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**FACULTAD DE HUMANIDADES Y
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DEPARTAMENTO DE FILOLOGÍA
INGLESA**

TESIS DOCTORAL

**THE EFFECTS OF CONTENT AND
LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING IN
MONOLINGUAL COMMUNITIES: A LARGE-
SCALE EVALUATION IN ANDALUSIA**

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AICLE – Aprendizaje Integrado de Contenidos y Lenguas Extranjeras

APPP – Andalusian Plurilingualism Promotion Plan

BEA – Bilingual Education Act

BICS – Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills

CALP – Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency

CAM – Comunidad Autónoma de Madrid

CASLS – Center for Applied Second Language Studies

CBI – Content-Based Instruction

CDI – Conocimientos y Destrezas Indispensables

CEFR – Common European Framework of Reference for Languages

CEIL – Content and English Integrated Learning

CLIL – Content and Language Integrated Learning

CLIP – Content and Language Integrated Project

CLT – Communicative Language Teaching

CoE – Council of Europe

CSE – Compulsory Secondary Education

EC – European Commission

EU – European Union

EFAI – Evaluación Factorial de las Aptitudes Intelectuales

EFL – English as Foreign Language

e-ELP – Electronic European Language Portfolio

ELP – European Language Portfolio

*The effects of CLIL in monolingual communities:
A large-scale evaluation in Andalusia*

ESL – English as a Second Language

E.S.O. – Educación Secundaria Obligatoria

FI – Formal Instruction

FL – Foreign Language

GLAUR – Grupo de Lingüística Aplicada de la Universidad de La Rioja

ICT – Information and Communications Technology

ILC – Integrated Language Curriculum

L1 – First Language

L2 – Second Language

LEA – Ley de Educación de Andalucía

MEC – Ministerio de Educación y Ciencia

MIRCo – Multilingüismo, Identidades sociales, Relaciones intercomunitarias y Comunicación

MT – Mother Tongue

NLA – Non-Linguistic Area

NSE – Native Speaker of English

OLS – Official Language School

OWI – One-Way Immersion

PBL – Project-Based Learning

PI – Pregunta de Investigación

PILC – Proyectos de Innovación Lingüística en Centros

ProCLIL – Providing Guidelines for CLIL Implementation

RTVA – Radio y Televisión de Andalucía

RQ – Research Question

SDAIE – Specially Designed Academic Instruction in English

SLP – School Language Project

SWOT – Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities, Threats

TA – Teaching Assistant

TBL – Task-Based Learning

TESOL – Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages

TTC – Teacher Training Centres

TWI – Two-Way Immersion

UAM – Universidad Autónoma de Madrid

UAMLESC – Universidad Autónoma de Madrid Learner English Corpus

UCM – Universidad Complutense de Madrid

UCM-CLUE – Content and Language in University Education

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1. INTRODUCTION

In the field of language education, winds of change are blowing (Marsh, 2013: 138). Globalisation, technology, the current financial situation, and migratory flows, amongst other factors, have shifted the previous paradigms of our societies to a more pluralistic global order, especially for the Western world (Piquer & Lorenzo, 2015: 90). As a result, our teaching context is also changing, and therefore, our education system must be adapted to face the new challenges that are arising in our post-modern society. In our "increasingly multilingual and multicultural society" (Pérez Cañado, 2011: 389), one area that is particularly affected by external changes is that of foreign language teaching and learning (Lorenzo, 2010), since these changes permeate the curriculum (Marsh, 2006). The new society that arises is particularly interconnected, and the learning of foreign languages is acquiring a new dimension: we need to be increasingly competent in other languages in order to be able to communicate with others (Madrid, 2006). That is, the learning of foreign languages has become a basic skill or a requirement, which will probably be taken for granted in the near future, rather than considered an asset (Coyle, Hood, & Marsh, 2010: 9; Dalton-Puffer, 2011: 183). As Baker (2011: 90) puts it, "[b]ilingualism is becoming a commodity". Consequently, "individuals who command two languages are attractive to businesses competing in multiple, or multilingual markets" (Block & Cameron, 2002: 7, in Baker, 2011: 90).

In the European scenario, these changes are also fostered by educational policies put into play by the European authorities, which aim to make out of Europe the world's leading knowledge-based power (Marsh, 2002). As a result of these forces, multilingualism, therefore, "is part and

parcel of both European identity/citizenship and the learning society" (European Commission, 1995: 47).

Founded in 1949, the Council of Europe (henceforth, CoE) is a supra-national body for European society which aims to promote freedom and human rights in the continent, and to enhance the unity within the continent. In 1954, the signatory parties of the European Cultural Convention pledged to the following (Council of Europe, 1954):

1. Encourage the study by its own nationals of the languages, history and civilisation of the other Contracting Parties and grant facilities to those Parties to promote such studies in its territory; and
2. Endeavour to promote the study of its language or languages, history and civilisation in the territory of the other Contracting Parties and grant facilities to the nationals of those Parties to pursue such studies in its territory.

The European Commission (henceforth, EC) also acknowledges the importance of foreign language learning in its legislation. In its White Paper entitled *Teaching and Learning: Towards the Learning Society* (European Commission, 1995: 47), the oft-cited *Mother Tongue + 2 principle* (MT + 2) was established, by means of which the learning of "at least two Community foreign languages by all young people" other than their own language is encouraged (European Commission, 1995: 48). Other recommendations that are proposed in this document are: 1) for some non-language subjects to be studied in the foreign language (Järvinen, 2007: 1), and 2) to lower the starting age of students (Navés, 2009: 24).

Throughout these documents language learning is encouraged via innovative approaches (Järvinen, 2007: 1). The ideology behind these guidelines for language teaching resides in "the European Union's vision of a multilingual Europe in which people can function in two or three or more languages" (Baker, 2011: 246), given the increasing demand for multilingual workers, job mobility and a global economy (Baker, 2011: 246). Furthermore, in terms of identity, pluriculturalism is fostered (Järvinen, 2007: 1), along with a sense of "Europeanisation" (Baker, 2011: 246).

Currently, the member states in the European Union are, in some degree or other, doing their best to implement these European policies in their national curricula (Marsh, 2002; Lorenzo, Casal and Moore, 2009a: 418; Pérez Cañado, 2012: 319), and their adoption and adaptation to the particular context of every country "has entailed substantial political, administrative, and economic investment" (Pérez Cañado, 2016d: 1). Nevertheless, the "delivery gap" (Marsh, 2002: 9) between the implantation of measures to step up foreign language learning and the actual outcomes prevents them from truly reaching the language objectives and standards sought by the European entities. These results are deemed "unsatisfactory [...] in many formal education settings worldwide" (Heras & Lasagabaster, 2015: 71). Additionally, in our particular context, Spain, there is a tradition of lagging behind the average of other European countries in terms of linguistic competence (Ministerio de Educación, Cultura y Deporte, 2012). In fact, a report published by the European Commission (2012) showed that up to 54% of the Spanish people considered that they were not able to maintain a conversation in a foreign language.

In this context of language deficit, Content and Language Integrated Learning (henceforth, CLIL), has been proposed as the solution to counteract this delivery gap and to boost foreign language learning in the continent (Lasagabaster & Sierra 2009: 15; Lorenzo *et al.*, 2009a: 418; Pérez Cañado, 2011: 390, 2016d: 1; Heras & Lasagabaster, 2015: 71; Piquer & Lorenzo, 2015: 89). In Marsh's (2002: 11) words, CLIL represents a "European solution to a European need". A term proposed by the research group UniCOM in 1996, CLIL started as a series of funded research projects by the EC, which pulled together concepts such as content-based-instruction (henceforth, CBI)¹, immersion, and bilingual education (Navés, 2009: 24).

CLIL is seen as a "trendy" alternative to traditional EFL methods (Heras & Lasagabaster, 2015: 71) or as "a lever for change and success in language learning" (Pérez Cañado & Ráez Padilla, 2015: 1). Therefore, it has become "an important tool in supporting the achievement of the European Commission's objective of improving the foreign language proficiency of its citizens" (Lasagabaster & Sierra 2009: 15).

Furthermore, apart from having direct impact on the students' foreign language competence, CLIL has been claimed to have a broader impact on their education. According to Coyle (Piquer & Lorenzo, 2015: 89), CLIL can serve as a space to explore the development of literacy in students from a broader perspective, in line with the holistic view that European policy is taking at the moment. For Lorenzo *et al.* (2009a: 419), CLIL sets the foundations for a multilingual and plurilingual Europe, and it enables students "not only to *savoir* but also to

¹ CBI has been defined as "the concurrent study of language and subject matter, with the form and sequence of language presentation dictated by content material" (Brinton *et al.*, 1989: vii).

savoir faire and *savoir être* in a reconfigured continental environment". As a consequence, EU funding has been allocated for its development. As Järvinen (2007: 2) reports, Socrates and Erasmus actions have been taken, aiming to increase mobility and foreign language teaching development as part of the EC's Action Plan 2004-2006.

CLIL, despite its novelty, has fast been adopted across Europe –actually, according to Lasagabaster (2011: 6) CLIL programmes have "mushroomed in the last decade"–, gaining ground and spreading quickly all over the continent. In fact, Eurydice (2006), which serves a statistical purpose for the European Commission, showed that virtually every European country is moving towards CLIL. Therefore, "it appears that CLIL type provision is gradually becoming an established language teaching approach" (Järvinen, 2007: 2), since it has spread all over Europe, except for the furthest corners in the continent: Iceland and Greece (Eurydice, 2017: 56).

It thus seems that "CLIL has fast spread throughout the continent", and, in doing so, it has reached a variety of social groups, "no longer being confined to the elite" (Heras & Lasagabaster, 2015: 71). Even though CLIL could be used to teach a wide array of languages, English is leading the way, since it has become "the main language of instruction" (Lasagabaster, 2011: 6) in CLIL settings, giving rise to CEIL (Content and English Integrated Learning). As Deller (2005: 29) puts it, CLIL is "spreading fast and here to stay".

The intention of this dissertation is precisely to pinpoint what CLIL is, where it stems from, its advantages and disadvantages, and to provide an overview of the research conducted so far on the topic. Moreover, it aims to contribute to the growing body of research on the subject

by describing and discussing the results of a qualitative and quantitative longitudinal study conducted in four provinces in Andalusia on the effects of CLIL on L2 and L1 competence, non-linguistic area (NLA) learning, and on the opinions of three key stakeholders on the programme: students, teachers, and parents. For that matter, the following structure will be followed.

After this introduction to the topic (Chapter 1), Chapter 2 will provide a definition and characterisation of CLIL. We will begin by reviewing the predecessors of the CLIL enterprise, which are Canadian immersion programmes, bilingual education programmes in the United States, international schools, and European schools. The history of how these programmes came about will be reviewed, a classification will be provided, and their key points will be brought to the fore for analysis. Subsequently, we will proceed to define CLIL and the main features that are attributed to it, followed by its assets and pitfalls.

Chapter 3 will focus on the research conducted thus far on CLIL. This chapter will have three differentiated parts: Europe, Spain, and Andalusia. Therefore, we will move from a broader scope to a narrower region, given the fact that this study has been conducted in the region of Andalusia, in southern Spain. Within the geographical criterion, the review of the existing literature will take on another classification: first, we will review the studies that have focused on the effects of CLIL on the L2. Later, those that have focused on the effects of CLIL on the L1 will be canvassed. Then, we will review those studies that have aimed to identify the effects of CLIL on the acquisition of content matter. Finally, qualitative studies on stakeholder perspectives will be examined.

The next chapter (Chapter 4) will focus on the design of this research. After a justification of the investigation, the main objectives will be outlined, followed by the methodology employed for this study. Within the methodology section, we will review the type of research design, the sample, the variables, the instruments used to collect the data, the administration of the tests, and the explanation of the data analysis.

Chapter 5 will then analyse the qualitative results of this investigation, that is, the different stakeholders' perspectives concerning the CLIL programme in Andalusia. We will begin with the broad analysis of students', teachers', and parents' perceptions about the programme. We will initially describe each of these cohorts' opinions as whole about the different points evaluated, and we will then move on to determine the within-group differences in order to examine the impact of the intervening variables on the opinions of each of the three groups. Last but not least, across-cohort differences will be evaluated by comparing certain items that are similar across the three questionnaires that have been administered to the three stakeholders.

In chapter 6, the quantitative results of the study will be analysed. In this chapter, we will examine the effects of CLIL on the students' L2 competence, and we will look into whether CLIL has any negative effects on their L1 competence or their NLA content learning. To do so, we will compare English test results and Spanish Language and Literature and Science grades of CLIL and non-CLIL students from different types of schools (public, private, charter). CLIL students will also be compared with other CLIL students, as well as non-CLIL with other non-CLIL students, in order to determine the impact that the different intervening variables on

students' results. In addition, a discriminant analysis will be conducted so as to gauge whether the CLIL programme is responsible for the differences between the results, or whether it is other variables that cause those differences.

Finally, in chapter 7, general conclusions from the study will be provided, in order to highlight the key outcomes derived from the research. In addition, an analysis of the shortcomings that this study presents will be conducted, together with possible lines for future research to overcome them.

2. DEFINITION AND CHARACTERISATION OF CLIL

Content and Language Integrated Learning is considered to have, as its historical precursors, US dual language education programmes, Canadian immersion programmes, international schools, and European schools (Eurydice, 2006: 7; Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2010: 368; Baker, 2011: 245; Pérez Cañado, 2012: 316; Heras & Lasagabaster, 2015: 71-72).

The rich tradition that both Canada and the United States have in bilingual education, along with the attested success of their respective programmes by numerous studies, have made a positive impact on the European scenario and led to the development of the CLIL enterprise (Lasagabaster, 2011: 6), given that the outcomes of the research on Canadian and US programmes are "extremely revealing for the design and implementation of programmes in Europe" (Pérez Vidal, 2007: 44). Therefore, Cenoz (2015: 19) argues for the need to exchange research findings between CBI and CLIL, given that the two programmes are "essentially the same thing". For Navés (2009: 24), CLIL embodies terms such as "CBI" (content-based instruction), "immersion" and "BE".

Nevertheless, as Heras and Lasagabaster (2015: 71-72) point out, even though CLIL shares many features with these programmes, it has "a European flavour", since it was created in Europe, for Europe (Wolff, 2005), and has been considered "the European label for bilingual education" (Lorenzo, 2007: 28) since its launch in 1996 by UniCOM.

Before proceeding to characterise the different bilingual programmes on which CLIL is based, we consider it necessary to provide a definition of the concept of *bilingualism* and what

constitutes the required competence of a language to be considered a bilingual user. Whereas Bloomfield (1933: 56) defined bilingualism as the "native-like control of two languages", for Baker (2011: 8), however, this definition of bilingualism "appears too extreme and maximalist²", and it is ambiguous in regards to the terms *native-like* and *control*. The question as to who constitutes a native speaker of a language is not simple to answer (*cf.* Paradowski, 2008: 45-53 for a discussion on the complexity in defining who is a native speaker). In fact, Kachru (1992), who designed a model which classified the countries where English is spoken depending on whether English was a native language or an L2 (resulting in three concentric circles³), changed this model for one in which there are multiple concentric circles ranging from high proficiency speakers to low proficiency speakers (Graddol, 2006: 110). Therefore, the inner circle of the previous model was substituted by a group of highly proficient speakers "regardless of how they learned or use the language" (Graddol, 2006: 110).

Other definitions of bilingualism such as Weinreich's⁴ (1968: 1) are more flexible and less ample in their scope of what constitutes being a bilingual. Diebold's (1964, in Baker, 2011: 8) concept of *incipient bilingualism* reflects the minimalist view of bilingualism, for it "allows people with minimal competence in a second language to squeeze into the bilingual category"

² Baetens-Beardsmore (1986) distinguished between maximalist and minimalist definitions of bilingualism.

³ Kachru's (1992) three concentric circles were: the inner circle, where English is spoken as a native language, such as, for example, in the United Kingdom, the United States or Australia; the outer circle, which would include countries in which English had acquired a special presence for historical reasons, such as India, Nigeria or Singapore; and the expanding circle, where English is a foreign language, as is the case of Spain.

⁴ Weinreich defines *bilingualism* as "the practice of alternately using two languages".

(Baker, 2011: 8). The difficulty in pinning down who is or is not bilingual makes it "ultimately impossible" (Baker, 2011: 15) to provide an exact definition of what bilingualism means. Nevertheless, with the aim of making sense of the word, some categorisation is necessary (Baker, 2011: 15).

As a result, the terms *symmetric bilingualism*, *functional bilingualism* and *subtractive bilingualism* are often employed to differentiate between the various possible combinations in terms of proficiency in the L1 and the L2. While *symmetric functional competence* "allows the performance of cognitively demanding tasks in both languages" (Riagáin & Lüdi, 2003: 25), *functional bilingualism* (which is a case of *additive bilingualism*, since this entails that the L2 does not interfere with the L1) implies "full competences in L1 and functional competences in L2" (Riagáin & Lüdi, 2003: 25). Subtractive bilingualism entails "full competence in the state language independently of the development of L1" (Riagáin & Lüdi, 2003: 25). The case to absolutely avoid is *restricted bilingualism*, where "neither L1 nor L2 are fully developed" (Riagáin & Lüdi: 2003: 25).

