	1	2	3	4
55. He participado en cursos metodológicos en el extranjero	1	2	3	4
56. He obtenido licencias de estudios/investigación	1	2	3	4
Otro (especificar):	1	2	3	4

7. COORDINACIÓN Y ORGANIZACIÓN

ASPECTOS	TOTALMENTE EN DESACUERDO	EN DESACUERDO	DE ACUERDO	TOTALMENTE DE ACUERDO
57. Formar parte de una sección bilingüe compensa el incremento de trabajo que implica	1	2	3	4
58. Colaboro en la elaboración, adaptación e implementación del Currículo Integrado de las Lenguas	1	2	3	4
59. Cumpro con o el/la coordinador/a de la sección bilingüe cumple con todas mis/sus funciones dentro del Plan de Fomento del Plurilingüismo	1	2	3	4

60. Me comunico o el/la coordinador/a se comunica con otros centros bilingües y los/las coordinadores/as provinciales	1	2	3	4
61. Se recibe un apoyo adecuado de las autoridades educativas	1	2	3	4
Otro (especificar):	1	2	3	4

MUCHAS GRACIAS POR SU COLABORACIÓN

Appendix IV.

Parent questionnaire

Proyecto MON-CLIL: Los Efectos del Aprendizaje Integrado de Contenidos y Lenguas Extranjeras en Comunidades Monolingües: Un Estudio Longitudinal

Cuestionario

PADRES Y MADRES

PADRES Y MADRES

1. CENTRO EN EL QUE ESTÁ ESCOLARIZADO SU HIJO: _____
2. CURSO DE SU HIJO: ☐ 6º EP ☐ 4º ESO
3. EDAD: _____
4. SEXO: ☐ Hombre ☐ Mujer
5. NACIONALIDAD: _____
6. NIVEL DE ESTUDIOS:
- ☐ Sin estudios
- ☐ Título de Graduado Escolar
- ☐ Título de Bachiller
- ☐ Título de Formación Profesional
- ☐ Diplomatura Universitaria
- ☐ Licenciatura Universitaria
- ☐ Doctorado

POR FAVOR, INDIQUE HASTA QUÉ PUNTO ESTÁ DE ACUERDO CON LOS SIGUIENTES ASPECTOS RELACIONADOS CON LA ENSEÑANZA BILINGÜE (1=Totalmente en desacuerdo; 2=En desacuerdo; 3=De acuerdo; 4=Totalmente de acuerdo).

1. USO, COMPETENCIA Y DESARROLLO DEL INGLÉS DE LOS ALUMNOS EN CLASE

ASPECTOS	TOTALMENTE EN DESACUERDO	EN DESACUERDO	DE ACUERDO	TOTALMENTE DE ACUERDO
1. El nivel de inglés de mi hijo/a ha mejorado debido a su participación en un programa bilingüe	1	2	3	4
2. El español de mi hijo/a ha mejorado debido a su participación en un programa bilingüe	1	2	3	4
3. El conocimiento por parte de mi hijo/a de los contenidos de las asignaturas enseñadas en inglés ha mejorado debido a su participación en un programa bilingüe	1	2	3	4
4. A mi hijo/a le resulta más difícil aprender los contenidos de las asignaturas enseñadas en inglés	1	2	3	4
5. La comprensión de la conexión entre el inglés y el español por parte de mi hijo/a ha mejorado debido a su participación en un programa bilingüe	1	2	3	4
6. Mi hijo/a tiene más confianza en sí mismo con respecto a las lenguas	1	2	3	4
7. Mi hijo/a tiene una capacidad adecuada en comprensión y expresión orales en inglés	1	2	3	4
8. Mi hijo/a tiene una capacidad adecuada en comprensión y expresión escritas en inglés	1	2	3	4

9. Mi hijo/a tiene un conocimiento adecuado de aspectos socio-culturales y una conciencia intercultural sobre el inglés	1	2	3	4
Otro (especificar):	1	2	3	4

2. METODOLOGÍA

ASPECTOS	TOTALMENTE EN DESACUERDO	EN DESACUERDO	DE ACUERDO	TOTALMENTE DE ACUERDO
10. Mi hijo/a aprende mucho vocabulario dentro de la clase bilingüe	1	2	3	4
11. Se utilizan metodologías más innovadoras y centradas en el estudiante en la clase bilingüe	1	2	3	4
12. Soy capaz de ayudar a mi hijo/a con los deberes de enseñanza bilingüe	1	2	3	4
Otro (especificar):	1	2	3	4

3. MATERIALES Y RECURSOS

ASPECTOS	TOTALMENTE EN DESACUERDO	EN DESACUERDO	DE ACUERDO	TOTALMENTE DE ACUERDO
13. Los materiales para la enseñanza bilingüe son interesantes e innovadores	1	2	3	4
14. Los materiales de enseñanza bilingüe fomentan la comunicación en inglés dentro y fuera de la clase	1	2	3	4
15. Los materiales de enseñanza bilingüe están adaptados para atender las necesidades de todos los alumnos	1	2	3	4
16. Se utilizan más las nuevas tecnologías en la enseñanza bilingüe	1	2	3	4
17. Los materiales para la educación bilingüe tienen un precio más elevado	1	2	3	4
18. Los materiales incluyen algunas pautas en español para que pueda ayudar a mi hijo/a en casa	1	2	3	4
19. Mi hijo/a está expuesto/a al inglés fuera del centro	1	2	3	4
20. Mi hijo/a tiene un acceso adecuado a materiales en inglés fuera del centro	1	2	3	4
Otro (especificar):	1	2	3	4