Baker (2011: 2) also calls for a distinction between bilingualism –and multilingualism– as an individual characteristic, or as a societal feature, given that the two (or more) languages can be mastered by one person (*individual bilingualism*) or coexist within a community (*societal bilingualism*). However, the definition of multi- and plurilingualism is differently seen from the European authorities' perspective: while multilingualism is a feature that only societies (not individuals) can display (when two or more languages coexist in a given space), plurilingualism

consists in a person's ability to communicate in two or more languages. Therefore, while multilingualism is social, plurilingualism is individual (Council of Europe, 2001: 4):

Plurilingualism differs from multilingualism, which is the knowledge of a number of languages, or the co-existence of different languages in a given society. Multilingualism may be attained by simply diversifying the languages on offer in a particular school or educational system, or by encouraging pupils to learn more than one foreign language, or reducing the dominant position of English in international communication.

While in most countries in the world, the majority of the population is bilingual –using here a minimalist definition of bilingualism (Madrid, 2006: 177)–, in the US and the UK, on the contrary, monolingualism is seen as the norm, while bilinguals are seen as a rarity (Baker, 2011: 9). As Madrid (2006: 177) points out, sometimes bilingual citizens are actually viewed as disloyal, due to the fact that the identities of bilinguals may differ from those of the rest of citizens. The perception that governments and public opinion have of bilinguals is of utmost importance, given that they have a strong influence on the educational policies that are implemented in schools. For example, Baker (2011: 9) underscores that, when bilinguals are viewed as "two monolinguals in one person", the bilingual's test scores in his/her L2 will often be compared against those of a monolingual who is taking the test in his/her L1, which is ultimately unfair.

Coming back to the education scenario, bilingual education programmes have been defined by Stern (1972: 1, in Swain, 1972) as follows:

Schooling provided fully or partly in a second language with the object in view of making students proficient in the second language, while, at the same time, maintaining and developing their proficiency in the first language and fully guaranteeing their educational development.

Bilingual education is not a recent phenomenon. In fact, for Mackey (1978, in Baker 2011: 183), it dates back some 5,000 years, if not more, in one form or another. There have been examples of bilingual education in Ireland and Wales in the 1920s and 1930s, respectively (Baker, 2011: 183), and it has been suggested that, in Europe, there were already models of bilingual education in the 19th century (Coyle, 2007). Books on bilingual education appeared as early as 1917 in Canada (Sissons, 1917, in Baker, 2011: 183), and 1926 in South Africa (Aucamp, 1926, in Baker, 2011: 183). Therefore, to assume it is a modern phenomenon is not only false, but also dangerous, since it detaches and isolates the current bilingual landscape from its roots (Baker, 2011: 183).

Bilingual education cannot be conceived without the context in which it sprang forth. In Paulston's (1992: 80, in Baker, 2011: 184) words, "unless we try in some way to account for the socio-historical, cultural, and economic-political factors which lead to certain forms of bilingual education, we will never understand the consequences of that education".

The reasons for developing bilingual education programmes vary depending on the country and its historical, political and sociological context. While in Canada the English- and French-speaking communities have fostered the development of French and English programmes, in the US the main concern has been to guarantee equal opportunities of education to all students. In Europe and Asia, on the contrary, bilingual education programmes have the goal

of improving the students' foreign language skills (Navés, 2009: 22). Therefore, bilingual education stems from different contexts, each of them having particular characteristics not attributable to other contexts.

We will now proceed to provide a summary of bilingual education in Canada, the United States, and Europe, in order to better comprehend the background within which CLIL programmes have been framed.

2.1 Predecessors of CLIL

The main predecessors of European CLIL programmes are Canadian immersion programmes, bilingual education programmes in the US, international schools, and European schools. We will now provide information on each of these programmes and what they consist in, so that we can better understand where CLIL programmes stem from and their underpinnings.

2.1.1 Canadian immersion programmes

The term *immersion* was first applied to language when US troops were preparing to travel abroad to combat in World War II (Baker, 2011: 239). However, it was in Canada in the 1960s when immersion education adopted the meaning that is currently generally known to refer to a type of language learning programme. Genesee's (1987: 1) definition of immersion is the most commonly used:

Generally speaking, at least 50 percent of instruction during a given academic year must be provided through the second language for the program to be regarded as immersion. Programs in which one subject and the language arts are taught through the second language are generally identified as enriched second language programs.

Immersion education in Canada started as an experiment in St. Lambert, Montréal, in 1965 (Lambert & Tucker, 1972), although it has been argued that two schools (École Cedar Park in West Island Québec, which started in 1958, and the Toronto French school, which dates from 1962) already existed (Rebuffot, 1993). A few middle-class parents suggested this experiment in a kindergarten class with 26 students. As Järvinen (2007: 4) points out, in bilingual Québec, native-like proficiency in both English and French was necessary to access certain prestigious positions. The experiment pursued the following aims for students (Baker, 2011: 239):

1. To become competent to speak, read and write in French;
2. To reach normal achievement levels throughout the curriculum including the English language;
3. To appreciate the traditions and culture of French-speaking Canadians as well as English-speaking Canadians.

With these objectives in mind, immersion programmes were developed with the following features (adapted from Baker, 2011: 240-241):

1. The curriculum was delivered in two majority languages: English and French.
2. Most of the students that began an immersion programme were monolingual.

3. It was up to the student and their parents to follow an immersion programme, for these were optional.
4. All teachers in charge of the programmes were competent bilinguals.
5. The language used in the classroom was meaningful and authentic, and relevant to the children's needs.
6. The curriculum was the same one that mainstream students followed.

As Genessee (1994: 2) mentions, immersion programmes had the initial objective of providing the majority of English-speaking students in Canada with the necessary skills to communicate proficiently in French. However, over time, other languages were also incorporated to these programmes such as Mohawk (an indigenous language), Hebrew or Ukrainian, which were non-official heritage languages.

The core features of an immersion programme, as listed by Johnson and Swain (1997: 6-8), are the following:

1. The L2 is a medium of instruction.
2. The immersion curriculum parallels the local L1 curriculum.
3. Overt support exists for the L1.
4. The programme aims for additive bilingualism.
5. Exposure to the L2 is largely confined to the classroom.
6. Students enter with similar (and limited) levels of L2 proficiency.
7. The teachers are bilingual.
8. The classroom culture is that of the local L1 community.

While these features are shared by various immersion programmes, they differ in some aspects, which is the reason why immersion has been considered "an umbrella term" (Baker, 2011: 239). There are some differences between the diverse programmes in terms of the amount of time students are immersed in the foreign language and the age at which they begin their immersion.

Bearing in mind the time dedicated to instruction in the foreign language, immersion programmes are classified into *total* or *partial immersion* programmes. With regards to age, three types of immersion can be found: *early*, *middle* and *late immersion*. In *total immersion* programmes, the target language is initially used 100% of the time, but this figure decreases throughout schooling until a 50%-50% proportion between the languages is achieved. In *partial immersion* programmes, a 50%-50% balance is provided from the outset and maintained throughout the years. As for *early*, *middle* and *late immersion*, the differences depend on the age of the students when they join the programme. In *early immersion*, students are at the kindergarten or infant stage, in *middle immersion* they are about nine or ten years old, and in *late immersion* students are in secondary level. The most popular type of immersion has been *early total immersion* (Baker, 2011: 239-240).

For Järvinen (2007: 4), the proportion of time allocated to each language (mother tongue and foreign language) is the outcome of trial and error until the pre-set FL objective is met. Navés (2009: 23), in turn, points out a relevant difference between early and late immersion programmes: in *early total immersion*, literacy training in the second language precedes training in the first language, which is gradually introduced for other subjects from fourth

grade onwards. However, in *partial immersion* programmes, the proportion of classes taught in French remains stable throughout the programme, and is usually 50% of all subjects.

In the 70s and 80s, immersion programmes were evaluated, and the students' L1 and L2 language skills, as well as their content learning, were monitored. The key findings from the research are summarised by Swain & Johnson (1997) and Navés (2009):

1. For students to reach adequate levels of achievement in the content subjects taught in the L2, threshold levels needed to be acquired beforehand in the L2.
2. Early partial immersion students did not consistently perform as well as the mainstream students in content subjects (but early total immersion students did).
3. As far as the L1 is concerned, even though early total immersion was thought to be the most dangerous for the development of the students' skills in their mother tongue (given that the focus at this early stage was placed on the development of their L2 in academic settings), it was found that this hypothesis did not hold true in the long run (after two or three years).
4. The weaknesses of immersion lie in grammar and vocabulary deficits, speaking being the weakest skill.

After having reviewed research findings from immersion education programmes in the US and Canada, Genessee (1994) points to three lessons that can be learnt:

1. 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.

2. There are no negative effects to the native language development or academic achievement of students in immersion programs.
3. There should be a systematic plan that integrates language and academic objectives.

Due to the attested success of the initial experiment in St. Lambert (Lambert & Tucker, 1972; Genesee, 1987; Johnson & Swain, 1997; Swain & Lapkin, 1982), Canadian immersion programmes have been widely acclaimed by parents and researchers alike (Navés, 2009: 22). In fact, it has been claimed that "immersion education, as well as language reproduction in the home, is a key to maintaining Canada's bilingualism" (Baker, 2011: 240).

Therefore, the initial experiment spread rapidly across Canada and abroad (Rebuffot, 1993; Johnson & Swain, 1997: 3) and immersion education "now occurs internationally" (Baker, 2011: 243).

2.1.2 Bilingual education in the United States

Moving south, bilingual programmes have also had a rather long tradition in the United States, where, until the beginning of the 20th century, linguistic diversity in the US was common and often encouraged by the government (via newspapers, schooling, and religion), although there were some exceptions to the general rule (such as Franklin's anti-German legislation in the 1750s, the Californian legislature for English-only instruction in 1885, or the language policies suppressing Indian languages in the 1880s) (Crawford, 2004). In the first half of the 19th century, there were some pioneering examples of bilingual education such as German-English schools (Wiley, 1998). However, English monolingual education was the norm

throughout the 19th century, with the exception of cities such as Cincinnati, Baltimore, Denver and San Francisco, where Dual Education was present (Baker, 2011: 185).

In the early 20th century, nevertheless, there was a drastic change in the attitude towards bilingualism and bilingual education. Baker (2011: 185) mentions the following three key factors:

1. The number of immigrants increased considerably at the beginning of the 20th century. This led to a call for Americanisation, and competence in English was gradually compared with loyalty to the US.
2. A resolution was adopted in 1919 that prescribed that all lessons in both public and private schools were to be conducted in English.
3. The entry of the US into World War I in 1917 generated a strong anti-German feeling and extra pressure for English monolingualism.

In Baker's words, "[l]inguistic diversity was replaced by linguistic intolerance" (2011: 186). Speaking German or other languages was heavily frowned upon. Education mirrored society as a whole, and monolingual education was generalised.

However, in the 1960s, within the spirit of the human rights movements and the call for greater equality for all, bilingual education was shyly restored in a disorganised and semi-isolated way (Baker, 2011: 186). In 1963, a dual language school (Coral Way Elementary School) was founded in Dade County, Florida, by Cuban exiles who settled temporarily in the area, believing that the Castro regime would not last long. The dual language programme was supported by Americans, who saw in the fleeing Cubans respect and loyalty towards the US

democracy and values. The Americans believed in the preservation of the Spanish language in this particular community, given that their stay was supposedly temporary, and that they would leave the country as soon as the Castro regime failed (Baker, 2011: 187). The bilingual programme was funded and supported by the government, and highly trained professionals were in charge of the teaching.

Even though Coral Way Elementary School received most of the attention, it was not the only one implementing a bilingual programme at the time in the US (Baker, 2011: 187). Bilingual education in the United States mainly served the purpose of providing students from minority languages with the same opportunities as their English-speaking counterparts, by guaranteeing that all students could function in English in academic contexts (Navés, 2009: 22).

However, over the years, there has been a give-and-take with bilingual education by means of laws, amendments and guidelines that respond to different points of view on bilingualism and on students from language minority backgrounds (especially Spanish). For example, President Reagan was quoted in the New York Times, on March 3rd, 1981 (in Baker, 2011: 189), as saying the following: "It is absolutely wrong and against the American concept to have a bilingual education program that is now openly, admittedly, dedicated to preserving their native language and never getting them adequate in English so they can go out into the job market".

Therefore, from the first introduction in 1967 of a Bilingual Education Act (henceforth, BEA), which aimed to help Spanish speakers who were lagging behind in the school system, until our

current point in time, there have been several periods where bilingual education has been pushed to the background in the agenda (especially since the 1980s) to later be re-established. As a result, since 1968, when the BEA was first enacted, it was re-introduced in 1974, 1978, 1984 and 1994 (Baker, 2011: 187).

While some cases for bilingual education were won in court in the 1970s (such as those which resulted in the Lau remedies) (Baker, 2011: 188), and there was legislation which took the pressure off federal legislation concerning bilingual education (*Goals 2000, Educate America Act* and *Improving America's Schools Act*), some harsh laws and guidelines against bilingualism were also passed, such as the *English for the Children* initiative approved in California in 1998 (and later in Arizona and Massachusetts), or the legislation *No Child Left Behind* passed in 2001 by the George W. Bush administration (Baker, 2011: 193). Nevertheless, bilingual education is nowadays back in the spotlight, for dual language programmes are on the rise nationwide (Harris, 2015) and bilingual programmes were recently approved to be reintroduced in the state of California: the ballot for the California Non-English Languages Allowed in Public Education Act (Senate Bill 1174), also known as Proposition 58, was passed on November 8th, 2016, after almost 20 years of absence of bilingual education in the Golden State⁵.

Within bilingual education there exist a vast number of possible scenarios depending on the combination of multiple variable factors, such as the students' background and mother tongue, the proportion of majority vs. minority language students, the time allocated to each

⁵ Proposition 227, passed in 1998, was designed to prohibit non-English languages from being used in public schools.

language, the age of schooling or the specified aims of the programme, among others. As Baker (2011: 207) puts it, "[b]ilingual education is a simplistic label for a complex phenomenon". However, it is possible to categorise bilingual education in a way that shows the main features of the different programmes.

Baker (2011) makes an initial difference between classrooms in which bilingualism is present due to (some of) the students' bilingual background, but which foster monolingualism, and classrooms in which bilingual forms of education are actively encouraged. Thus, for Baker (2011: 207-252), bilingual education in the US can be divided into three main categories: monolingual education for bilinguals, weak forms of bilingual education for bilinguals, and strong forms of bilingual education for bilingualism and biliteracy. He summed up the main programmes and features of each of them in the following chart:

*The effects of CLIL in monolingual communities:
A large-scale evaluation in Andalusia*

WEAK FORMS OF EDUCATION FOR BILINGUALISM				
Type of Program	Typical Type of Child	Language of the Classroom	Societal and Educational Aim	Aim in Language Outcome
SUBMERSION (Structured Immersion)	Language Minority	Majority Language	Assimilation	Monolingualism
SUBMERSION with Withdrawal Classes / Sheltered English)	Language Minority	Majority Language with 'Pull-out' L2 Lessons	Assimilation	Monolingualism
SEGREGATIONIST	Language Minority	Minority Language (forced, no choice)	Apartheid	Monolingualism
TRANSITIONAL	Language Minority	Moves from Minority to Majority Language	Assimilation	Relative Monolingualism
MAINSTREAM with Foreign Language Teaching	Language Majority	Majority Language with L2/FL Lessons	Limited Enrichment	Limited Bilingualism
SEPARATIST	Language Minority	Minority Language (out of choice)	Detachment/ Autonomy	Limited Bilingualism
STRONG FORMS OF EDUCATION FOR BILINGUALISM AND BILITERACY				
Type of Program	Typical Type of Child	Language of the Classroom	Societal and Educational Aim	Aim in Language Outcome
IMMERSION	Language Majority	Bilingual with Initial Emphasis on L2	Pluralism and Enrichment	Bilingualism & Biliteracy
MAINTENANCE/ HERITAGE LANGUAGE	Language Minority	Bilingual with Emphasis on L1	Maintenance, Pluralism and Enrichment	Bilingualism & Biliteracy
TWO-WAY/DUAL LANGUAGE	Mixed Language Minority & Majority	Minority and Majority	Maintenance, Pluralism and Enrichment	Bilingualism & Biliteracy
MAINSTREAM BILINGUAL	Language Majority	Two Majority Languages	Maintenance, Pluralism and Enrichment	Bilingualism & Biliteracy
Notes: (1) L2 = Second Language; L1 = First Language; FL = Foreign Language. (2) Formulation of this table owes much to discussions with Professor Ofelia García. This typology is extended to 14 types of bilingual education in García (1997, p. 410).				

Figure 1. Weak and strong forms of bilingual education in the US (Baker, 2001: 194)

We will now provide an explanation of the main forms of bilingual education, by adapting Baker's (2011: 207-252) taxonomy.

2.1.2.1 Monolingual forms of education for bilinguals

Within the monolingual forms of education, we find *submersion education, structured immersion, sheltered English programmes, pull-out programmes, and segregationist language education* (Baker, 2011). Given the fact that these programmes do not enforce policies for bilingualism but were rather designed to integrate students from other language backgrounds in the US schooling system, we will simply proceed to outline each of them.

2.1.2.1.1 Submersion Education

In submersion programmes, the student (whose mother tongue is a minority language) is placed in class with language-majority students, and is expected to follow the curriculum without any special support. It brings to mind the idea of a sink-or-swim situation, since no special provisions are offered to language-minority students in such programmes.

Furthermore, the student's first language is not developed, but rather substituted by the majority mainstream language. As Baker recalls (2011: 211), schools do not call themselves submersion schools: *mainstreaming* is a more common denomination.

2.1.2.1.2 Structured immersion

In *structured immersion*, the students from a language-minority background are grouped together and taught in the majority language, using simplified forms (Baker, 2011: 211). However, for Baker (2011: 211), this model is another form of submersion rather than immersion. As was the case with purely submersion (*mainstreaming*) programmes, the students' first language is unaccounted for, and replaced by the majority language. However, the teacher "may initially accept contributions from children in their home language" (Baker, 2011: 211).

2.1.2.1.3 Sheltered English

Sheltered English programmes constitute a variation of *structured immersion*. In this case, students are delivered *Specially Designed Academic Instruction in English*, or SDAIE, where the lessons are delivered in the majority language, but the language employed is adapted with simplified vocabulary and supported with non-verbal cues. Materials and methods are specifically designed for the students in these programmes, and understanding on their part is frequently checked by the teacher. These programmes are often referred to as *sheltered content instruction of SDAIE*, and are often pull-out programmes, discussed in the following section (Baker, 2011: 211).

2.1.2.1.4 Pull-out

This concept refers to the idea of withdrawing students from language minority backgrounds from their mainstream class and providing them with compensatory lessons in the majority

language. It is a form of submersion in which some support in the target language is provided during the pull-out sessions (such as ESL –English as a Second Language– programmes in the US and the UK). According to Baker (2011: 211), they are preferable to submersion with no language support.

However, there are some drawbacks to these programmes, since the students may still lag behind their majority-language classmates and feel alienated. The student that is pulled out from the majority class may also be seen by the mainstream students as "remedial, disabled, or backward in English" (Baker, 2011: 214).

2.1.2.1.5 Segregationist Language Education

A rare form of monolingual education for bilinguals, *segregationist education* prevents language-minority students from attending mainstream, language-majority student schooling. The reasons for this segregation include apartheid and the intention of the government or the elite from the dominating culture of not allowing people from powerless language-minority backgrounds to have a voice in society, by not providing these communities with the linguistic tools to make themselves heard. Therefore, education only takes place in the minority language (Baker, 2011: 215).

2.1.2.2 Weak forms of bilingual education for bilinguals

After having outlined the main monolingual forms of education for bilinguals, we will now proceed to outline the main forms of promoting bilingualism amongst bilingual students,

beginning with the weak forms of doing so in school. The main weak models of bilingual education in the US are *transitional bilingual Education, mainstream education with foreign language teaching, and separatist education.*

2.1.2.2.1 Transitional bilingual education

Transitional bilingual education is based on the idea that, if students from minority language backgrounds do not quickly achieve high proficiency in the majority language, they will be lagging behind their majority language peers. It is an idea that is based on societal and economic reasons, and *transitional bilingual education* programmes were the most supported by the 1968 BEA (Baker, 2011: 215).

These types of programmes consist in allowing the language-minority students to receive instruction in their mother tongue (two years in early exit programmes and up to sixth grade in late exit programmes), until they are considered capable of following instruction in the majority language. The language is gradually shifted from the minority to the majority one, rather than abruptly introducing the majority one. *Transitional bilingual education* programmes differ from submersion programmes only in this transitional period, since in submersion programmes they are placed with their mainstream peers from the very beginning (Baker, 2011: 215-216).

2.1.2.2.2 Mainstream education with foreign language teaching

In this type of programmes (called *core programmes* in Canada, and *drip-feed language programmes* in Wales and the rest of the world), students receive instruction in a foreign or

second language a few hours per week as part of the mainstream curriculum, similar to the instruction in other subjects such as Maths or Biology. This is the case in the US, Australia, Canada and most of Europe. In these hours of instruction in the target language, the focus is on the language and not on the subject matter (Baker, 2011: 217-218). This is the category under which EFL programmes in Spain would fall.

The problem with foreign language (FL) programmes within mainstream education, as Baker (2011: 218) points out, is that most students do not achieve an adequate level of proficiency in the foreign language even after having received instruction in it for twelve years, as these isolated hours of instruction in the FL constitute their only exposure to it. "Mainstream education rarely produces functionally bilingual children" (Baker, 2011: 218). However, this is not the only possible outcome, since "[w]hen personal motivation and the status of a language is high, and when economic and vocational circumstances encourage the acquisition of a trading language, then foreign language teaching may be more successful" (Baker, 2011: 218).

2.1.2.2.3 Separatist Education

In *Separatist Education* (also called *Separatist Minority Language Education*), the minority language is promoted for political, cultural or religious reasons. The objective is to foster monoculturalism and monolingualism among a society that wants to detach itself from the majority culture, or to protect itself from getting over-run by it for survival reasons (Baker, 2011: 219). Language would therefore be a tool to achieve other purposes. For Schermerhorn (1970, in Baker, 2011: 219), *Separatist Minority Language Education* constitutes a secessionist movement.

2.1.2.3 Strong forms of bilingual education for bilingualism and biliteracy

We will now proceed to explain the strongest forms of education for bilingualism that exist in the United States. The main forms are *dual language programmes*, *maintenance (or heritage) programmes* and *immersion*.

2.1.2.3.1 Dual language schools

As was previously mentioned, the first dual language school in the US was founded in 1963 in Dade County (Florida) by Cuban exiles. It was called Coral Way Elementary School, and there were specific circumstances that fostered its beginning and development. Although this is generally considered the first dual language school, it was not the only one, for the number of schools offering dual language programmes increased steadily, especially since the 1990s (Baker, 2011: 229-230). Furthermore, in addition to dual language elementary schools, there are also dual language secondary schools, as well as dual language strands that sometimes take place in parallel to mainstream education (Baker, 2011: 224).

Dual language education is also called *two way immersion (TWI)*, *two way bilingual education*, *bilingual immersion*, *Spanish immersion*, *double immersion*, *interlocking education* or *developmental bilingual education* (Baker, 2011: 222-223).

Dual language education programmes, although varied and different in many aspects from each other, share a few characteristics (Genesee & Gándara, 1999; Lindholm-Leary, 2001, in Baker, 2011: 223):

1. A non-English language (i.e. a minority language) is used for at least 50% of instruction that lasts for up to six years.
2. In each period of instruction, only one language is normally used. Instruction must be adjusted to the student's language level, but must also be challenging, empowering and enabling. Language is learned primarily through content.
3. Both English and non-English speakers are present in approximately balanced numbers and integrated for most content instruction. The English and non-English speakers are integrated in all lessons.

In *dual language programmes*, both languages are given the same status, attempting a language balance of approximately 50%-50% towards the end of elementary school in both 50:50 and 90:10 models. While, in the former, the balance is maintained from the very beginning, in the latter, the exposure to the minority language is gradually decreased over the years (Baker, 2011: 227).

Both languages are used as a vehicle for instruction by bilingual teachers and an equal proportion of majority and minority language students. In fact, language compartmentalisation is a key idea for these schools, where there are strict measures concerning which language is going to be used at any specific time. These measures about the students who enrol in the programme and about the specific slots allocated to each language are taken to ensure social balance between the two languages, since, when there is an imbalance, one of the two becomes dominant over the other, and students tend to switch to the majority language, which is the one that holds a higher status (Baker, 2011: 222-226).

In dual language education, the main objective is "to produce relatively balanced bilinguals" (Lindholm-Leary, 2001), and "biliterate and multicultural children" (Baker, 2011: 225). The major goals to achieve this degree of bilingualism have been described as the following (Baker, 2011: 224):

1. High levels of proficiency in students' first language and a second language.
2. Reading and writing at grade level in both languages.
3. Academic achievement at, or above, grade level (e.g. Mathematics, Science, Social Studies).
4. Positive intercultural (multicultural) attitudes and behaviors.
5. Communities and society to benefit from having citizens who are bilingual and biliterate, who are positive towards people of different cultural backgrounds, and who can meet national needs for language competence and a more peaceful co-existence with peoples of other nations.

Dual language schools have received some criticism on account of the fact that the students who benefit most from this type of education are native English-speaking students, therefore reducing Latinos' natural advantages to access certain employment opportunities (Baker, 2011: 225). Despite this fact, in some cases, it can be challenging to attract students from the majority language to these schools. Therefore, "the good reputation, perceived effectiveness and curriculum success of such dual language bilingual schools become crucial" (Baker, 2011: 224).

2.1.2.3.2 Maintenance schools

These types of programmes, also called *Heritage Language Education*, *Maintenance Bilingual Education* or *Developmental Maintenance Bilingual Education* (Baker, 2011: 234), serve the purpose of preserving (on maintaining, hence the name) the students' heritage language, whether this be their native, ethnic or home language, such as Navajo and Spanish in the US (Baker, 2011: 232-233). Nevertheless, the term *Heritage Language Education* can sometimes be used, in a broader sense, when referring to "recent *immigrant* language groups and community-based language initiatives" (italics in the original) (Wiley, 2001; Valdés, Fishman, Chávez, & Pérez, 2006).

The goal of *Heritage Language Education* is for students to achieve full (or additive) bilingualism. This goal is achieved by means of the education of language-minority students using both the majority and the minority languages for instruction (Baker, 2011: 234).

2.1.2.3.3 Immersion schools

Immersion programmes based on the Canadian model also take place in the US. Even though immersion shares some similarities with dual language education (such as the aim of producing bilingual children in two or more languages), there are some differences between these two programmes, the main one being the students' background. For Baker (2011: 244), while in *dual language* schools students come from at least two different backgrounds and a balance between these two (or more) groups is attempted, in immersion schools there is a majority of students who are native speakers of the majority language, and learn a second (or minority) language through exposure to it in the school curriculum.

Nevertheless, Tedick and Weseley (2015: 26) differentiate between *One-Way Instruction* (OWI) and *Two-Way Instruction* (TWI) immersion programmes. They claim that, while OWI programmes have been "designed for a predominantly linguistically homogeneous student population of English-L1 speakers" (2015: 26), TWI programmes have been "designed for a linguistically heterogeneous student population of majority-language and minority-language (English-L2) learners" (2015: 26). This contradicts Baker's differentiation between dual language and immersion programmes.

These authors also make a distinction between *partial* (50:50) and *total* (90:10) immersion programmes, and point out that in immersion programmes, a minimum of 50% of the instruction must be provided in the foreign language for at least six years. Furthermore, in secondary continuation programmes, no less than two content subjects should be taught (Fortune & Tedick, 2008). Most immersion programmes in the US begin in Grade 1 (primary school), but the number of preschool programmes is gradually increasing (Tedick & Weseley, 2015: 26).

However, despite the different immersion programmes that exist, they all share three goals (Tedick & Weseley, 2015: 26):

1. Academic achievement at or above grade level,
2. Additive bilingualism / biliteracy, and
3. The development of cultural or multicultural competence.

Research findings on immersion programmes in the US show that students enrolled in them not only perform at least as well as their non-immersion peers in reading, Mathematics and

English language development: in well-implemented OWI and TWI programmes they perform better than those students that are not in immersion (Tedick & Weseley, 2015: 27).

It has also been found that, in TWI programmes, whether the model implies a 50:50 or a 90:10 exposure to English as compared to the foreign language does not have an impact on the students' competence in English in the long term, despite initial advantage of 50:50 students in primary grades (Christian, Genesee, Lindholm-Leary, & Howard, 2004). Although no similar research is available for US OWI programmes (Tedick & Weseley, 2015: 27), Canadian research shows that there are no differences in English competence based on different times of exposure to it (Genesee, 1981).

Furthermore, it has been proved that immersion programmes have a positive impact on the L2 development of English-L1 immersion students, when compared against traditional FL programmes (Center for Applied Second Language Studies [CASLS], 2011). In fact, by Grade 8 or even earlier, students in both partial and total OWI have achieved upper-intermediate or low-advanced oral language proficiency, despite the range of oral skills that exists in any given classroom (Fortune & Tedick, 2015).

Vis-à-vis attitudinal outcomes, studies have shown higher positive outcomes in immersion students towards learning with peers from a different cultural background (Lindholm-Leary, 2011, in Tedick & Weseley, 2015: 29) than students in non-immersion contexts. They also display positive attitudes towards other cultures which continue once students have exited the programme (Weseley, 2010, in Tedick & Weseley, 2015: 29). Students also reported increased motivation towards school and the programme they followed, and this motivation

was stronger for Latin-American students, which is a significant finding when considering their higher-than-average dropout rates (Lindholm-Leary & Borsato, 2001).

Nevertheless, not all research outcomes are positive with regards to immersion programmes: some problems that have been identified by researchers include the difficulty of balancing content and language teaching (Cammarata & Tedick, 2012); the challenge to keep a balance between the two languages and student interaction (Palmer, 2008); the lesser development of language production in students when compared to their receptive language proficiency (Harley, Allen, Cummins, & Swain, 1991; Genesee & Lindholm-Leary, 2013; Tedick & Wesely, 2015); and the role of the L1 in immersion classes and the impact it may have on the learning of the L2 (Järvinen, 2007: 5-6). The division between the languages has been fairly strict in immersion settings. However, it has been argued that the use of the L1 does not necessarily impair L2 learning: "students use the L1 for purposes that are conducive to the learning of the L2 and not inhibitory to L1 development or wasted opportunities to use the target language" (Järvinen, 2007: 5).

Although the effects of TWI and OWI programmes have been largely researched, there are still areas that are unexplored (cf. Tedick & Weseley, 2015: 30-37). Therefore, a diversification of research is required.

2.1.2.3.4 Mainstream bilingual schools

Baker (2011: 210) includes *mainstream bilingual* programmes under the title *Strong Forms of Bilingual education for Bilingualism and Biliteracy*, but, in this section (2011: 245-249), only international models are mentioned (namely, *CLIL*, *international schools* and the *European schools movement*). However, Tedick and Weseley (2015: 25-26) make reference to programmes that follow non-immersion CBI (content-based instruction) methodology within the US, although they acknowledge that few studies have been conducted on these programmes.

Content-based instruction "view[s] the target language largely as the vehicle through which subject matter content is learned rather than as the immediate object of study" (Brinton, Snow, & Wesche, 1989: 5, in Navés, 2009: 24). In Tedick and Weseley's (2015: 25-26) words,

[Non-immersion CBI programmes] are based on traditional FL programmes for English-L1 speakers, either content-related programmes in the middle school (wherein the FL is used to reinforce subject matter [e.g. science] concepts taught in English) or FL classes at the middle or high school level that are theme-based (often culture or literature-related).

This definition allows us to differentiate between these programmes and the *content-based ESL instruction* that Baker explains (2011: 211) under *mainstreaming / submersion education*.

While the aim of *content-based ESL instruction* programmes is for students from minority languages to learn English so that they can eventually follow their mainstream peers, non-immersion CBI programmes, on the contrary, are destined for students from the language majority who want to learn a foreign language.

Studies on BE in the US have proved the effectiveness of this approach when correctly implemented (Lambert & Tucker, 1972; Swain & Cummins, 1982; Swain & Lapkin, 1982; Cummins, 1984; Willig, 1985; Cummins & Swain, 1986; Genesee, 1987; Krashen & Biber, 1988; Krashen, 1991, 1997, 1999; García, 2008; García, Kleifgen, & Falchi, 2008). However, bilingual education is still a hot, controversial topic in the country, especially with regards to politics and the media (Krashen, 2001; Navés, 2009).

Some of the pros that have been outlined by the research are the impressive development of native-like receptive skills in students; the satisfactory performance in learning the subject content, similar to the monolingual control groups; or the positive attitudes that are fostered in BE programmes towards the L2 and its culture (Greene, 1998; Cummins, 1999a; Krashen, 1999; Baker, 2011: 225; Pérez Cañado, 2012: 317).

Conversely, there are certain negative findings concerning this type of educational programmes: their efficiency with regards to the development of students' productive skills is not as satisfactory as with the development of receptive skills (Navés, 2009). Moreover, US bilingual students' academic achievements are below the norm, with higher drop-out rates (Baker, 2011: 199). While there are certain - factors that could be responsible for this overall performance gap between monolingual and bilingual students –Baker (2011: 200-204) suggests factors such as lack of exposure to the majority language, mismatch between home and school or type of school a child attends, or failure to use a child's ability and achievements in their L1 language–, this poor performance is usually attributed to the bilingual programme, which is seen as the problem, when, in fact, "[f]or such students, bilingual education utilizing

the home language becomes the cure and not the cause of underachievement" (Baker, 2011: 204).

2.1.3 Other predecessors of CLIL

As predecessors of CLIL, *international schools* and *European schools* are often also considered. Both of these systems are very similar to one another with respect to their aims and the students they usually cater for. However, there are also some differences worth mentioning. Therefore, we will deal with them separately in this section.

2.1.3.1 International schools

International schools are found in over 236 countries in the world, and they constitute approximately 5,300 schools in total. Students who attend these schools typically come from families in which parents work in international organisations or their country's diplomatic service, who experience job mobility and who are able to pay the fees for selective, private and prestigious education. Nevertheless, there may also be some other students who are locals, or who come from a different background (Baker, 2011: 247).

The teachers at these schools also come from different countries, and the curriculum is adapted from the US or UK curriculum to the local tradition. The languages of instruction are majority languages (more often than not, English). However, these schools sometimes also

teach other languages (whether they be national or international languages), therefore becoming bilingual schools (Baker, 2011: 247).

2.1.3.2 European schools

European schools, just like international schools, cater for students whose parents are civil servants of a supranational entity, such as the European Community institutions (Baetens-Beardsmore, 1992: 1). Around 20,000 students are enrolled in these schools from all across the European Union (Baker, 2011: 247).