4. EVALUACIÓN

ASPECTOS	TOTALMENTE EN DESACUERDO	EN DESACUERDO	DE ACUERDO	TOTALMENTE DE ACUERDO
21. La evaluación en los programas bilingües es adecuada	1	2	3	4
22. Se hacen exámenes periódicamente para evaluar todos los contenidos enseñados en el programa bilingüe	1	2	3	4
23. Se evalúa también oralmente	1	2	3	4
24. A la hora de evaluar los profesores toman más en cuenta el aprendizaje de los contenidos que la competencia en inglés	1	2	3	4
25. Mi hijo/a ha alcanzado mejores resultados formando parte del programa bilingüe	1	2	3	4
Otro (especificar):	1	2	3	4

5. FORMACIÓN E INFORMACIÓN

ASPECTOS	TOTALMENTE EN DESACUERDO	EN DESACUERDO	DE ACUERDO	TOTALMENTE DE ACUERDO
26. Los profesores de mi hijo/a tienen una capacidad adecuada en comprensión y expresión orales en inglés	1	2	3	4
27. Los profesores de mi hijo/a tienen una capacidad adecuada en comprensión y expresión escritas en inglés	1	2	3	4
28. Los profesores de mi hijo/a tienen un conocimiento adecuado de aspectos socio-culturales y una conciencia intercultural sobre la lengua extranjera	1	2	3	4
29. Conozco el funcionamiento del programa bilingüe en el centro de mi hijo/a	1	2	3	4
30. Estoy bien informado/a sobre el plan de fomento del plurilingüismo de la comunidad autónoma: objetivos, acciones, pilares y marco legislativo	1	2	3	4
31. Estoy bien informado/a sobre los principios básicos del Aprendizaje Integrado de Contenidos y Lenguas Extranjeras dentro de la educación bilingüe	1	2	3	4
Otro (especificar):	1	2	3	4

6. MOVILIDAD

ASPECTOS	TOTALMENTE EN DESACUERDO	EN DESACUERDO	DE ACUERDO	TOTALMENTE DE ACUERDO
32. Mi hijo/a ha participado en programas de intercambio / lingüísticos	1	2	3	4
33. Considero que participar en programas de intercambio / lingüísticos es beneficioso para mi hijo/a	1	2	3	4
34. Animo a mi hijo a participar en programas de intercambio / lingüísticos	1	2	3	4
Otro (especificar):	1	2	3	4

7. MEJORAS Y MOTIVACIÓN PARA EL APRENDIZAJE DEL INGLÉS

ASPECTOS	TOTALMENTE EN DESACUERDO	EN DESACUERDO	DE ACUERDO	TOTALMENTE DE ACUERDO
35. Formar parte de una sección bilingüe compensa el incremento de trabajo que implica	1	2	3	4
36. Ha habido una mejoría general del aprendizaje del inglés por parte de mi hijo/a debido a la participación en un programa bilingüe	1	2	3	4
37. Mi propia motivación hacia el aprendizaje del inglés ha aumentado debido a la participación de mi hijo/a en un programa bilingüe	1	2	3	4
38. La motivación de mi hijo/a hacia el aprendizaje del inglés ha aumentado debido a su participación en un programa bilingüe	1	2	3	4
39. Me comunico regularmente con los profesores de mi hijo para ver su evolución dentro del programa bilingüe	1	2	3	4
40. Valoro positivamente el programa bilingüe	1	2	3	4
Otro (especificar):	1	2	3	4

MUCHAS GRACIAS POR SU COLABORACIÓN

Appendix V.

Student interview protocol

**Proyecto MON-CLIL: Los Efectos del Aprendizaje Integrado de Contenidos y Lenguas
Extranjeras en Comunidades Monolingües: Un Estudio Longitudinal**

Protocolo de entrevistas

ALUMNADO

1. CENTRO: _____
2. CURSO: ☐ 6º EP ☐ 4º ESO
3. EDAD: _____
4. SEXO: ☐ Hombre ☐ Mujer
5. NACIONALIDAD: _____

1) USO DE LA L2 EN CLASE

¿Consideras que el nivel de inglés de tus profesores es adecuado para participar en el programa bilingüe?

¿En qué porcentaje dirías que se utiliza el inglés en clase?

¿Consideras que tu nivel de inglés ha mejorado como consecuencia de tu participación en el programa bilingüe?

¿Es más difícil aprender los contenidos de las asignaturas enseñadas en inglés?

¿Consideras que eres participativo en clase y utilizas el inglés para ello?

2) DESARROLLO DE LA L2 EN CLASE: FUNCIONES DISCURSIVAS

¿Para qué funciones discursivas se utiliza el inglés en clase: *transmisivas* o *interaccionales*?

EJEMPLOS: *Dar instrucciones*

Introducir el tema

Transmitir contenidos

Realizar actividades

Aclarar dudas y explicar dificultades

Formular preguntas

Corregir tareas

Consolidar y repasar conocimientos

Organizar la clase con distintos tipos de agrupamiento

Interactuar con el alumnado/profesorado

Suministrar feedback sobre las actuaciones de clase

3) DESARROLLO DE COMPETENCIAS EN CLASE

¿Qué competencias *-lingüísticas, interculturales y genéricas-* consideras que desarrolláis en clase?

EJEMPLOS: *Comprensión oral*

Comprensión escrita

Expresión oral

Expresión escrita

La interacción comunicativa oral (listening+speaking)

La interacción comunicativa escrita (reading+writing)

Capacidad crítica

Creatividad

Autonomía en el aprendizaje

Conciencia metalingüística

Conciencia intercultural

4) METODOLOGÍA Y TIPOS DE AGRUPAMIENTO

¿Qué metodologías, tipos de agrupamiento y actividades empleáis en clase? ¿Dirías que son tradicionales o innovadores / basadas en el profesor o centradas en el alumno / que movilizan de procesos cognitivos de nivel bajo o más complejos?

EJEMPLOS: *Aprendizaje basado en tareas*

Aprendizaje basado en proyectos

Aprendizaje cooperativo

Enfoque léxico

CEFR

ELP

Trabajo con toda la clase

Trabajo en grupos

Trabajo en parejas

Trabajo autónomo

Actividades abiertas vs. de respuesta única

Actividades que implican memorizar, comprender y aplicar vs. analizar, evaluar y crear

5) MATERIALES Y RECURSOS

¿Qué materiales y recursos empleáis en clase?

EJEMPLOS: *Materiales auténticos*

Materiales adaptados

Materiales originales

Libro de texto

Software específico

Recursos online

Blogs

Wikis

Webquests

Pizarra electrónica

e-Twinning

6) COORDINACIÓN Y ORGANIZACIÓN

¿Existe suficiente comunicación y coordinación entre tus profesores?

7) EVALUACIÓN

¿Cómo realiza la evaluación en clase? Qué instrumentos y criterios se utilizan? ¿Qué importancia se da a los aspectos lingüísticos (la L2) y a los contenidos de las materias? ¿Qué aspectos cuentan más en la calificación? ¿En qué porcentaje cuentan unos y otros?

EJEMPLOS: *De forma holística / formativa /sumativa /diversificada*

En inglés y español

Primando contenido/lengua

Con énfasis en los aspectos orales/escritos

Fomentando la autoevaluación (e.g., a través del Portfolio Europeo de Lenguas)

8) FORMACIÓN DEL PROFESORADO Y MOVILIDAD

¿Consideras que tus profesores tienen suficiente formación para participar en un programa bilingüe?

¿Has participado en algún programa de intercambio? Si es así, ¿te resultó beneficioso?

¿Te ha animado tu familia a que participes en ellos?

9) MOTIVACIÓN Y CARGA DE TRABAJO

¿Consideras que participar en un programa bilingüe ha incrementado tu carga de trabajo?

¿Ha merecido la pena? ¿Estás más motivado?

10) VALORACIÓN GLOBAL

¿Cuáles son las principales dificultades que has encontrado al participar en un programa bilingüe?

¿Y las principales ventajas?

¿Cómo lo valoras de modo global?

Appendix VI.

Teacher interview protocol

Proyecto MON-CLIL: Los Efectos del Aprendizaje Integrado de Contenidos y Lenguas Extranjeras en Comunidades Monolingües: Un Estudio Longitudinal

Protocolo de entrevistas

PROFESORADO

1. CENTRO: _____
2. CURSO: ☐ 6º EP ☐ 4º ESO
3. ASIGNATURA: _____
4. TIPO DE PROFESORADO:
 - ☐ Lengua extranjera
 - ☐ Área no lingüística
 - ☐ Auxiliar lingüístico
5. ¿ES COORDINADOR/A DE SU SECCIÓN BILINGÜE? ☐ Sí ☐ No
6. EDAD: _____
7. SEXO: ☐ Hombre ☐ Mujer
8. NACIONALIDAD: _____
9. SITUACIÓN ADMINISTRATIVA:
 - ☐ Funcionario/a con destino definitivo
 - ☐ Funcionario/a con destino provisional
 - ☐ Interino/a
 - ☐ Otro: _____
10. SU NIVEL EN LA LENGUA EXTRANJERA QUE ENSEÑA ES:
 - ☐ A1
 - ☐ A2
 - ☐ B1
 - ☐ B2
 - ☐ C1
 - ☐ C2
11. EXPERIENCIA DOCENTE GENERAL:
 - ☐ Menos de 1 año
 - ☐ 1-10 años
 - ☐ 11-20 años
 - ☐ 21-30 años
 - ☐ Más de 30 años
12. EXPERIENCIA DOCENTE EN UN CENTRO BILINGÜE:
 - ☐ Menos de 1 año
 - ☐ 1-5 años
 - ☐ 6-10 años
 - ☐ 11-15 años
 - ☐ Más de 15 años

1) USO DE LA L2 EN CLASE

¿Considera que su nivel de inglés es adecuado para participar en el programa bilingüe?