The first European school was established in Luxembourg in 1953 (Baetens-Beardsmore, 1992: 6; Baker, 2011: 247), and it was applied to the whole school population in the country (Baetens-Beardsmore, 1992: 1). There were three different languages in the curriculum, beginning with Luxemburger in preschool and first grade, which was progressively replaced by German. French was introduced, first as a subject, in second grade of primary education, and it gradually took over German as the means of instruction for the other subjects (except for language lessons) (Baetens-Beardsmore, 1992: 4). German and French, apart from being used as means of instruction, were also supported in these language lessons, which Baetens-Beardsmore considers to have "implications for the quality of the outcome in terms of productive accuracy" (1992: 5).

As a result of the success of the Luxembourg model (70% of the students in the class of 1985-1986 passed their examinations to enter Higher Education, as reported by Baetens-

Beardsmore, 1992: 6), this model was extended to other countries, and European schools are now present in Belgium, the Netherlands, Germany, Italy, the UK, and Spain, in addition to Luxembourg (Baker, 2011: 247). The European School network was founded in 1958, and it relies on "a far more complex system" than the trilingual education system in Luxembourg (Baetens-Beardsmore, 1992: 6).

European schools are not elite schools, despite their reputation. Even though the children of European civil workers are given priority over other students, vacancies are granted to others, with a special emphasis on the less favoured groups (Schola Europaea, 1988, in Baetens-Beardsmore, 1992: 7). Education is free and there is no entry selection or streaming (Baetens-Beardsmore, 1992: 7).

In these schools, students are taught a minimum of three languages. Students come from a wide variety of backgrounds, each of them having their mother tongue; as Pérez Cañado mentions (2012: 318), "more than 50 languages are spoken on the playground". Young students are instructed in their native language, although they receive L2 instruction (English, French or German) as a subject in primary education (Baker, 2011: 247), in as early as first grade (Pérez Cañado, 2012: 318). In total, 1,100 hours are dedicated to the study of the L2 throughout the programme, in addition to the hours of instruction received in the L2 (Baetens-Beardsmore, 1992: 8). Older students are instructed partially in their first language and partially in a vehicular language in classrooms of students from mixed language groups (Baker, 2011: 247). The L3 is introduced in Grade 7 (Pérez Cañado, 2012: 318), adding up to a

minimum of 360 hours (Baetens-Beardsmore, 1992: 8; Baker, 2011: 248). Students can also opt in for certain subjects that are instructed in the L3 (Baetens-Beardsmore, 1992: 8).

Baetens-Beardsmore summarises the principles of European schools as follows (1992: 7-8):

1. The child's distinct national, cultural, religious and linguistic identity should be maintained, underlining the significance of instruction in the L1.
2. Throughout schooling, all children must acquire a thorough knowledge of an L2 (to be selected from English, French or German) through which they will be able to learn content matter and be prepared to take examinations through the medium of both L1 and L2.
3. The higher the child progresses in the school, the more lessons are taught via the medium of a second or third language.
4. The programme is designed to promote linguistic and cultural pluralism rather than assimilation so that all children are obliged to take on a second and third language, with no linguistic discrimination in favour of speakers of a major language like English or French.
5. From primary school onwards, communal lessons are taught to members of different sub-sections brought together for integration purposes. In the primary section these communal lessons are known as European Hours. The further the children progress in the programme the more lessons are taught to mixed groups from different sub-sections.
6. Study of an L3 becomes compulsory from the third grade of secondary education.

7. All teachers are qualified native speakers of the language they use as a medium of instruction.

As a result of the multilingual education received in European schools, students often become multilingual and even multicultural, since they finish their education "with a sense of European multiculturalism and European identity" (Baker, 2011: 248). Furthermore, to reinforce their European and multicultural identity, the above-mentioned *European hours* constitute part of the curriculum. They are compulsory from third grade, and, during these hours, 20 to 25 students from different native languages work together in a cooperative project three times a week (Baker, 2011: 248). The strong focus on languages does not hinder the academic achievements, since 90% of students pass their Higher Education examinations (Baetens-Beardsmore, 1992: 8).

The research outcomes (Housen, 2002; Baker, 2011: 248) have been consistent in praising the positive development of the students who take part in the European schools programmes, since their proficiency in the L2 comes close to that of native speakers by the end of secondary education, at no cost to their mother tongue or content learning. Often, students also become highly proficient in an L3 or even L4, becoming fully plurilingual (Baker, 2011: 248). What is more, the European models have proved that they have yielded even better outcomes than Canadian early total immersion programmes (Wode, 1999).

Baetens-Beardsmore (1992) explains some of the similarities found between *immersion programmes*, the *Luxembourg programme*, the *European schools movement* and the *Foyer*

*Project*⁶, and the characteristics that lead to their acknowledged success. In all four models, teachers are highly proficiency in the target language and at least three languages are involved. The focus is placed on both relevant input and output, parents are greatly involved in the school and their children's education, and they understand "the specificity of bilingual education" (Baetens-Beardsmore, 1992: 19). A difference between the European models and the Canadian immersion model is that teaching occurs first in the students' mother tongue in the European models, because it is considered that students will later be able to transfer their skills to the second language.

However, what constitutes the main difference between the European and the Canadian models is that, in the European schools, the second language is taught as a subject before it is used as a vehicle for content learning, and students keep being instructed in the formal aspects of this second language all throughout the programme. This point is vital, since it has been thought to explain the higher grammatical accuracy that students attain in the target language in the European programmes (Baetens-Beardsmore, 1992: 20; Baker, 2011: 248).

⁶ The Foyer Project was developed in Brussels, a multicultural and multilingual city in which there is a high proportion of immigrants. The aim was to produce bilingual students with trilingual language competence (French, Dutch, and the students' ethnic language). The language of instruction is Dutch and the language of socialisation is predominantly French. Students initially spend 50% of the time with other students who share their same L1. However, gradually, more and more time is spent with the mainstream group and less with peers in their ethnic language, and so the exposure to Dutch is also increased gradually (Baetens-Beardsmore, 1992: 8-9).

Finally, Baetens-Beardsmore (1992: 1) warns against the adoption of a single model as a blueprint without adapting it to the local context where it is going to be implemented, even if its success has been well documented through research.

2.1.4 The European CLIL scenario

While bilingual education and immersion programmes in the US and Canada, and European and international schools already have a long tradition and have been thoroughly researched, "CLIL programmes are in their infancy in many educational systems worldwide" (Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2010: 369). Despite the fact that integrated content and language learning has proved to be more effective in the programmes that are now considered the precursors of CLIL than L2 instruction in isolation (Genessee, 1994), these programmes cannot simply be extrapolated to the European scenario (Baetens-Beardsmore, 1992: 1; Gallardo del Puerto, Gómez Lacabex, & García Lecumberi, 2009: 65). There are important socio-cultural and contextual differences that make CLIL different from its precursors, and this is why research needs to be more context-specific, focused on the CLIL scenario, so that we can reach specific conclusions and take the appropriate measures to maximise its benefits.

2.2 Definition of CLIL

As we have seen in the previous section, teaching content through a foreign language is not a novel idea: it is "as old as education itself" (Coyle *et al.*, 2010: 2). Throughout history, people have been educated in languages that were considered at the time more academic or appropriate for formal education, and this phenomenon "has been replicated across the world through the centuries" (Coyle *et al.*, 2010: 2). In fact, it is claimed that "the very foundations of formal education in Europe were multilingual" (Lewis 1976; Adams 2003; Braunmüller & Ferraresi 2003). Nevertheless, the idea of integrating content and language for the sake of both the content *and* the language emerged in the 1990s, and it has gradually developed over the last decades until today.

CLIL, "an acronym which has firmly embedded itself in the current language teaching scenario" (Pérez Cañado & Ráez Padilla, 2015: 1), stands for Content and Language Integrated Learning. This term was coined in 1994 by David Marsh, but it was first launched in 1996 by UniCOM, the University of Jyväskylä in Finland and the European Platform for Dutch Education (Fortanet Gómez & Ruiz Garrido, 2009; Marsh, 2006). It has been defined as "a dual-focussed education approach in which an additional language is used for the learning and teaching of both content and language" (Coyle *et al.*, 2010: 1). Therefore, in CLIL, there is a balance between content and language learning in which "[t]he non-language content is developed through the L2 and the L2 is developed through the non-language content" (Pavesi, Bertocchi, Hofmanová, & Kasianka, 2001: 7).

Throughout the twenty-some years that this acronym has been adopted by researchers and language educators, different definitions of this term have burgeoned. However, a constant feature of these definitions (Barwell 2005: 143; Wolff, 2005: 11; Coyle *et al.*, 2010: 1) is that they all stress the duality of this approach. This idea that, through CLIL, students get "two for one" (Lyster 2007: 2) is precisely one of the reasons behind its fast growth across Europe.

The variety of the CLIL programmes currently being implemented constitutes one of the very hallmarks of CLIL: the diversity of forms that it takes in practice, making it difficult to pinpoint its exact features. As Coyle (2008: 101) puts it, "there is a lack of cohesion around CLIL pedagogies. There is neither one CLIL approach nor one theory of CLIL". While certain ambiguity of the term (and therefore, flexibility) is welcomed by some, others call for a clearer definition of this approach (Bruton, 2013; Cenoz, Genesee, & Gorter, 2013; Paran, 2013).

Cenoz *et al.* (2013: 2) argue for a more distinct definition of CLIL, claiming that it is necessary to establish its limits with regards to content-based instruction in the L2. In their view, this is necessary if we want to profit from the research already conducted in the setting of content-based instruction. However, at the same time, it is essential not to "rarify the concept of CLIL" to the point where it is seen as a completely distinct approach. This could lead to the idea that the research conducted in other fields could not apply to our particular setting, which "may not be in the best interests of teachers and students in CLIL classrooms" (Cenoz *et al.*, 2013: 2). Cenoz (2015) is also concerned with the possibility of sharing research and practices across programmes rather than limiting ourselves to the specific findings of CLIL programmes.

Dalton Puffer, Llinares, Lorenzo, and Nikula (2014: 213-214) agree with Cenoz *et al.* (2013) on the need to clarify the term CLIL, particularly in opposition to immersion. They base their call for a distinction between the two terms on the account that, if they are seen as synonyms expressing the same reality, an argument on which of them is more proper (and therefore, dominant) could arise. This, they claim, is "an avenue we do not want to follow, as it has already proven to run in circles" (Dalton-Puffer *et al.*, 2014: 213-214). However, Dalton Puffer *et al.* (2014) remind us that concepts also pervade the outside world, acquiring "fuzzy boundaries" (p. 214), and scholars cannot and should not try to control their use outside academia.

As a result, many are in favour of the conceptualisation of CLIL as an *umbrella term*, i.e., one that embraces "all scenarios and whatever combination of regional, heritage, minority, immigrant and/or foreign languages they involve" (Lorenzo *et al.*, 2009a: 419). In Mehisto, Marsh, and Frigols' (2008: 12) words, "CLIL is an umbrella term covering a dozen or more educational approaches (e.g. immersion, bilingual education, multilingual education, language showers and enriched language programmes)".

Given that CLIL comes "in all shapes and sizes" (Smit, 2007: 3), it is preferred to acknowledge the flexibility of the term and to focus instead on its adaptation to a given context, since, according to David Marsh (Graddol, Marsh, & Langé, 2005) "[t]here's no blueprint for export of CLIL", and under the "very large umbrella" that CLIL is there are "many different very interesting educational approaches". Actually, he claims, one of the initial problems that arose

in the initial models of CLIL was caused by trying to import the Canadian model as it was, rather than adapting it to the context in which it was to be implemented.

Thus, CLIL is, by definition, diverse and it encompasses different practices. It is precisely this diversity of practices that, for Pérez Cañado (2016b: 4), has allowed CLIL to accommodate the European linguistic diversity, to avoid the one-size-fits-all model and to grow, bearing in mind factors that affect each given scenario. In fact, the different forms and educational approaches that CLIL may take have been listed as follows (Cenoz *et al.*, 2013: 4):

[...] CLIL includes the following educational approaches: 'language showers', CLIL camps, student exchanges, local projects, international projects, family stays, modules, work- study abroad, one or more subjects, partial immersion, total immersion, two- way immersion, and double immersion. CLIL can even go beyond school contexts to include everyday activities, provided they take place in an L2/foreign language.

Dalton-Puffer *et al.* (2014: 217) recognise the existing "need of an overarching concept", because the use of different labels, though useful to acknowledge the existing trends in the research, "may lead to the old sociolinguistic game of the *labellers* and the *labelled*" (italics in the original) (2014: 217). This leads them to call for researchers to develop a system that is non-hierarchical in its use of labels, and to arrive to the sound conclusion that, if CLIL is thought to be the most appropriate term for this non-hierarchical system, then "you can stand under my umbrella" (2014: 217).

The consideration of CLIL as an umbrella term, unfortunately, does present some problems. One of them, foreseeably, consists in that, under such a variety of implementations, it is

difficult "to pin down the exact limits of the reality that this term refers to" (Alejo & Piquer, 2010: 220). However, there is also the problem of whether research conducted on other approaches (not labelled *CLIL*) can be transferred onto the *CLIL* approach. In any case, Dalton-Puffer *et al.* (2014) remind us that this problem is not solely for the term *CLIL*, for it is "inherent in comparative educational research in general" (Dalton-Puffer *et al.*, 2014: 215).

To continue with the definition of *CLIL* and of the different terms that have some relation to it, another set of terms that are sometimes used interchangeably with *CLIL* are *bilingualism*, *CBI* and *immersion*. Therefore, it is understandable that there is some degree of confusion about the use of these terms to refer to *CLIL* programmes in the European context. One of the aims of *CLIL* is to "add a new language to the student's mother tongue" (Pavón & Ellison, 2013: 68), therefore contributing to the students' bilingualism. However, the term *bilingualism* is not explicitly linked to the methodology used to attain this objective or the way in which the new language is learnt. In fact, *bilingualism* is so extended that, around the world, the majority of people are bilingual or plurilingual, and most students receive instruction in a language that is different to their mother tongue (Tucker, 1999). Therefore, *CLIL* promotes a functional kind of bilingualism amongst students that follow these programmes. For Madrid (2006: 178), bilingualism has been achieved when the individual's competences in the FL range between the B1 and C2 levels, following the classification put forward by the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR).

Nevertheless, if we refer to the different programmes that have aimed for years at developing students' foreign language skills, such as bilingual or immersion programmes, that is,

programmes developed in educational settings aimed at developing bilingualism, the line between CLIL and these programmes becomes somewhat blurry. The current model of CLIL in Europe has developed from Canadian immersion programmes, US bilingual schools and European and international schools (Pérez Cañado, 2012: 316, 2016b: 4), and, therefore, it shares a vast number of characteristics with them (cf. section 2.1, where we discussed the predecessors of CLIL). As a result, many authors point to the common features that CLIL share with immersion and CBI programmes (Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2010; Somers & Surmont, 2012; Paran, 2013; Llinares & Lyster, 2014; Cenoz, 2015). Cenoz *et al.* (2013: 244), who contrasted CLIL and CBI programmes, concluded that "although CLIL's origins in Europe might make it historically unique, this does not necessarily make it pedagogically unique". Pérez Cañado (2016b: 5), however, sees in this supposed lack of novelty and in the diversity of CLIL programmes an advantage for the development of this approach, as well as for its implementation.

Notwithstanding, other scholars such as Lasagabaster and Sierra (2010), Coyle *et al.* (2010), Coyle (2008) or Dalton-Puffer *et al.* (2014) have spoken against the use of these terms interchangeably, since this can lead to confusion for the readers of the literature in the topic (Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2010: 368) and there are many features that make CLIL unique. Lasagabaster and Sierra (2010: 367- 369) remind us of the relevance of the differentiation of the terms, since the term CLIL coexists with a variety of other concepts that include bilingual integration of language and curricular subjects, content-based language teaching, theme-based language teaching and content-enhanced teaching, and, according to a Eurydice study (2016: 55), different labels are used for different concepts in the European scenario. They

underline that research on CLIL is spreading fast across the continent, and, for its results to be relevant and delimited to our particular area, some terminological accuracy is necessary. Furthermore, they provide a list of differences between CLIL and immersion programmes, such as the language being studied, the background of CLIL vs. immersion or the research conducted on these two programmes.

Somers and Surmont (2012: 115), in turn, agree with Lasagabaster and Sierra's (2010) call for a clearer definition of CLIL against other similar terms, but disagree with them on several fronts. On one hand, they claim that establishing such clear-cut differences between CLIL and other programmes will ignore the fact that there is a vast amount of research that CLIL could benefit from, due to the similarities it holds with other approaches. What Somers and Surmont (2012: 113) consider to be a matter of "qualitative distinction" has been reduced by Lasagabaster and Sierra (2010) to a "mere quantification of differences" (Somers & Surmont, 2012: 113). On the other hand, they disagree on specific statements concerning the differences and similarities between CLIL and immersion programmes put forward by Lasagabaster and Sierra (2010), such as whether the language learnt should be new to the students (and whether it should be a foreign language), whether the language should be taught by a native speaker, the objectives of the programme, the starting age or the materials used, amongst other discrepancies.

Cenoz *et al.* (2013: 2), in turn, suggest that the key for differentiation between CLIL and other programmes lies in the dual focus of the former: while the aim of the other programmes is set on the teaching of content through a foreign language, in CLIL programmes both the content

and the language are part of the objective. However, Cenoz (2015: 12) argues that the differences between CLIL and CBI programmes are minimal and accidental (as opposed to essential), stating that they are "two labels for the same reality".