¿En qué porcentaje diría que utiliza usted el inglés en clase?

¿Considera que el inglés de sus alumnos ha mejorado como consecuencia de su participación en el programa bilingüe?

¿Considera que el conocimiento por parte de sus alumnos de los contenidos de las asignaturas enseñadas en inglés ha mejorado debido a su participación en un programa bilingüe?

¿Considera que sus alumnos son participativos en clase y utilizan el inglés para ello?

2) DESARROLLO DE LA L2 EN CLASE: FUNCIONES DISCURSIVAS

¿Para qué funciones discursivas utiliza el inglés en clase: *transmisivas* o *interaccionales*?

EJEMPLOS: *Dar instrucciones*

Introducir el tema

Transmitir contenidos

Realizar actividades

Aclarar dudas y explicar dificultades

Formular preguntas

Corregir tareas

Consolidar y repasar conocimientos

Organizar la clase con distintos tipos de agrupamiento

Interactuar con el alumnado/profesorado

Suministrar feedback sobre las actuaciones de clase

3) DESARROLLO DE COMPETENCIAS EN CLASE

¿Qué competencias-lingüísticas, interculturales y genéricas- considera que desarrolla en clase?

EJEMPLOS: *Comprensión oral*

Comprensión escrita

Expresión oral

Expresión escrita

La interacción comunicativa oral (listening+speaking)

La interacción comunicativa escrita (reading+writing)

Capacidad crítica

Creatividad

Autonomía en el aprendizaje

Conciencia metalingüística

Conciencia intercultural

4) METODOLOGÍA Y TIPOS DE AGRUPAMIENTO

¿Qué metodologías, tipos de agrupamiento y actividades emplea en clase? ¿Diría que son tradicionales o innovadores / basadas en el profesor o centradas en el alumno / que movilizan de procesos cognitivos de nivel bajo o más complejos?

EJEMPLOS: *Aprendizaje basado en tareas*

Aprendizaje basado en proyectos

Aprendizaje cooperativo

Enfoque léxico

CEFR

ELP

Trabajo con toda la clase

Trabajo en grupos

Trabajo en parejas

Trabajo autónomo

Actividades abiertas vs. de respuesta única

Actividades que implican memorizar, comprender y aplicar vs. analizar, evaluar y crear

5) MATERIALES Y RECURSOS

¿Qué materiales y recursos emplea en su clase?

EJEMPLOS: *Materiales auténticos*

Materiales adaptados

Materiales originales

Libro de texto

Software específico

Recursos online

Blogs

Wikis

Webquests

Pizarra electrónica

e-Twinning

6) COORDINACIÓN Y ORGANIZACIÓN

¿Considera que está desarrollando el Currículo Integrado de Lenguas?

¿Existe suficiente comunicación y coordinación entre el profesorado implicado en el programa bilingüe? ¿Y con el coordinador bilingüe?

¿Se recibe apoyo adecuado del centro, del claustro y de las autoridades educativas?

7) EVALUACIÓN

¿Cómo realiza la evaluación en su clase? ¿Qué instrumentos y criterios utiliza? ¿Qué importancia le da a los aspectos lingüísticos (la L2) y a los contenidos de las materias? ¿Qué aspectos cuentan más en la calificación? ¿En qué porcentaje cuentan unos y otros?

EJEMPLOS: *De forma holística / formativa /sumativa /diversificada*

En inglés y español

Primando contenido/lengua

Con énfasis en los aspectos orales/escritos

Fomentando la autoevaluación (e.g., a través del Portfolio Europeo de Lenguas)

8) FORMACIÓN DEL PROFESORADO Y MOVILIDAD

¿Considera que su formación es adecuada para participar en un programa bilingüe?

¿En qué iniciativas de formación / movilidad ha participado?

¿En cuáles cree que le sería beneficioso participar?

EJEMPLOS: *Curso lingüísticos*

Cursos metodológicos

Programas de intercambio

Licencias de estudio/investigación

¿En qué aspectos del AICLE cree que requiere más formación?

EJEMPLOS: *Bases teóricas del AICLE*

Plan de Fomento del Plurilingüismo

Aspectos lingüísticos

Aspectos interculturales

Metodologías centradas en el estudiante

Uso de las TIC

Investigación en el aula

Investigación sobre los efectos del AICLE

9) MOTIVACIÓN Y CARGA DE TRABAJO

¿Considera que participar en un programa bilingüe ha incrementado su carga de trabajo?

¿Ha merecido la pena? ¿Está más motivado?

¿Considera que sus alumnos están más motivados como resultado de su participación en el programa bilingüe?

10) VALORACIÓN GLOBAL

¿Cuáles cree que son las principales dificultades en el correcto desarrollo del programa bilingüe en su centro?

¿Y sus principales fortalezas?

¿Cómo lo valora de modo global?

Appendix VII.