Thus, there is some degree of disagreement between authors concerning the definition of CLIL and its limits when compared to other approaches. While some welcome a certain blurriness of the term and its use as an umbrella term, others (Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2010; Somers & Surmont, 2012: 115, Bruton, 2015: 126) demand a clearer definition that allows us to establish the limits of what CLIL is and what it is not. The reason behind the vagueness of its conceptualisation is the variety of forms it adopts depending on the specific contexts, and the fact that there is not a "one size fits all" conceptualization" with regards to CLIL (Hüttner & Smit, 2014: 164). Therefore, Hüttner and Smit (2014: 164) propose "a more genuinely constructivist approach that acknowledges the diversity and dynamics integral to CLIL practices". In a similar vein, Paran (2013: 320) considers that attention should be focused on the actual programme rather than the nomenclature, and Coyle (Piquer & Lorenzo, 2015: 90) states that "essentially what happens in the classroom is what matters". Therefore, we will now proceed to outline a characterisation of CLIL as it happens in the classroom.

2.3 Characterisation of CLIL

As has been explained in the definition of CLIL, one of its key elements lies in the variety of programmes being implemented under the term. As Pavón and Ellison (2013: 70) suggest, "[t]here is no single recipe for CLIL and its success depends on a thorough analysis of context,

an evaluation of needs, and the resources, human and material, which are available". As a consequence, a number of programmes have been developed in order to adapt CLIL to the different contexts where it is to be implemented. Coyle (2007) lists 216 types of CLIL programmes using variables such as compulsory status, intensity, age of onset, starting linguistic level, or duration. This variety exists not only across country borders: sometimes, a diversity of CLIL approaches coexists within a country, as is the case of Spain. However, far from presenting a problem, it has been suggested that the diversity and adaptation of CLIL to different settings is precisely a strength rather than a weakness (Gierlinger, 2015: 4).

As a result, it would seem that presenting a characterisation of CLIL is an impossible task, due to its heterogeneity. Indeed, CLIL is "overly inclusive" (Cenoz *et al.*, 2013: 3). Nevertheless, there are indeed some common characteristics and principles shared by CLIL programmes that provide an outlook on what CLIL actually aims for and looks like, and several authors have published on the shared general features of CLIL (De Graaff, Koopman, Anikina, & Westhoff, 2007; Mehisto *et al.*, 2008; Dalton-Puffer, 2011; Georgiou, 2012; Pérez Cañado, 2012).

The feature that is chiefly apparent when characterising CLIL is the dual focality of content and language. CLIL, as was described in section 2.2 (definition of CLIL), consists in the learning of content through a foreign language, and the development of *both* aspects (language and content) is pursued as a common objective, rather than one being subservient to the other. As Marsh (2008: 243) puts it, "CLIL was originally introduced to bind together diverse dual-focused educational practices where explicit attention is given to both content and language".

The focus on the integration of content and language and the fact that two areas of the curriculum which are normally segregated (the content and the language subjects) are now intertwined, changing the previous paradigms and the mind-set of the teacher, "points to the very hallmark of CLIL" (Pérez Cañado, 2013: 15). Therefore, this dual focus involves the idea of increasing the presence of the foreign language in the classroom and, therefore, the exposure the students get also in the non-linguistic area subjects –particularly Science, History, Geography and other Social Sciences (Pérez Cañado, 2012: 319-320).

Part of the characterisation of CLIL and the way it works in individual settings is the balance between the focus on the language and the focus on the content. Although there is some disagreement on the ideal percentage of time the target language should be explicitly taught in a CLIL lesson (a 50:50 balance should be attained for Ting, 2010, while at least 20% should be dedicated specifically to subject matter teaching for Järvinen, 2007), "it is difficult to achieve a strict balance of language and content" (Cenoz *et al.*, 2013: 2). Therefore, the important issue is that the focus is both on the content and the language. In fact, for Marsh (2002), even a 90:10 proportion can qualify as CLIL, provided there is a dual focality on the content and the language.

Another feature that is shared by many different CLIL programmes is related to the final objective that they want to achieve in relation to the foreign language. This objective is to attain a functional proficiency rather than native-like proficiency in the L2 (Marsh 2002; Muñoz 2002; Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2010: 372; Somers & Surmont 2012: 115; Pérez Cañado,

2012: 318). According to Lasagabaster and Sierra (2010: 372), "CLIL programmes cannot have such a far-reaching objective".

The differences between CLIL and immersion programmes as far as language objectives are concerned have been put forward by several authors. While for Lasagabaster and Sierra (2010: 372), immersion programmes, in contrast to CLIL, have as their objective developing students' competence to a similar level as that of native speakers, for Somers and Surmont (2012: 115), immersion programmes cannot reach such high levels of proficiency either. It has also been pointed out by several authors that the exposure to the target language is higher in immersion programmes than it is in CLIL (Dalton-Puffer, 2008; Pérez Vidal, 2011; Pérez Cañado, 2012: 318). By contrast, the functional proficiency achieved through CLIL programmes increases students' mobility while it develops the students' command of the foreign language without altering the curriculum (Jáimez Muñoz, 2007).

As for the target language, CLIL adapts to different languages, and it is often used to teach foreign, regional languages and minority languages. However, if there is a language that supersedes the rest and is widely used in CLIL implementation around the world, maintaining a hegemonic position, that would be English (Dalton-Puffer, Nikula, & Smit, 2010a; Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2010: 367; Lasagabaster, 2011: 6; Cenoz, 2015: 11; Pérez Cañado & Ráez Padilla, 2015: 2). For that reason, the acronym CEIL, which stands for Content and English Integrated Learning, is sometimes used to refer to CLIL programmes taught in English (Dalton-Puffer, Nikula, & Smit, 2010c; Dalton-Puffer, 2011).

The reason for English being the main language taught in CLIL settings, according to De Graaff *et al.* (2007), does not lie in the interest that students have in English-speaking cultures; it has been the instrumentality of English that has given rise to its popularity in international educational settings. For Dalton-Puffer *et al.* (2014: 215), the reasons for this dominance of the English language are not found in the researchers' interests, but in the linguistic ideology of society as a whole.

Apart from English, other international *linguae francae* are used in CLIL instruction around the world (Marsh, 2002; Eurydice, 2006; Dalton-Puffer *et al.*, 2014: 215; Cenoz, 2015; Pérez Cañado & Ráez Padilla, 2015: 2). Therefore, English is followed by French and German, and in some cases more than one foreign language is simultaneously taught through CLIL, thus giving rise to trilingual CLIL instruction, already in place in countries such as Spain, Austria, Sweden, Estonia, Latvia or the Netherlands (Pérez Cañado, 2012: 320).

As far as the exposure to the target language in CLIL settings is concerned, the ratio of exposure to the L2 varies depending on the programme. However, it is generally agreed that the percentage of the time that the L2 is used in class ranges from 10-20% to 50% (Järvinen, 2007: 4; Baker, 2011: 245). While Järvinen believes that the role of languages in different forms of bilingual education "seems to be defined by quantity rather than quality" (2007: 4) and points to the lack of research to determine the optimum exposure to the L2, Navés (2009: 36) sees in this exposure not only quantity, but also quality, which leads her to state that "[t]he one feature that all efficient CLIL programmes share is that they are programmes of varying

length that provide, nevertheless, a substantially greater and better exposure to the target language".

However, it has largely been proved by research on immersion and bilingual education settings that immersion without providing additional language support does not result in native-like productive skills on the part of the students (Järvinen, 2007: 4). CLIL is based on constructivism and cognitive theory (Lorenzo, 2007; Mehisto *et al.*, 2008; Coyle *et al.*, 2010), which entails that it builds on previous knowledge and that it encourages learning by doing (Pérez Cañado, 2016b: 6). Therefore, some language support or scaffolding (Mehisto *et al.*, 2008) must be provided in order to develop students' productive skills.

It is generally agreed that there is a place for the L1 in CLIL contexts as a methodological tool (Coyle *et al.*, 2010; Costa & D'Angelo 2011; Dalton-Puffer, 2011; Gierlinger, 2015: 4-5), although with differences, once again, in terms of the percentages in which it is appropriate to use it in class. In contrast, according to Gierlinger (2015: 5), the actual "methodological mediation and ownership of this space" is less agreed on. While some argue (Lasagabaster, 2013: 17) that the code-switching used by teachers is not implemented systematically in their daily teaching practices, Gierlinger (2015: 17), who conducted a study based on classroom observation, argues that the code-switching used by teachers responds to clear didactic intentions, it is not used haphazardly, and there is a potential of its use as a "pedagogical and learning support tool", as the use of the L1 in class presents "an affective and cognitive benefit for the communication and learning processes in CLIL".

Similarly, research findings point to the fact that students' use of the L1 in class is directed towards L2 learning and does not hinder L2 learning or reduce the opportunities to use the L2 in class. Students use the L1 for meta-language and employ the L1 in a way that helps them make sense of the L2 and to reflect upon language itself (Swain, 2000; Järvinen, 2007: 5). As a result, "[t]he role of the L1 and its use in immersion classrooms is changing from the traditional relatively rigid division of the two languages" (Järvinen, 2007: 5).

Another feature of CLIL is that, in its strong versions, it not only affects the target language subject, but the curriculum as a whole, since it is more than a technique for language teaching and learning (Cenoz *et al.*, 2013: 3; Cenoz, 2015: 16). According to Coyle (Piquer & Lorenzo, 2015: 89),

CLIL has a very important role to play in enabling educators to reconceptualise parts of the curriculum and the way that we deliver it in our schools. I see it not only as an enabler to re-look at the way that we deal with language learning, but more as a holistic view of what we do with language use and languages in a pluralistic sense.

The CLIL continuum, from weak to strong, ranges from foreign language classes in which content is also taught, to a curriculum that fully integrates both content and language in all subjects. In Pavón and Ellison's (2013: 69-70) words, "[CLIL programmes] can lean more on content-based instruction, where language teachers are responsible for bringing content matter to their classes, or they can be of the 'language-sensitive type', where content teachers bring the foreign language to their classes". Massler, Stotz, and Queisser (2014) establish a difference between Type A CLIL programmes, in which the focus is on content instruction in

the foreign language, and Type B programmes, in which language lessons are content-based. They also refer to Type C programmes, with integration of content and language as a subject on its own, but they acknowledge the rare frequency with which they occur.

In any case, the language subject is not substituted: the language teacher keeps on providing linguistic support for those subjects that are not from a linguistic area but which are (partly) taught in the foreign language. In other words, "CLIL does not happen instead of foreign language teaching but alongside it" (Dalton-Puffer *et al.*, 2014: 215). Bruton (2013: 588) reminds us that there are also strong and weak views on the benefits that a CLIL methodology may bring for the students. According to this author, while a strong view implies that CLIL improves both the target language and the content competences (Gajo, 2007), a weaker view supposes only an improvement of the former, while there is no damage to the competence of the student on the content learnt.

As can be seen, despite the heterogeneous traits that CLIL adopts depending on the context, there are some common features of all CLIL programmes that account for what CLIL is and what it is not. CLIL has undergone developments over the last two decades, but it has emerged as a "brand name" that stirs up positive thoughts about it such as "innovative, modern, effective, efficient and forward-looking" (Dalton-Puffer, Nikula, & Smit, 2010b: 3). Cenoz *et al.* (2013: 16), nonetheless, claim that, now that CLIL no longer has to fight for recognition, it would be a mistake to isolate it from other approaches, because insisting on its uniqueness would only be damaging to its future evolution.

2.4 CLIL assets and pitfalls

Being the challenge that it is and involving such a variety of aspects in its implementation, CLIL has attracted high praise and harsh criticism since its very beginning. Both assets and pitfalls have been pinpointed by all parties involved in CLIL: students, teachers, parents, researchers, and the wider community. CLIL is seen by many "as a lever for change and success in the linguistic arena" (Pérez Cañado, 2016d: 2), and, despite the criticism that it has also attracted, CLIL is a "well-recognised and useful construct for promoting L2/foreign language teaching" (Cenoz *et al.*, 2013: 16). Along these lines, we will bring to the fore the main assets and pitfalls of CLIL and its implementation.

2.4.1 Assets

CLIL's main assets are its efficiency, authenticity, low affective filter, increase in motivation, increased L2 input, natural learning, accuracy and other linguistic improvements, methodological advances, cognitive advantages, intercultural competence, and social advantages. As was mentioned before (cf section 2.3 on the characterisation of CLIL), the implementations of CLIL across different educational settings "are indeed highly variable" (Dalton-Puffer *et al.*, 2014: 215). Coyle (2007: 546) also points out this variability, and hence, flexibility, which could be considered "both a strength and potential weakness".

If we draw on the research on bilingual education, some of the assets that are commonly mentioned with regards to these kinds of programmes are related not only to L2 acquisition advances, but also to the respect towards other cultures that they foster, and the cognitive,

social and personal benefits that they entail (Baker, 2011: 249-250). Given the similarities that CLIL shares with its predecessors, it seems reasonable to think that these benefits are also shared. However, let us focus on the assets that have specifically been pointed out for CLIL programmes.

2.4.1.1 Efficiency

First of all, one of the most obvious assets of CLIL is its efficiency: given that both content and language are integrated in CLIL, as its name implies, it seems logical that CLIL makes teaching more efficient, since the resources used for the lessons are exploited in two ways: to improve the knowledge of content and to increase the students' language skills. Madrid (2006: 180) points to this advantage in bilingual education settings, claiming that "language education is more efficient when it takes place in authentic situations, such as in Geography and Maths classes". He also points to motivation as an enhancing factor for the acquisition of the L2 that comes into play when the students are interested in the subject that they are taught.

Lasagabaster and Sierra (2010: 367) also praise the increase in language learning productivity that occurs in CLIL programmes as opposed to intensive foreign language learning. According to Lasagabaster (2011: 6), in CLIL scenarios the exposure to the target language is increased "without taking up more time in an already crowded school timetable". Therefore, Lasagabaster argues that this is precisely one of the reasons why they are spreading in Spain: they are seen as the best way "to augment the traditionally low foreign command among Spanish students" (2011: 6). In Järvinen's (2007: 2) words, "[...] it seems to meet the

expectations of those who see CLIL as an opportunity to get more language learning without sacrificing too much teaching time".

The efficiency of CLIL programmes, viewed in terms of time commitment by some authors, could also take the form of cost effectiveness for others. According to Marsh (Graddol *et al.*, 2005), this cost effectiveness "is attracting political will", and it is being discussed "from Tanzania through to European countries", therefore playing a key role in the development of CLIL.

2.4.1.2 Authenticity

The authenticity of the interaction within the classroom settings in CLIL programmes has also been brought to the fore by several scholars (Madrid, 2006: 179; Lorenzo *et al.*, 2009a: 427; Coyle *et al.*, 2010: 5; Lasagabaster, 2011: 6-7). It is not necessarily a feature detached from efficiency, discussed above, since it has been argued that one of the reasons for the efficiency of CLIL is precisely the authenticity of communication that takes place in CLIL settings (Pérez Cañado, 2013: 17).

For Coyle *et al.* (2010: 5), CLIL brings about a level of authenticity in language learning that is higher than the one obtained through Communicative Language Teaching (henceforth, CLT). According to these authors, CLT already provided a holistic way to the foreign language learning and teaching scenario. Nevertheless, "[CLT] has been insufficient in realizing the high level of authenticity of purpose which can be achieved through CLIL".

Lasagabaster (2011: 7) underscores the idea that, in CLIL situations, real communication takes place, which makes learning meaningful and efficient. It can be inferred, nonetheless, that in CLIL settings, where communication is focused on the content rather than on the form, i.e., on what is said rather than on the way in which it is said, authentic and meaningful learning occurs, as it has been reported to happen in immersion programmes.

Nonetheless, it has been argued that this supposed authenticity may not be as real as some see it. Even though communication develops around the content matter and to a lesser extent around the formal aspects of the language, in the cases in which the non-native teachers are the instructors, it could seem artificial that the teacher and the students all communicate in the second language, therefore taking away some of its authenticity (Smith 2005; Pérez Cañado, 2013: 19-20).

2.4.1.3 Low affective filter

Another oft-cited asset of CLIL is that it promotes language acquisition in a low-affective-filter environment. According to Krashen (1982), most affective variables can be placed within one of the following subcategories: motivation, self-confidence, and anxiety. The concept of the low affective filter was first put forward by Dulay and Burt (Krashen, 1982), and it proposes a relationship between language acquisition and the personal attitudes that have an influence on it. The stronger the affective filter, the less optimal the conditions are for L2 learning. Creating a low-affective filter environment for the learning of a foreign language is essential for the development of the students' language skills, since those students who have an ideal

attitude towards language learning seek more input and have a lower affective filter than those who display worse attitudes towards learning. For Stevick (1976), even if those students with a stronger affective filter understand the message, it will not be acquired under such circumstances.

2.4.1.4 Motivation

Furthermore, the novelty of CLIL programmes for both teachers and students accounts for the motivation that they originate. Students' levels of motivation are considered to be enhanced through CLIL programmes (Marsh, 2000; Coyle, 2006; Merisuo-Storm, 2007; Seikkula-Leino, 2007; Lorenzo *et al.*, 2009a; Lasagabaster, 2011: 15; García Sánchez & Rodríguez Collado, 2015; Heras & Lasagabaster, 2015: 72; Lancaster, 2016). Motivation, as Lasagabaster (2011: 15) highlights, "goes hand in hand with increased foreign language achievement". Hence, it is not without importance that CLIL has been reported to have such an effect on students, since motivation typically decreases in formal schooling over sustained periods (Heras & Lasagabaster, 2015: 71) due to the students' natural development and to the use of certain teaching methodologies⁷.

⁷ However, a study conducted by Lasagabaster and Doiz (2015: 20) provided contrasting results to this statement, as they appreciated that motivation in non-CLIL lessons was sustained over a period of two or three years (two for older students and three for younger ones).

Motivation is increased due to the nature of the methodology used in CLIL, since, according to Pérez Cañado (2013: 17), it is simply "more intrinsically motivating" (Pérez Cañado, 2013: 17). Students who follow CLIL programmes have also been reported to be more autonomous, to have lower anxiety levels, and to be less inhibited when speaking in the foreign language (Arnold, 2011; Hüttner, Dalton-Puffer, & Smit, 2013). Hüttner and Smit (2014: 166) explain this by the focus that CLIL places on the target language as a tool for communication rather than a skill in itself.

Nevertheless, while some studies have found increased motivation in CLIL students, others reported no significant differences between the CLIL and non-CLIL groups (Heras & Lasagabaster, 2015; Lasagabaster & Doiz, 2015). In addition, another study (Seikkula-Leino, 2007) claimed high motivation to learn on the part of CLIL students, but found they had lower self-confidence concerning their use of the L2 than the non-CLIL students. This could be due to the fact that they are constantly exposed to language above their competence level.

Moreover, Otwinowska (2013) found that, if CLIL starts at an early age and is not carefully implemented, it could negatively impact students' attitudes and motivation to learn. Therefore, the age at which students study in a CLIL setting does have an effect on their motivation. It has also been suggested (Dalton-Puffer & Smit, 2013; Lasagabaster & Doiz, 2015: 21) that, while students in CLIL are indeed more motivated in the first year of the programme, this motivation wanes as CLIL becomes normal practice. This was later confirmed by Navarro Pablo and García Jiménez (2018: 87), as these researchers found that motivation levels were "more consistent" in primary than in secondary education. However, in any case,

motivation towards the subject matter is maintained in CLIL settings (Lasagabaster & Doiz, 2015: 22).

All in all, further research (with a greater number of participants and a stronger implementation of CLIL) needs to be carried out to study the effects of CLIL on the students' motivation and self-esteem, and whether this approach can effectively reduce the students' disengagement with formal schooling over a sustained period. Especially, more longitudinal studies on motivation are needed (Lasagabaster & Doiz, 2015: 3-4).

The effects of CLIL on motivation, however, transcend the students and impact other stakeholders too. Pérez Vidal (2013: 16) highlighted that all participants, including teachers, see their motivation increased as a result of CLIL, and explains that it could be due to the fact that "CLIL fulfils some of the demands of their mindsets, such as new technologies, access to mobility, and global communication".

In Dalton-Puffer's words (2007: 276), "the expectations regarding the outcomes of CLIL programmes can be rendered in terms of "more of everything produced at low anxiety levels". For Heras and Lasagabaster (2015: 72), the affective dimension is positively affected by CLIL programmes, as students "undergo less stress and anxiety in a learning environment in which the focus is not only on language forms but also on meaning and communication". CLIL increases the meaningfulness of the learning and reduces overall stress.

To sum up, while CLIL motivates students with certain learning styles, others are not positively affected by it. For Hüttner and Smit (2014: 166), therefore, the real advantage of CLIL with regard to its motivating potential "lies in the complementary nature of CLIL and in its diversity,

[which is] an inevitable consequence of CLIL being a set of localised responses to the rise of English as a global lingua franca" (Hüttner & Smit, 2014: 166).

2.4.1.5 Increased exposure to the L2

Another benefit of CLIL is that, due to the fact that students are taught certain subjects in their L2 which would otherwise have been instructed in their mother tongue, they are exposed for a longer time to the target language. This fact alone has certain benefits for their language learning, since they are receiving more language input.

Another of the principles of second language acquisition mentioned by the linguist Stephen Krashen is the input hypothesis. According to Krashen (1982: 21), "a necessary (but not sufficient) condition to move from stage i to stage $i + 1$ is that the acquirer understand input that contains $i + 1$, where 'understand' means that the acquirer is focussed [sic.] on the meaning and not the form of the message".

Following this principle, it is absolutely necessary that, for students to learn (or, more specifically, to *acquire*) the L2, they are provided with comprehensible input that is just above their level of competence in the L2. By providing them with such input, they will become acquainted with new vocabulary and grammatical structures and will be able to incorporate them in their speech. Krashen and Terrell (2000) also suggest that the L2 is best learnt when its learning resembles the acquisition of the mother tongue. By focusing on meaning rather than form, CLIL offers the possibility of following a natural learning of the L2.

However, input alone is not sufficient. Cummins (1979, 1981, 1984, 1999b), who differentiated between Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS) and Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP), suggested that tasks need to be challenging and contextualised in order to push the students' L2 forward. Likewise, Swain's (1985) Output Hypothesis came forth as a reaction to Krashen's comprehensible input hypothesis, which had the shortcoming of not explaining why students' productive skills are weaker than their receptive ones. For Swain, oral activities need to be challenging and demanding, so that the students' inter-lingua is able to develop.

It has been pointed out that CLIL can provide such input by increasing "meaningful exposure to the target language" through subject-matter teaching (Pérez Cañado, 2016d: 21) for longer periods than the non-CLIL groups. Therefore, in the CLIL approach, subjects who are taught in the foreign language add significant time of exposure to the L2 (Lasagabaster, 2011: 14), during which students are receiving comprehensible input.

2.4.1.6 Natural learning

In the same vein, and following on from Krashen's comprehensible input hypothesis and the distinction he makes between language learning and language acquisition (1982: 10), several scholars (Wolff, 2005; Coyle, 2008; Lasagabaster, 2011: 6; Pérez Cañado, 2013: 17; Heras & Lasagabaster, 2015: 72) have noted that implicit language learning (i.e., language acquisition) can take place in CLIL programmes due to the amount of language exposure received in such contexts (as opposed to more traditional EFL contexts) and to the fact that real

communication takes place in the classroom, in "real communicative situations" (Heras & Lasagabaster, 2015: 72). Therefore, the authenticity of the language, the fact that real communication is involved in the process, and the negotiation of meaning that takes place in the classroom (Pérez Cañado, 2013: 17) are key to the acquisition of the L2 by the students, given that the brain responds the same as it does with the mother tongue when languages are learned implicitly (Bialystok & Barac, 2012).

2.4.1.7 Accuracy and improvement of the L2 competence

Concerning the effects of CLIL on the students' L2 competence, Lorenzo *et al.* (2009: 427) point out that accuracy is achieved by CLIL students when their focus is on the "contextual significance", which reflects "the authenticity of the academic domain", demonstrating that CLIL improves learners' lexico-grammar language skills "while processing academic content" (2010: 427). Other studies have confirmed a development of grammatical accuracy in CLIL students that supersedes their monolingual peers (Hughes & Madrid, 2015).

Improvements in lexical skills on the part of CLIL learners have also been reported concerning specific language terminology (Lasagabaster, 2008; Heras & Lasagabaster, 2015: 72), and this has been explained by the fact that real communicative situations take place in the classroom, which renders the language used in class more meaningful. It has also been put forward that CLIL entails the learning of a more varied lexicon by the students (Dalton-Puffer, 2007; Hughes & Madrid, 2015), although this lexicon is of a scientific, technical and discipline-specific nature (Hüttner & Smit, 2014: 165). This is beneficial in order to broaden students' ability to

communicate beyond their personal sphere (Linares, Morton, & Whittaker, 2012), as well as their genres and discourse functions related to the subject matter (Hüttner & Smit, 2014: 166).

However, some argue that receptive (rather than productive) vocabulary is far more developed through CLIL, since no significant differences were found between CLIL and non-CLIL groups in terms of productive vocabulary use (Jiménez Catalán & Ruiz de Zarobe, 2009; Jiménez Catalán & Fontecha, 2015). In fact, even though Jiménez Catalán and Fontecha (2015) found an improvement of the use of lexical phrases in favour of sixth-grade CLIL students, they were not able to conclude that this difference could be pinned down to CLIL instruction rather than to overall competence in English, other affective and age factors or extramural exposure to the target language. This idea is consistent with the findings in Canadian immersion settings, where it was found that students' receptive skills were developed further than their productive ones (Harley *et al.*, 1991; Genesee & Lindholm-Leary, 2013; Tedick & Wesely, 2015).

Nevertheless, and returning to the CLIL scenario, more recent studies have not tallied with these findings. Pérez Cañado and Lancaster (2017) found, in fact, that CLIL students outstripped their non-CLIL peers in both receptive and productive oral skills. Furthermore, six months after the initial tests, they found that, while CLIL and non-CLIL students had levelled out in their receptive skills, CLIL students still outperformed their non-CLIL counterparts in oral production (cf. section 3.3.4.1).

Further studies should be conducted on this subject, in order to pinpoint the effects of CLIL on productive and receptive skills, since, as has been proved by Pérez Cañado and Lancaster

(2017), what constituted a weakness in Canadian immersion programmes is not necessarily also a weakness in CLIL programmes, and CLIL students might be able to benefit in both areas in the European CLIL scenario. Additionally, more research has been suggested concerning the productive and receptive use of the vocabulary acquired (Heras & Lasagabaster, 2015: 75).

2.4.1.8 Methodological advances

As far as methodology is concerned, there is an ongoing debate about whether CLIL entails a specific methodology to teaching and learning an L2, or whether it is merely an approach in which other methodologies (such as Task-Based Learning, collaborative work or the communicative approach) have a place at a moment that has been denominated a post-method era (Kumaravadivelu, 2001, 2006).

Some see in CLIL an opportunity for renewing outdated language learning and teaching methodologies, as a real "methodological revolution" (Pavón & Rubio, 2010: 48), as a breath of fresh air and a contribution "to the enrichment of education in general" (Pavón & Ellison, 2013: 68), not just in the field of language education. In the words of Baetens-Beardsmore (2001: 10), "experience with teaching content matter through more than one language is bringing new insights into improving general education programmes".

The positive aspects that CLIL can bring into general education stem from its student-centred, Task-Based, interactive and communicative approach, where new technologies have a role to play and communication is authentic and fluid in all directions for learning purposes. It brings

about a modernisation of educational practices (Coyle, 2002, De Bot 2002; Marsh, 2008; Coyle, 2010) and focuses on practical, "hands-on experiential learning" (Pérez Cañado, 2013: 14-15). This is why CLIL has been considered a catalyst for methodological changes in education (Pérez Cañado, 2013: 15). It is also imperative to bear in mind the development of both interpersonal and academic language skills (BICS and CALP) in the CLIL classroom and to foster interaction between the students (as well as between students and teacher) by collaborative and cooperative activities (Pavón & Ellison, 2013: 72).

2.4.1.9 Cognitive advantages

Nonetheless, the language that students acquire while in class due to increased exposure to the L2 and other favourable factors to learning, such as a low-anxiety environment, are not the only benefits of CLIL. Following on from the advantages of CLIL from a language development perspective, there are other areas that are positively affected by a content and language integrated approach to language learning.

CLIL brings about substantial and sustained developments in the students' minds, which go beyond the concepts acquired during formal education. Research from the fields of neurolinguistics and psychology confirm that the bilingual/multilingual brain undergoes certain changes that the monolingual brain does not experience (Marsh, 2009). The brain rewires itself producing short-term memory developments, more flexibility, better hypothesizing abilities, improved abilities to discern between what is relevant and what is not,

and increased multi-tasking abilities (Marsh, 2010: 4). Risk-taking and problem-solving skills have also been reported to benefit from a CLIL approach (Marsh, 2008).

2.4.1.10 Intercultural competence

In addition, in an increasingly mobile working culture, where internationalisation is gradually becoming a requirement rather than an asset, students benefit from CLIL learning by acquiring certain competences that will help them for their higher studies abroad and/or job mobility in their near future (Pérez Cañado, 2013: 18).

CLIL provides students with the linguistic tools to thrive in an international context, not only by preparing them to easily follow an international curriculum, but also to be future researchers in different fields, publishing material in international journals and be competent in their (future) areas of expertise. These objectives are in line with the European Commission's aim for a more integrated Europe and with the life-long learning principle that is being promoted throughout the continent.

2.4.1.11 Social advantages

Last but not least, CLIL's benefits are felt even beyond the academic environment, since it has been suggested that there are certain features of CLIL that have a positive impact on society as a whole, such as multicultural awareness and narrowing of the gender gap between males and females.

Pavón and Ellison (2013: 68) consider the benefits of CLIL similar to those of bilingual education and highlight García's (2009: 94-101) reported social advantages of following a bilingual programme, such as the professional recognition mentioned above, the higher income earned thanks to the ability to communicate in more than one language, and the students' increased awareness of themselves and of other cultures. In fact, multicultural awareness has also been listed as one of bilingual education's main advantages by other researchers such as Liberali (2013: 232-233), who sees in this approach an opportunity to open students' minds to other "ways for perceiving and understanding the world", to develop interpersonal strategies and to appreciate other ways of life, all of these necessary competences in a multicultural world.

Amongst the social advantages of following a CLIL approach that have been mentioned, some studies have suggested the benefits of closing the gender gap between males and females in language learning (Heras & Lasagabaster, 2015: 84). In a study conducted by Heras and Lasagabaster (2015: 84), in which motivation was studied in both CLIL and non-CLIL groups, no significant differences in affective factors (motivation and self-esteem) were found between the two groups until gender was added as a factor, in line with a previous study by Henry (2009). In the study by Heras and Lasagabaster, the CLIL programme was deemed responsible for blurring gender differences. Given the male-female differences in language learning, it is vital to ensure that equality is guaranteed among the students regardless of their gender. Nevertheless, as the authors indicate, the size of the sample, the low intensity of the CLIL programme, and the content subject chosen for the study (Physical Education) might have had a powerful impact on the result, even though other studies display similar effects of CLIL

on gender differences (Merisuo-Storm, 2007; Yassin, Marsh, Tek & Ying, 2009; San Isidro, 2010).

The reason for the blurring of these gender differences in CLIL contexts might lie in the fact that males counterbalance their disengagement with the linguistic discipline with interest towards the subject matter taught in the L2 (Lasagabaster, 2008; Heras & Lasagabaster 2015: 76). Therefore, both genders display a similar interest towards the CLIL subjects, as these integrate both language and content.

2.4.2 Pitfalls

However, CLIL also displays a series of pitfalls. Indeed, it has also been reported to have a number of disadvantages, and critical voices have been raised to voice some concerns about CLIL (e.g., Bruton 2011a, 2011b, 2013, 2015; Pérez Cañado, 2011, 2012; Cenoz *et al.*, 2013). While some of them are concerning the methodology in itself i.e., against the adoption of CLIL), some pitfalls have been pinpointed as regards previous research that presents methodological flaws, or vis-à-vis the way in which CLIL has been implemented, but not affecting the intrinsic aspects of the approach.

2.4.2.1 Conceptualisation

As for its conceptualisation, CLIL has been claimed to be "internally ambiguous", "not clearly defined" (Cenoz *et al.*, 2013: 2), and "excessively inclusive, encompassing too broad an array of possible program alternatives" (Pérez Cañado & Ráez Padilla, 2015: 3). As we discussed in section 2.2, there has been some debate about the concept of CLIL as an umbrella term, and the possible advantages and disadvantages that this entails. For many, nevertheless, an excessive inclusiveness is undoubtedly one of CLIL's pitfalls.

Some voices have been raised against CLIL as a suitable approach to tackle the language deficit (Bruton, 2011a, 2011b, 2013, 2015), denying the benefits that have been reported by empirical research, and considering that "for most of the pro-CLIL arguments there are equally valid counterarguments, and, in some cases, contrary empirical evidence, or even a lack of any evidence" (Bruton, 2013: 587). For Bruton (2013: 587), "CLIL diverts attention away from the shortcomings of mainstream FL teaching in state schools". Furthermore, Bruton (2015: 121) argues, the improvements seen in the research for CLIL groups are not inherent to CLIL, but to the number of hours dedicated to the FL.

Part of the criticism that CLIL has attracted lately lies in the idea that some of the expectations of CLIL programmes are ultimately unrealistic and too demanding for all the stakeholders involved. In Bruton's words (2013: 589), "nobody will deny that CLIL is hard work for teachers, and it is no easy matter for students". Students may feel overwhelmed about the need to assimilate more (language *and* content) over the same period of time. This, which could make "assimilating such content more intimidating", as Pérez Cañado (2013: 19) underscores, "may

well lead to a feeling of inferiority and may negatively impinge on students' confidence", therefore exerting the opposite effect on the students' perception on content and language learning.

The difficulty to follow a CLIL approach consists in the dual focus that needs be placed on content and language in a balanced way (Cammarata & Tedick, 2012: 259), which increases the difficulty of both learning and teaching (Pavón & Ellison 2013: 73). However, this is not always necessarily a drawback, since it makes students and teachers alike be "more cognitively engaged" (Pavón & Ellison 2013: 73).

Some other practical issues in CLIL, rather than challenging directly the essence of CLIL and the desirability to choose this approach over others, act as a reminder of the obstacles that need to be sorted for a more efficient, useful and enjoyable teaching and learning experience. Pavón and Ellison (2013: 71) list some of the problems that arise in CLIL when it is put into practice in the classroom and raise their concern over practical issues such as, for example, teacher training, teacher collaboration or materials development.