English test

ENGLISH TEST
SECONDARY EDUCATION, 4TH GRADE

Centro: _____; Curso: ____; Fecha: ____ / ____ / 20____
Apellidos, Nombre: _____; Sexo: H ☐ / M ☐

Use of English: /44

A. Rewrite these questions using the correct word order:

- (1) long the how programme does last?
_____?
- (2) to radio Sunday did listen the last you?
_____?
- (3) of do like kind which programme you?
_____?
- (4) loud too radio the is why?
_____?

B. Change these sentences into the active. Example: Pictures are transmitted by television → *Television transmits pictures.*

- (5) The transmission can be interrupted by high mountains.
High mountains _____.
- (6) How can this problem be solved?
How can we _____?
- (7) Other transmitters can be built on the top of the hills.
We can _____.
- (8) The waves are changed into sound by the aerial.
The aerial _____.

C. (9-18) Complete the text with the verbs in the past tense:

Yesterday Aunt Betty _____ (lose) her glasses. She _____ (can) find them. "Help me!", she _____ (ask). "O.K.", I _____ (reply). "Remember where you _____ (put) them". "Yes, now what _____ (do) I do? I _____ (come) into the house. I _____ (take) off my coat. Tibby _____ (want) some food. I _____ (give) him some". At last she found her glasses.

D. (19-28) Complete these sentences with: *anything/something; tell/say* (in the right form); *bring/take* (in the right form):

- Do you mean to _____ me that you're going out with Chelo AGAIN??!
- Can you _____ a bottle of wine to my party, please? Thanks.
- Did you speak to him? Yes, but I didn't understand a word he _____!
- I'm so nervous! I've got an exam tomorrow, and I can't remember _____!
- If you go to Scotland, _____ some warm clothing with you!
- Come here: there's _____ I want to _____ you.
- Last month he _____ a break for a week.
- Do you understand _____ about car engines?
- Yesterday he _____ to me: "I'm not going to drive tomorrow. I'll walk".

E. Underline the right words in brackets:

(29/30) If I (*lived / am living*) in London, (*I'd go / I'll go*) to the theatre every week.

(31/32) If we (*went / go*) to Madrid, (*we'll visit / we visit*) you.

(33/34) If my father (*has / had*) a car, he (*would travel / travelling*) a lot.

(35/36) If I (*am / were*) you, I (*wouldn't / will*) eat so much.

F. (37-44) Complete this text with the correct forms –the PAST (for example, *went*) or the PRESENT PERFECT (for example, *has gone*)– of the verbs in brackets:

I'm feeling terribly hungry, because I _____ (not, have) my lunch yet. I _____ (have) breakfast four hours ago, at 8 o'clock, and I _____ (not, have) anything since then. So you can imagine how I feel. I have a lot of work to do these days: yesterday I _____ (stay) at the office until half past seven! I _____ (never, do) that before, but my boss _____ (want) me to finish the report I was writing. Luckily I _____ (finish) it on time, so I _____ (be) able to get home in time to see the football on TV.

Vocabulary: /15

G. Complete this text using one of the following words and expressions: ON YOUR OWN, OVERCOME, QUIT, CUT DOWN, IMPROVE, HEALTH, WILL POWER, HARM.

If you want to keep your **(45)** _____, it is important to **(46)** _____ smoking or at least to **(47)** _____: let's say from twenty to ten or five cigarettes a day. Even if you only reduce by three a day, your health will **(48)** _____. It isn't easy, of course; you need a lot of **(49)** _____, and you will need to **(50)** _____ the temptation to start smoking again. But keep at it! Smoking does you tremendous **(51)** _____: so quit now!

H. (52-59) Match symbol and text:

1		A. Hot water to all washbasins
2		B. Tents admitted (with number of pitches and rates)
3		C. Shaver points
4		D. Dogs admitted on lead
5		E. Sailing from site
6		F. Riding/pony trekking from site
7		G. Indoor heated swimming pool on site
8		H. Fishing at site

1: ____; 2: ____; 3: ____; 4: ____; 5: ____; 6: ____; 7: ____; 8: ____

Listening: /7

I. You will hear two news presenters. You must listen and circle the correct answer. You will hear the news report twice.

(60) The news report takes place on

- A. Thursday 8th February B. Tuesday 8th February
C. Thursday 18th February D. Thursday 18th January

(61) Which sentence is true?

- A. Babies are fatter than before B. Five-year-old children are fatter than before
C. Babies are thinner than before D. Five-year-old children are thinner than before

(62) What have children stopped doing?

A	B	C	D
			

(63) How much money will Peter possibly earn in total?

- A. 50,000 dollars B. 150,000 dollars
C. 165,000 dollars D. 200,000 dollars

(64) What instrument does Peter play now?

A	B	C	D
			

(65) What is Kirstie's profession at present?

- A. A model B. An actress
C. A hockey player D. A flight attendant

(66) Where is Kirstie living now?

- A. In Australia B. In New Zealand
C. In London D. In Manchester

Reading: /6

J. Read the following text and circle the correct answer:

BODY TALK

A smile, a frown, a handshake or a kiss. All of these actions are part of our everyday communication and make up what is commonly known as "body language". Even though we might not know it, we are constantly sending messages with our bodies without speaking. Some researchers believe that our body language makes up to sixty percent of all of our face-to-face communication and it has been shown that it plays an important role in key areas of our lives, including our success in job interviews, understanding what people are saying, making friends and falling in love. But what are the keys to body language? Here are some examples.

Paragraph A

Hitting someone in the face is a very obvious example of aggressive body language; but there are more subtle forms of showing your aggression. If you look at someone directly in the eyes, frown, and lean forward, you are showing the other person that you do not agree with them and that you probably do not like what they are saying. If you cross your arms or you legs, you are showing a defensive posture. Similarly, if you avoid eye contact with someone, you might be unconsciously telling them that you do not want to tell them the truth.

Paragraph B

It might seem unfair, but the success of a job interview often depends on the first few seconds of the interview and during these initial moments your body is giving many important signals. In an interview situation, apart from dressing well, it is important to move with confidence, not too fast and not too slow. You should also have a pleasant facial expression and try to show positive signs like interest, not boredom or nervousness.

Paragraph C

For many people, one of the most important aspects of body language is the communication of your feelings towards another person. Common signs of romantic love can be observed when two people smile at each other, sit or stand close together and look at each other for longer periods of time than usual.

Paragraph D

So what can we do to improve communication with our bodies? Firstly, it is important to be conscious of our own body language and, in certain situations, to try to control it. We should also try to observe the other person as we pay attention to what they are saying in order to understand not only the words, but also the feelings that they are expressing.

* * *

(67) Which title is best for each the paragraphs?

First impressions	A	B	C	D
Attack or defence	A	B	C	D
How to use body language	A	B	C	D
I love you	A	B	C	D

(68) According to the text, in which situation is body language useful?

- A. When you are speaking to another person on the phone
- B. When you are writing a job application
- C. When you are speaking in the presence of another person
- D. When you are playing a role

(69) If a person does not look at you, it is possible that s/he

A. is lying to you	B. is in love with you
C. is confident	D. is being aggressive

(70) In an interview,

- A. What you wear is not important
- B. Your body language is crucial
- C. You should remember to cross your legs
- D. You should have a neutral expression

(71) According to the text, looking at another person for a long time can be a sign of

A. Indifference	B. Affection
C. Self-defence	D. Boredom

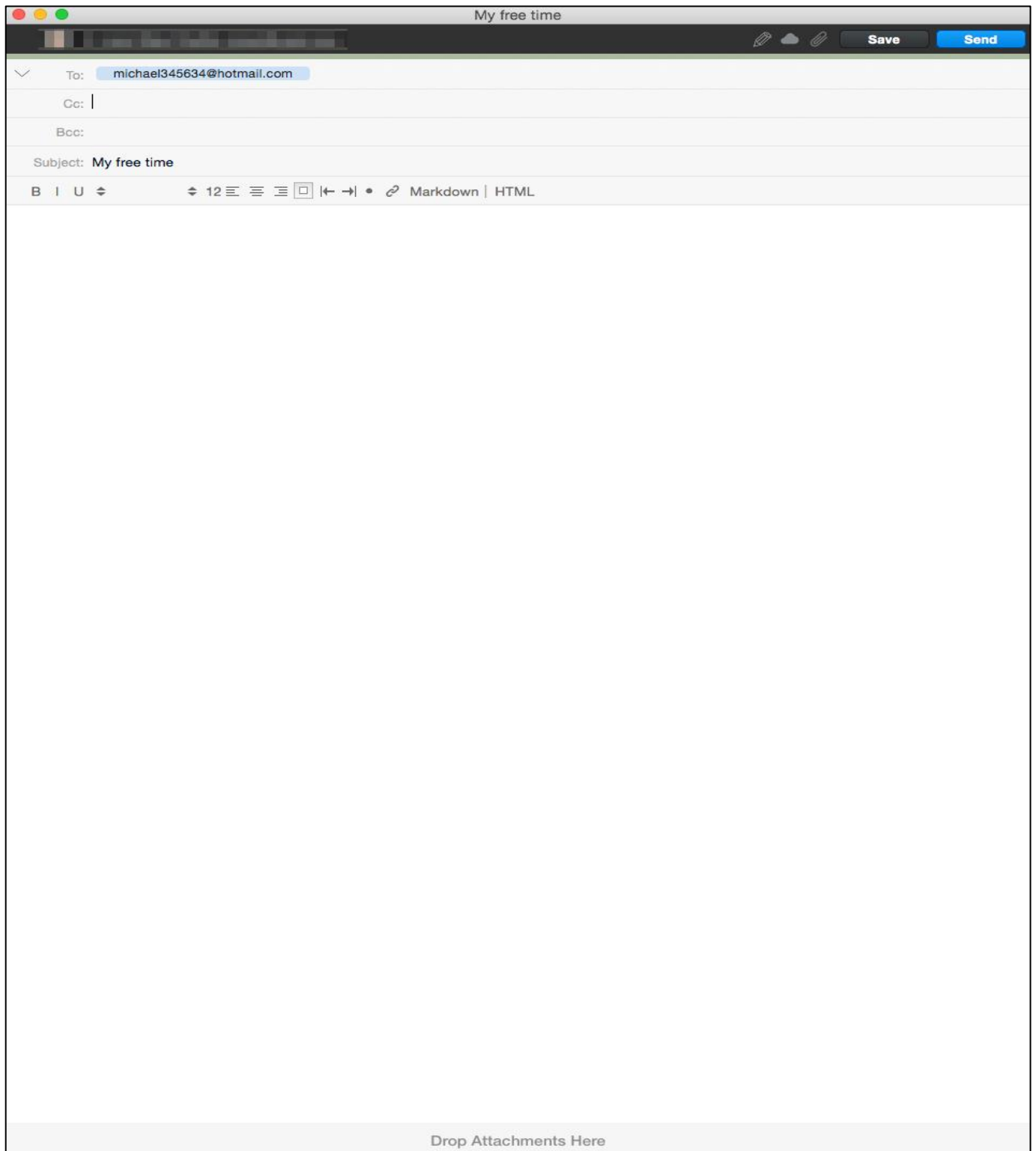
(72) When using body language, it is useful to