2.4.2.2 Lack of suitable materials

Indeed, one of the oft-mentioned drawbacks concerning the practical aspects of CLIL is the lack of appropriate materials that have a dual focus on language and content and which follow the participative and communicative methodology usually associated with CLIL lessons (Navés, 2009: 33), as they are vital for the success of CLIL programmes (Navés & Muñoz, 1999,

in Navés, 2009: 33). As for the few CLIL materials that are available, they lack "quality, practicality, and feasibility (Ruiz Gómez & Nieto García 2009)" (Pérez Cañado, 2016d: 4), and often, the foreign language publishing industry simply includes CLIL add-ons to traditional textbooks (Banegas, 2013; Dalton-Puffer *et al.*, 2014: 215). Therefore, it is vital to provide guidelines for the design of appropriate materials (Pérez Cañado, 2016d: 4).

In Pérez Cañado's words, "the lack of CLIL materials has transpired as one of the main hurdles teachers currently have to face" (2016d: 4), because it forces teachers to prepare their own materials, which is an "intimidating task" (Pérez Cañado, 2013: 19). In such cases in which teachers are responsible for manufacturing their own teaching resources, ICT acts as a relevant support to search for information (Pérez Cañado, 2012: 320) and as a useful tool to share these newly created materials and information with other colleagues.

2.4.2.3 Lack of appropriate teacher training

Insufficient teacher training is one of the most worrying issues when it comes to CLIL. For a methodological approach to settle and be fruitful, it does not suffice to write a law whereby the approach is taken on by the educational system. The stakeholders involved (especially the teachers, who will ultimately follow it in their lessons) also need to be prepared and trained. To do otherwise would be to place an enormous burden on the teachers. In fact, several studies on bilingual and multilingual education (Montague, 1997) have found that teacher pre-service and ongoing training is of utmost importance for the development of the programme.

In the case of CLIL, its fast spread across the continent has outpaced the provision of teacher training (Navés, 2009; Rubio Mostacero, 2009; Cabezas Cabello, 2010; Pérez Cañado, 2012, 2013, 2015, 2016d, 2018b; Gálvez Gómez, 2013: 182; De la Maya Retamar & Luengo González, 2015; Pérez Cañado & Ráez Padilla, 2015), leaving teachers to cope with its implementation (Pérez Cañado, 2018b). As Graddol (Graddol *et al.*, 2005) puts it,

In many countries they just don't seem to be equipped to implement CLIL. When it works it works extraordinarily well, but it is actually quite a difficult to do well. My feeling is that it may actually take 30 or 40 years for a country to really to pull this one off.

For Pérez Cañado, (2013: 18-19, 2016b: 6-7, 2018b: 2), the main possible hurdles of CLIL are generally faced by teachers, since they are forced to double their efforts, to take on new initiatives, and to learn how to collaborate with other teachers for a better integration. Furthermore, although teachers are not expected to be perfectly bilingual in the FL (Madrid, 2006), teachers who participate in CLIL have the need to become competent in several areas (Marsh, Mehisto, Wolff, & Frigols, 2010: 5): the content subject, the language, best teaching and learning practice and the three of them combined, along with the way in which to integrate CLIL within the educational institution.

In a study conducted by Pérez Cañado (2016d) on teacher training needs for CLIL, it came to light that the two most crucial aspects in teacher training that needed to be addressed were the proficiency of the teachers in the L2 and training in the "theoretical underpinnings of CLIL" (2014: 4), as well as practical aspects of content and language integrated learning such as "student-centered methodologies" (2014: 4). The lack of appropriate training programmes for

teachers and of institutional support were also voiced as a concern by CLIL teachers (Pérez Cañado, 2013: 18-19). These findings mirror those of previous studies (Blanca Pérez, 2009; García Mayo, 2009, in Pérez Cañado, 2016d; Lasagabaster & Ruiz de Zarobe, 2010), and according to the author (2013: 3), this cornerstone "must be covered prior to turning to other lacunae".

As far as the language deficiencies on the part of the teachers are concerned, they are an aspect that creates uneasiness among the researchers (Bruton, 2013: 593; Pérez Cañado, 2013: 18-19; Pérez Cañado & Ráez Padilla, 2015) and the teachers, since it affects both NLA and FL teachers (Pérez Cañado, 2016d: 3)⁸, and it has been suggested that, instead of NLA teachers instructing students via the FL, it is language teachers who should be trained to impart specialised content lessons (Bowler, 2007).

De la Maya Retamar and Luengo González (2015) identified some key areas in which teacher training is insufficient in the primary education degree. First of all, the time dedicated to the study of the foreign language is scarce, when compared to a foreign language degree. Furthermore, didactic training in the L2 is necessary, for there is a complete lack of it in some cases. Second, training is required on basic theoretical aspects of CLIL and development of bilingual programmes. Third, there is no coherence between the training received in class and the classroom in terms of languages that are taught. Last but not least, graduates are not

⁸ In Andalusia, a study found that teachers who were involved in the CLIL programme had a low level of English, not exceeding a B2 CEFR level in English (Lorenzo *et al.*, 2009a).

appropriately informed of the functioning of bilingual programmes, which pose difficulties for their incorporation into the latter.

Nonetheless, more recent studies (Pérez Cañado, 2017, 2018b) have evinced some progress on the teacher training front. Considerable efforts have been taken by the regional authorities in Andalusia to minimise the training deficiencies experienced by teachers, and the results are promising. Although teachers (especially, NLA teachers) still demand linguistic upgrade courses so that their BICS, fluency, and language used for everyday communication improve, and this fact is still true especially for NLA and primary education teachers (Pérez Cañado, 2018b: 6), research has shown that teachers now have a better understanding of the theoretical underpinnings of CLIL. It is necessary to remark here that teachers do not always make the most of the resources and training courses at hand, as evinced by Pérez Cañado (2017: 14), and it is only when they have reached a certain linguistic level (C1) that they start attending courses abroad (2018b: 7). Collaboration between teachers is also on the rise (Pérez Cañado, 2017: 14, 2018b: 7), even though extra hours are still required on the part of teachers so that coordination is effectively carried out, and this takes a toll on teachers' motivation.

To put it in a nutshell, teacher training deficiencies are to be faced immediately, for they not only affect the teachers themselves but also have an effect on the students and the curriculum in general too. Therefore, actions should be taken to ensure that correct training (to improve linguistic proficiency as well as to delve deeper into the meaning of CLIL and how to put it into action) is provided to all the teachers involved in these programmes, given that "the training which is currently being provided is not fitting the bill" (Pérez Cañado, 2018b: 9). To sum up,

"ongoing professional development is undoubtedly still one of the main niches to be addressed within CLIL teacher training, especially vis-à-vis linguistic and methodological courses abroad, exchange programs, and study licences" (Pérez Cañado, 2017: 19-20).

2.4.2.4 Lack of teacher collaboration

In addition to the difficulties that teachers face to carry out effectively their tasks in CLIL programmes, there is still a reticence among them, in most cases, to collaborate and take action together. For Marsh, debates on CLIL across the continent can be seen as an opportunity to get together and to discuss the subject, stopping the image of "lonely rider[s]" (Graddol *et al.*, 2005) that teachers have. However, according to this scholar, some countries "have been slow to respond to this as an opportunity".

Communication and coordination between teachers should not only flow amongst language teachers or subject teachers on their own. In such a demanding programme which focuses on several aspects at once and requires an extra amount of preparation on the part of the teachers, success does not exclusively depend on FL or content-matter proficiency; it also involves collaboration and teamwork between FL and NLA teachers (Czura, Papaja, & Urbaniak, 2009; Ruiz Gómez & Nieto García, 2009; Pavón & Ellison, 2013: 70).

2.4.2.5 The question of elitism

Stemming from immersion programmes, bilingual education programmes, and European and international schools, one of the most often mentioned drawbacks of CLIL is its supposed elitist nature, where students who participate in the programme have been carefully selected beforehand (Bruton, 2011a; 2011b; 2013) in, as has been considered, an "[o]vert streaming of students" (Pérez Cañado, in press for 2019: 2). In fact, this critique seems to be right in some cases, and there are some researchers (such as Liberali, 2013: 232) who testify to their elitist nature in certain areas (Brazil in her case).

However, as Hüttner and Smit (2014: 162) point out, "CLIL in itself is not inherently discriminatory", which is a statement Bruton (2015: 124) agrees with. It could be argued, though, that, as could occur with any other approach, it lends itself to being used in a discriminatory way. The ways in which education can be discriminatory, according to Hüttner and Smit (2014: 161-162) are:

1. By increasing fees which the less wealthy cannot afford, therefore impeding their enrolment,
2. By practicing "educational discrimination" and diving students from a certain age onwards based on their academic skills, and
3. Through language, by using a language as a means of instruction that is not the student's L1, or when featuring as subjects. For example, private schools in the UK

have taken the lead in foreign language teaching when compared to UK public schools.

CLIL has gradually become entrenched in mainstream education programmes (Marsh, 2002, 2005), and it is expected to continue doing so as it evolves, no longer benefitting just the academic elite (Coyle, 2009). Virtually all students have access to mainstream programmes, and assertions concerning the selective nature of CLIL for economic reasons cannot be sustained. Its embedding in national educational policies also means that educational discrimination is not possible, at least not in a higher degree than in non-CLIL programmes, since each country closely monitors that national standards are followed.

As far as discrimination through language is concerned, it could be argued that discrimination already takes place in non-CLIL contexts when assuming the group majority's L1 is each student's L1 (Hüttner & Smit, 2014: 161-162). However, this alleged discrimination would not occur in CLIL contexts, where the language of instruction is different from the group majority's native language. Besides, English, which is the most commonly chosen language for the CLIL programme, is "one of the essential educational goals of the 21st century" (Paran, 2013), regardless of students' mother tongue.

Nevertheless, Lasagabaster and Sierra (2010: 372), point out that, despite the fact that immigrant students commonly take part in immersion programmes, they hardly ever do so in CLIL programmes, largely because up to the 2008/2009 academic year students who were willing to participate in CLIL in the Basque country (where this study took place) were assessed in English, Spanish and Basque languages. Immigrant students, more often than not, did not

meet the Basque language requirements, and, as a result, were excluded from CLIL. Hence, the authors warn us that "these innovative CLIL experiences are in danger of becoming elitist" (2010: 373). Somers and Surmont (2012: 115), on the other hand, in reference to the exclusion of immigrants in the Basque country, believe that "this does not constitute any generalizable difference between CLIL and immersion. Nor should it be inferred that immigrants cannot cope in CLIL programmes".

As a matter of fact, in this particular case, it was the Basque language –not English– requirements that prevented these students from entering the programme. In fact, it was not CLIL which was elitist in essence, but the requirements put forward by the local authorities that excluded certain students from taking part in CLIL. Hüttner and Smit (2014: 162) put forward that, contrary to discriminatory and elitist criticism of CLIL, evidence from CLIL contexts (Denman, Tanner, & de Graaff, 2013) shows the positive effect that it actually has on the disadvantaged students, who did not undergo a selection process beforehand, and remind us of the importance of taking issue with discrimination at schools.

What remains, then, in contexts such as Andalusia, where the language spoken regionally is also the national language and no discrimination takes place based on language competence, is students' self-selection. According to Bruton (2013: 593), at a symposium on CLIL in Andalusia, in Southern Spain, some participants voiced their concern that, while schools were not allowed to select students for their CLIL initiatives, in those cases in which students could opt (but were not obliged to) for CLIL streams, it was the higher economic status students who chose the CLIL option due, arguably, to more motivation towards schooling. This left out the

remnant students, who followed a more traditional non-CLIL programme (which had not changed, despite the introduction of a CLIL branch in the school). Bruton (2013: 593) sees in this a "disguised streaming" of students. Therefore, it would be in the students' and their families' choice to decide between a CLIL and a non-CLIL programme that discrimination resides. However, it is worth underscoring that this is not an intrinsic feature of CLIL, but of any possible programme –which students could choose whether to follow or not– designed to change the status of language (or any other subject) learning and teaching anywhere in the world. In fact, optionality, for Navés (2009: 29), is one of the characteristics shared by efficient BE and immersion programmes. Likewise, for Swain and Lapkin (1982), in immersion programmes, optionality rather than imposition is a feature.

Bruton (2013: 594) adds: "[f]urthermore, if the content teaching is already below expected standards, as it seems to be in Andalusia in Spain, CLIL is probably not going to help, except for cases where there has been selection, in which case the overall averages might decrease". Therefore, according to this author, the successes attributed to CLIL are due to the disguised selection of CLIL programmes and not to the intrinsic nature of this approach, because, for him, "it seems that many CLIL initiatives [...] have been limited to students who have been selected in some way or other" (Bruton, 2011b: 524). Additionally, selection in CLIL programmes, for Bruton (2013: 593), also includes student drop-out. In his own words, "[d]rop-outs are another element of CLIL that are conveniently ignored (Apsel, 2012)" (Bruton, 2013: 593). According to Apsel (2012), there is a two-fold selection in some German CLIL programmes: one upon entry, and a second one when they drop out due to their inability to cope with the programme for not having the required proficiency in the L2. For all these

reasons, Bruton (2013: 595) concludes by remarking that "it is very possible that deficit FL teaching might become even more deficient, especially for the less academically able, the less linguistically proficient, or the less economically privileged".

The claims raised by Bruton in the Andalusian landscape have been labelled "inaccurate" by Pérez Cañado (2016b: 9), who reflects upon equality and wonders "[w]hat greater equality of opportunity can there be than making CLIL program-wide in compulsory public education stages?", while reminding us of the goal which the Andalusian authorities have for the future of extending CLIL to all primary and compulsory secondary education schools, therefore eliminating self-selection.

Moreover, over the last few years, studies that have ensured the homogeneity, and, therefore, comparability of students, have shed light over the actual effects of CLIL on students' learning when these students come from a variety of contexts and SES. In other words, setting aside the alleged overt or disguised streaming of students, what are the effects of CLIL on students from different backgrounds? While certain studies have found that socio-economic (SES) status affected both CLIL and non-CLIL students (Anghel, Cabrales, & Carro, 2016; Fernández Sanjurjo, Fernández Costales, & Arias Blanco, 2017), other studies have pointed out that, in CLIL settings, the existing divide between students from higher and lower SE and between urban and rural areas is minimised, especially towards the end of CSE (compulsory secondary education), possibly due to a levelling effect of CLIL (Rascón Moreno & Bretones Callejas, 2018; Pavón Vázquez, 2018; Pérez Cañado, in press for 2019).

Even though most scholars seem to favour CLIL initiatives due to the inclusiveness of the programme and the beneficial outcomes that have been reported from them (Wiesemes, 2009: 45; Pérez Cañado, 2016b: 9), the mere existence of mixed (if not contradictory) opinions concerning the effect of CLIL as an approach on disadvantaged or less academically able students suggests that this issue must be looked into by further research. In any case, to quote Hüttner and Smit (2014: 162), who refer specifically to Bruton's 2013 article, "[g]eneral accusations launched against a highly diversified teaching approach such as CLIL, lack the investigative rigour and applicability that a matter as serious as educational discrimination actually requires".

2.4.2.6 Other sociological and political aspects

Apart from the practical or conceptual aspects of CLIL as an approach mentioned above, there are some sociological or political aspects that need attention from researchers and which should be debated to determine whether or not CLIL should be considered as a desirable approach to language learning and teaching, or at least, to be borne in mind. The first of these issues would be the possible drawbacks of being bilingual.

As Madrid (2006: 177) points out, bilingualism is sometimes viewed as a problem by some administrations. These consider the bilingual citizens as "disloyal", because their identities differ from the rest. As examples, he mentions some regions in Spain where other languages are spoken: the Basque Country, Catalonia and Galicia. Nevertheless, this phenomenon does not occur only in Spain. Madrid (2006: 177) points out the controversies that have arisen in

the US as a result of bilingualism, such as some citizens' consideration of bilingualism as a threat to unity and a tool for division, along with other problems such as "identity conflicts", "social problems" and "social tensions", "social discrimination", and "hostility towards bilingual communities" (2006: 177). In sum, as Baker (2011: 81) puts it, "[l]anguage is often viewed as a badge of loyalty" in a monolingual and centralised bureaucracy in which monolingualism is seen as stable, while multilingualism leads to conflict (2011: 80).

However, the possible problems arising from bilingualism do not stop at the social level. McLaughlin (1984) analysed them from the point of view of psycholinguistics and concluded that there are other critical issues in bilingualism such as the developmental sequence, the interference between the languages, or code-switching.

2.4.2.7 English in the world

The English language is, by far, the most studied language in CLIL programmes (Dalton-Puffer *et al.*, 2010a; Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2010: 367; Lasagabaster, 2011: 6; Cenoz, 2015: 11; Pérez Cañado & Ráez Padilla, 2015: 2). In fact, Dalton-Puffer *et al.* (2010c), and Dalton-Puffer (2011) have suggested the acronym CEIL (Content and English Integrated Learning) to refer to this reality (cf. section 2.3). As Hüttner and Smit (2014: 165) claim, the status of English as the mainspring of CLIL has led to a minority of schools where languages other than English are taught in CLIL. This preference of English over other languages, although impossible to pin down to a specific reason, reflects the status of English both inside and outside the school (Hüttner & Smit, 2014: 165).