A. Avoid prolonged eye contact	B. Show that you are not nervous
C. Be in control all the time	D. Look and listen to the other person

Writing: /14

K. (73-86) You receive an e-mail from an English friend, Michael. Here is part of the e-mail: *I have just started to do karate. It's great! I go every Tuesday and Thursday. What about you? What do you do in your free time?*

Answer Michael's e-mail in the space provided below:



The image shows a screenshot of an email composition window. The title bar at the top says "My free time". Below the title bar, there are icons for undo, redo, and attachments, followed by "Save" and "Send" buttons. The email header fields are: "To: michael345634@hotmail.com", "Cc: ", and "Bcc: ". The "Subject: My free time" field is also present. Below the header, there is a rich text editor toolbar with buttons for bold (B), italic (I), underline (U), and a list of icons for text alignment, bulleted list, numbered list, and link. The text area is large and empty. At the bottom, there is a light gray bar with the text "Drop Attachments Here".

Speaking: /14

L. (87-100) In pairs.

Appendix VIII.

FL skills tests assessment criteria

ENGLISH TEST (Key)
SECONDARY EDUCATION, 4TH GRADE

Use of English

A.

- (1) How long does the programme last?
- (2) Did you listen to the radio last Sunday?
- (3) Which kind of programme do you like?
- (4) Why is the radio too loud?

B.

- (5) High mountains can interrupt the transmission.
- (6) How can we solve this problem?
- (7) We can build other transmitters on the top of the hills.
- (8) The aerial changes the waves into sound.

C.

- (9) lost
- (10) couldn't
- (11) asked
- (12) replied
- (13) put
- (14) did
- (15) came
- (16) took
- (17) wanted
- (18) gave

D.

- (19) tell
- (20) bring
- (21) said
- (22) anything
- (23) take
- (24) something
- (25) tell
- (26) took
- (27) anything
- (28) said

E.

- (29)** lived
- (30)** I'd go
- (31)** go
- (32)** we'll visit
- (33)** had
- (34)** would travel
- (35)** were
- (36)** wouldn't

F.

- (37)** haven't had
- (38)** had
- (39)** haven't had
- (40)** stayed
- (41)** have never done
- (42)** wanted
- (43)** finished
- (44)** was

Vocabulary

G.

- (45)** health
- (46)** quit
- (47)** cut down
- (48)** improve
- (49)** will power
- (50)** overcome
- (51)** harm

H. (52) 1B

- (53)** 2A
- (54)** 3F
- (55)** 4E
- (56)** 5C
- (57)** 6H
- (58)** 7D
- (59)** 8G

Listening

I.

- (60) C
- (61) B
- (62) C
- (63) D
- (64) A
- (65) B
- (66) C

Transcript (news presenter):

Hello! This is John McDonald and Vanessa Jones. It's Thursday the 18th of February and here is the news for today.

First. According to scientists, children are fatter than 25 years ago. According to experts, babies are born the same weight but by the time they are 5, they are heavier than before. The reasons for children being fatter are that they are eating a lot more and they have a less active health-style, preferring to play video games, watching TV or using the computer rather than taking exercise.

Our next story takes us to America, where Peter Johnston, an economics student at Virginia University, has just won a contract for 50,000 dollars at a famous music company and will possibly earn an extra 150,000 dollars next year. The student, who is not a professional musician, posted a song on YouTube and was seen by one of the music company bosses. Peter used to play the drums and the saxophone and now likes to sing and play the guitar. Peter says the contract has changed his life. Now, he says, he is able to pay the fees for his university and buy a new keyboard, although he still can't play this instrument. But first, he is going to fly to the Island of Cuba, where his song was inspired.

Finally, hockey is in the news as Kirstie McCullough, the star in the new film *How to be a Model*, plays her last game for Manchester's ladies hockey team. Kirstie, who is originally from New Zealand and lived for three years in Australia, came to Manchester when she was 18, where she started work as a flight attendant for Prime Air. Now living in London, Kirstie has been travelling to Manchester to see her family and for her weekend games. Tomorrow, however, is the last time she'll be wearing the red shirt, as she will be spending almost all her time in the capital working on new projects. The film will be in cinemas next month, but already Kirstie has been picked for a major role in the next Bond movie.

Reading

J.

- (67) First impressions B; attack or defence A; how to use body language D; I love you C.
- (68) C
- (69) A
- (70) B
- (71) B
- (72) D

Appendix IX. Complexity, Accuracy and Fluency Measurements

CAF MEASURES PER CONSTRUCT

FLUENCY MEASURES	Total number of words: #words	Total number of T-Units: #T-Units
ACCURACY MEASURES	Error-free T-Unit ratio: $\frac{\text{\#errorfreeTUnits}}{\text{\#sentences}}$	Errors per word ratio: $\frac{\text{\#errors}}{\text{\#words}}$
GRAMMATICAL COMPLEXITY	Overall complexity: Mean Length of T-Unit $\frac{\text{\#words}}{\text{\#TUnits}}$	Intermediate & Upper-Intermediate Levels: Clauses per T-Unit ratio $\frac{\text{\#clauses}}{\text{\#TUnits}}$
LEXICAL COMPLEXITY	Type-Token Ratio (TTR): (lexical density) $\frac{\text{\#types}}{\text{\#tokens}}$	D Value Use the vocd analysis command of the CLAN programme (Malvern and Richards 2002)

Appendix X.

Speaking test

assessment

criteria

The Effects of Content and Language Integrated Learning on the Oral Skills of
Compulsory Secondary Education Students: A Longitudinal Study

	GRAMMATICAL RANGE AND ACCURACY	LEXICAL RANGE AND ACCURACY	FLUENCY AND INTERACTION	PRONUNCIATION, STRESS AND INTONATION	TASK FULFILLMENT/ APPROPRIACY OF RESPONSE/ COMMUNICATIVE EFFECTIVENESS
2	- Shows <i>a good degree</i> of control of basic grammatical structures to deal with the content of the test - Shows <i>a good degree</i> of control of grammatical accuracy to deal with simple exchanges - Makes basic mistakes but most errors <i>do not impede</i> communication	- Shows <i>a good degree</i> of control of lexical range to deal with the content of the test - Shows <i>a good degree</i> of control of lexical precision to deal with simple exchanges	- Few pauses, false starts and reformulations - Responds slowly on <i>very few occasions</i> - Maintains simple exchanges. Requires <i>very little</i> prompting and support	- Mostly intelligible and has <i>good</i> control of phonological features at both utterance and word level - <i>Good</i> control of lexical stress and intonation	- Fulfils the task <i>well</i>
1.5	- Shows <i>sufficient</i> control of basic grammatical structures to deal with the content of the test - Shows <i>sufficient</i> control of grammatical accuracy to deal with simple exchanges - Makes basic mistakes. Major errors <i>occasionally impede</i> communication	- Shows <i>sufficient</i> control of lexical range to deal with the content of the test - Shows <i>sufficient</i> control of lexical precision to deal with simple exchanges	- Some pauses, false starts and reformulations - Responds slowly on <i>few occasions</i> due to need formulate output - Maintains simple exchanges despite some difficulty. Requires <i>some</i> prompting and support	- Mostly intelligible and has <i>sufficient</i> control of phonological features - <i>Sufficient</i> control of lexical stress and intonation	- Fulfils the task <i>appropriately</i>
1	- Shows an <i>acceptable</i> degree of control of basic grammatical	- Shows <i>acceptable</i> control of lexical range to deal with the	- Pauses, false starts and reformulations are <i>frequent</i> - Responds	- <i>Limited</i> control of phonological features and <i>sometimes</i> unintelligible	- Fulfils the task <i>acceptably with support</i>

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	structures to deal with the content of the test - Shows an <i>acceptable</i> degree of control of grammatical accuracy <i>just enough to follow</i> - Makes basic mistakes. Major errors <i>sometimes</i> impede communication	content of the test - Shows <i>acceptable</i> control of lexical precision to deal with simple exchanges	slowly on <i>few occasions</i> due to need to make sense of input - Has difficulty maintaining simple exchanges. Requires <i>additional</i> prompting and support	- <i>Acceptable</i> control of lexical stress and intonation <i>just enough to follow</i>	
0.5	- Shows <i>only limited</i> control of basic grammatical structures . <i>Does not manage</i> to deal with the content of the test - Shows <i>only limited</i> control of grammatical accuracy for simple exchanges - Makes basic mistakes and major errors <i>often</i> impede communication	- Shows <i>only limited</i> control of lexical range to deal with the content of the test - Shows <i>only limited</i> control of lexical precision to deal with simple exchanges	- Pauses, false starts and reformulations are <i>very frequent</i> - <i>Often</i> responds slowly due to failure to understand input - Has difficulty maintaining simple exchanges <i>even with additional</i> prompting and support	- <i>Limited</i> control of phonological features and <i>often</i> unintelligible - <i>Limited</i> control of lexical stress and intonation	- Does not fulfil the task <i>even with support</i>
0	NO PERFORMANCE TO ASSESS Does not speak or does not speak in English				