English is undoubtedly the most influential language in the world nowadays (Weber, 1999: 22), and it has been suggested that one in four people around the world are able to communicate in English (Crystal, 2003: 69). Over the last decades, a noticeable boom in English language learning has taken place, even in countries where, for political or geographical reasons, languages other than English were leading the language learning scenario (Weber, 1999: 26). The reasons for the emergence of English in the world that have been proposed point to British colonial power and the military power of the English-speaking nations (Weber, 1999: 22-23; Crystal, 2003: 29-71), the rise of the US as an economic power (Crystal, 2003: 59), or the number of non-native speakers of English in the world, along with the social attitude to the language (Kachru, 1992: 355).

As a result of this preponderance of English around the world, being competent at a useful level in the language is no longer confined to the elite, but a necessary skill that is increasingly compared to having the ability to read and write in the past or to being computer literate (Graddol, 2006), and which is necessary nowadays to gain professional status (Grin, 2001; Dalton-Puffer, Hüttner, Jexenflicker, Schindelegger, & Smit, 2008, in Hüttner & Smit, 2014: 165). In other words, learning English is "a necessity for all" (Hüttner & Smit, 2014: 165). Therefore, economic, financial and political reasons have led to English being included in the curriculum in many countries around the world (Baker, 2011: 83).

It is worth noting here, however, that this surge of learning English is at the core of the spread of English as a Lingua Franca, (henceforth, ELF) and not as a mother tongue. The majority of users of English in the world today speak it as their second or foreign language (Crystal, 2003).

*The effects of CLIL in monolingual communities:
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In fact, the ratio of native vs. non-native speakers of English is around 1:3, and the number of non-native speakers is increasing more rapidly than the number of native speakers, due to the unequal birth rate in countries where English is a second language (Crystal, 2003). Therefore, the ratio of native speakers of English is a downward trend, whereas the ratio of non-native speakers is currently undergoing a rise in number. In fact, Graddol (2006: 60) compared the evolution of different languages bearing in mind the number of native speakers they have, and came to the conclusion that, if only 60 years ago English was second in the ranking, it had now "slipped to fourth place", and it will be challenged by Arabic in the near future, since he foresees that, in 2050, only 6% of the world population will speak English as their MT.

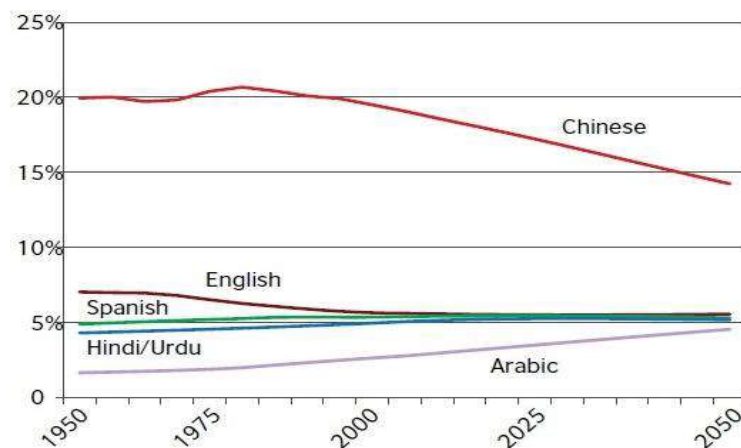


Figure 2. Trends in native-speaker numbers for the world's largest languages, expressed as the proportion of the global population who speak them (Graddol, 2006: 60)

As a result of the status of English around the world, the language has grown independently of its native speakers, who are no longer in control of its future developments (Graddol, 2006: 12). In Weber's words, "International English has become independent of any one English-speaking country, even the USA" (1999:25), and we have reached a point where "English [...] belongs to everybody and nobody, to no specific nation or language group, but to all those who speak it irrespective of origin, competence or culture" (Baker, 2011: 84).

Not only did the language become independent of its users: it entailed a detachment between the language and the culture of the countries where English was originally spoken as an L1 (such as the UK, the US, or Canada, amongst others). Therefore, our viewpoint concerning English should be consistent with this reality. In Kachru's (1992: 362) words:

We must also cease to view English within the framework appropriate for monolingual societies. We must recognise the linguistic, cultural, and pragmatic implications of various types of pluralism; that pluralism has now become an integral part of the English language and the literatures written in English in various parts of the non-Western world. The traditional presuppositions and ethnocentric approaches need reevaluation. In the international contexts, English represents a repertoire of cultures, not a monolithic culture.

In response to the change of paradigm the English language has undergone, the English as a Lingua Franca movement sprang forth, whereby "non-native speakers [...] and all English varieties, native or non-native, are accepted in their own right rather than evaluated against a NSE benchmark" (Jenkins, Cogo, & Dewey, 2011: 283-284). English is regarded as a valuable asset for international communication and as a neutral global language (Baker, 2011: 85).

For Hüttner and Smit (2014: 165), the positive uptake of English in some subjects within CLIL programmes reported by Dalton-Puffer *et al.*, (2008, in Hüttner & Smit, 2014: 165), "underscores the enacted reality of English as professional language and (future) lingua franca". In such sense, they suggest CEIL can serve as practice for the students' future professional careers, and, therefore, as motivation for further learning.

Nevertheless, for others, the fast expansion of English constitutes a problem of imperialism, of dominance of the traditional English-speaking countries over the rest of the world and a perpetuation of inequalities that oppress the weak (Baker, 2011: 87). Therefore, some critical voices (Phillipson, 1992, 2003, 2008; Pennycook, 1998; O'Regan, 2014) have been raised against English as a Lingua Franca, particularly concerning the claims that it evens out inequalities based on the speakers' MT. For Phillipson (2008: 5), "Labelling English as a lingua franca, if this is understood as a culturally neutral medium that puts everyone on an equal footing, is simply false". O'Regan (2014: 540), furthermore, states that ELF is not ideology and culture free, but "neoliberal-bound" and "geoculturally Eurocentric". As a matter of fact, English has been labelled the "Tyrannosaurus Rex of languages" (Swales, 1997: 376) –referring more specifically to English for academic purposes– and the perpetrator of "linguistic imperialism" (Phillipson, 1992). Language power has also played its part in the decolonisation discourse, which led Gandhi (1927, in Baker, 2011: 87) to accuse English of being an intoxicating language that encourages mental slavery. The idea of neocolonialism also led Wa Thiong'o (2013) to claim that "English is not an African language", and it has relevance in the academic and language education context, upon which Kumaravadivelu (2016) reflects when he asks: "Can the Subaltern Act?". Being a Non-Native speaker of English, in fact, has some

negative effects when finding a job as an English teacher regardless of the level of qualification.

Weber also suggested that the expansion of a language "takes place at the expense of the smaller, local languages" (1999: 24-25). In a context where about half the languages in the world are endangered (UNESCO, 2011), and a language dies every two weeks (Crystal, 2007: 336), such claims cannot be taken lightly. Some of the causes that have been suggested to explain language decline and death have been "[p]ower, prejudice, discrimination, marginalization and subordination" (Baker, 2011: 47). Language endangerment is an issue that must be tackled, irrespectively of its cause, since "[w]hen a language dies, its vision of the world dies with it" (Baker, 2011: 45).

Returning to the CLIL scenario, the ongoing debate about whether the spread of English entails linguistic or cultural imperialism has also had an impact on this approach. It has been claimed that the teaching of English through CLIL provokes reluctance to a certain degree in some European countries such as Sweden, Slovenia or Iceland, since, according to Marsh, they are "frightened of the power of English in terms of their first language" (Graddol *et al.*, 2005).

Since CLIL takes place in academic settings, the academic register would be the first to suffer the consequences, whichever they may be. For Swales, loss in the academic register would entail an impoverishment of the creative national culture (1997: 379). For Graddol (Graddol *et al.*, 2005), moreover, there is also an issue of identity change: when learning content through English, there is more than specific vocabulary that is acquired by the students: pedagogical discourses within specific disciplines and attitudes to learning, among other

aspects of teaching and learning, are also portrayed along with the language. This leads Graddol to wonder whether teachers in other countries are actually given the opportunities to develop their own pedagogical discourses in English, or whether they are actually being imported, and he reports on the cases of Hong Kong and China, where "disjunction in learning styles" in Chinese and English were causing problems from primary school.

It could be argued, nonetheless, that in CLIL, the additional language used for the teaching of content is not limited to a majority one: it could be any other language. Going back to the very definition of CLIL provided by Dalton-Puffer (2007: 1) "[t]he term *Content-and-Language-Integrated-Learning* (CLIL) refers to educational settings where a language other than the students' mother tongue is used as a medium of instruction". As we can see, there is no requirement for the language whereby content is learnt to be English, French or any other majority language: the only requirement is for it to differ from the students' MT. In Cenoz's (2015: 11) words, "CLIL refers to 'an additional' language and not only to English and this could be any language other than the first language, including foreign, second or minority languages". Dalton-Puffer *et al.* (2014: 215) also include migrant and bordering languages under possible languages of instruction in CLIL.

Furthermore, some see in the spread of English a natural consequence of globalisation (Ostler, 2008: 207), which does not harm any minority languages provided English spreads as a *Lingua Franca*. When this is the case, English is merely used for practical purposes of communication, and each of the interlocutors still maintains strong links to his/her mother tongue. The problem, he suggests, arises when English (or any other majority language) is spread as a MT:

that would indicate that "some other mother tongue has lost a potential learner in the new generation" (2008: 208).

Graddol (2006: 60), in turn, refutes the hypothesis that the spread of English is engulfing minority languages, and reminds us that the loss of languages is not a modern issue. In his words,

The number of languages in the world has been falling throughout modernity and may be accelerating. The spread of global English is not the direct cause of language endangerment. The downward trend in language diversity began before the rise of English as a global lingua franca. English has greatest impact on national languages, higher up the linguistic 'food chain'.

The effect of English on other languages continues to be a widely discussed topic (cf. Pennycook, 1994; García, Skutnabb-Kangas, & Torres Guzmán, 2006; Leung & Street, 2012). However, one possible approach to the study of English in academic settings that minimises its impact on other foreign languages was proposed by Seidlhofer (2003: 22-23). She suggested English should be seen as separate from the other foreign languages at school and more as a subject on *language awareness*. For Hüttner and Smit (2014: 165), this would ensure "ecological space for other languages".

2.4.2.8 Shortage of research on CLIL

It is widely agreed that the implementation of CLIL has outpaced research (Pérez Cañado, 2016a). In fact, "the single most widely consensual affirmation with respect to CLIL in the

specialised literature is the dire need for further research" (Pérez Cañado, 2012: 316). However, sometimes, the research available lacks validity and reliability (cf. Bruton, 2013, Pérez Cañado, 2016b: 11), and it is vital to conduct quality research that is reliable and shows robust results on CLIL.

Bruton (2011b: 528-529) points out some of the flaws that can be found in CLIL research. As a general overview, he underscores four main deficiencies in research:

1. Results of some empirical research can be interpreted and biased in various ways, depending very often on researcher interests;
2. Some of the studies are very limited, and the results questionable in numerous ways, particularly in terms of pretesting, sampling, and observation data on actual instruction;
3. Most of the non-CLIL groups are on average less proficient, or probably less motivated to begin with, suggesting that the CLIL groups attract the more proficient/motivated;
4. Both quantitative and qualitative results such as these are not very encouraging for CLIL, especially since the CLIL groups typically start off more motivated and with higher initial scores.

Pérez Cañado (2011, 2012, 2016b) also identifies caveats in the research on CLIL, and provides a taxonomy to identify the main flaws that are found in this research, classifying them into three main groups (2016b: 12-13): variables, research design, and statistical methodology. She

calls for a "new research agenda" that addresses the ways in which CLIL is conceptualised, implemented and investigated.

To sum up, CLIL, as any other language teaching approach, is highly dependent on the context in which it takes place. Even though European guidelines are being taken into account for language development in an increasingly multicultural society, each country and region has its own features to which CLIL should adapt. Likewise, learners of English display an array of learning styles, and will respond to some approaches better than others. CLIL, with its pros and its cons, can be an effective approach to learning a second language with an adequate communicative level. However, it would be a mistake to suggest it is the only possible answer to language teaching in the 21st century or that "one size –or teaching method– fits all" (Hüttner & Smit, 2014: 163). For that reason, thorough research is needed to pinpoint the exact effects of CLIL, in line with the so-called post-method era that we live in (Kumaravadivelu, 2001, 2006).

3. RESEARCH ON CLIL

After having reviewed the predecessors of CLIL, its definition and characterisation, and having pondered on CLIL's main positive and negative aspects, we will now provide a review of the main studies conducted on CLIL. We will first provide an overall look at the CLIL literature in Europe; then, we will focus on Spain, with its bilingual and monolingual communities; and finally, we will take a closer look at the Andalusian scenario. For each geographical region, we will first comment on the studies conducted on the effects of CLIL on the L2, followed by its effects on the L1 and on the NLA subject. Then, the stakeholders' perspectives will be analysed.

3.1 Research on CLIL: Europe

Research on CLIL began to shed light on initial findings in the mid-2000s (Dalton-Puffer *et al.*, 2014: 214-215) in different national contexts. However, research is still scarce. In Dalton-Puffer's words (2011: 185), "few of the 27 national education systems have actually responded with substantial investments into CLIL implementation, teacher education, and research, leaving the impetus to the grassroots stakeholders". However, Spain and the Netherlands are exceptions to this rule, since extensive research is being conducted in these two countries (Dalton-Puffer, 2011: 185).

Eurydice (2006) reported that CLIL programmes were being implemented all across Europe, with the exception of a few countries (Cyprus, Denmark, Greece, Iceland, Liechtenstein, and

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Portugal) which, at that time, did not have CLIL provision either in mainstream education, in pilot projects or in a combination of the two. However, the latest Eurydice report (Eurydice, 2017) saw an evolution in CLIL provision across Europe, since most of the abovementioned countries (with the exception of Iceland and Greece) have since joined the CLIL bandwagon, even if no regional or minority languages existing in the region are targeted through CLIL and the focus is only placed on foreign languages.

The current map of Europe with regards to the countries' degree of CLIL implementation is, therefore, as follows:

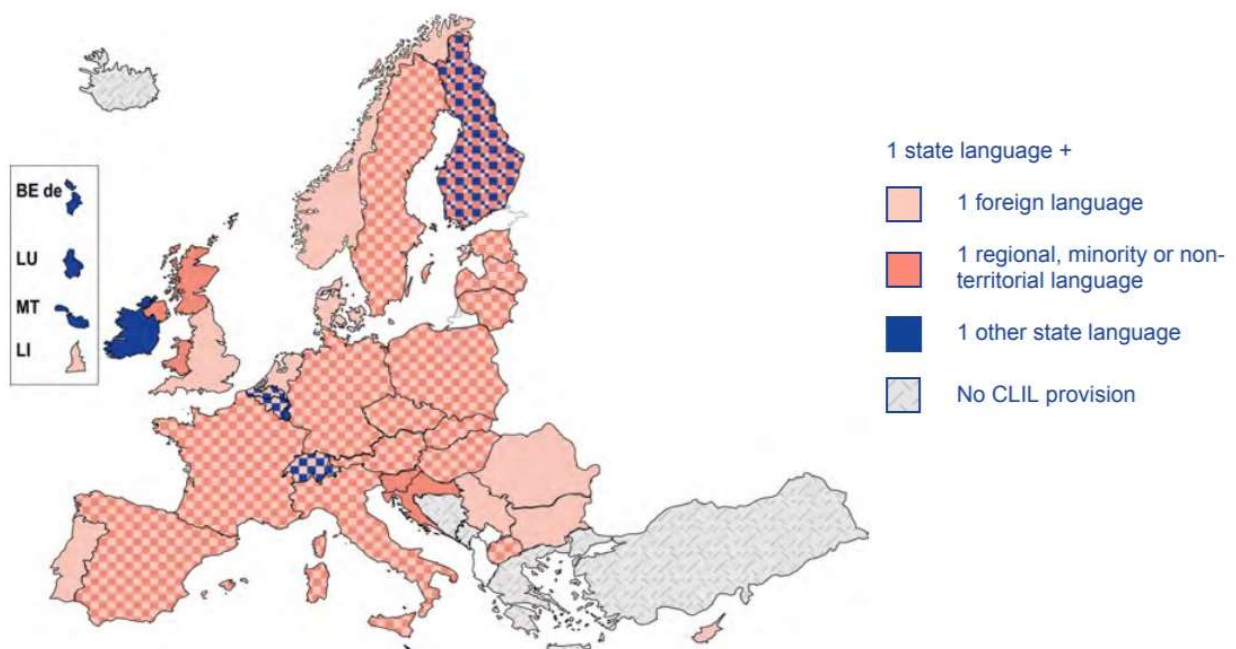


Figure 3. CLIL provision across Europe (Eurydice, 2017: 56)

3.1.1 Effects of CLIL on L2 competence

Each region in Europe has a very specific context of language learning and teaching. For example, the level that students have in the foreign language varies from one country to another (European Commission, 2012, 2013). In addition, there is a wide variety of CLIL practices across the continent with no single blueprint for export. Therefore, the policies implemented and the research on the matter also vary from one country to another. For this reason, we will now proceed to provide a brief overview of some of the most relevant research of the effects of CLIL on the L2 that has been conducted in Europe.

In Finland, more specifically in the University of Jyväskylä, the term CLIL was coined by a group of researchers, amongst whom David Marsh stands out as a prominent figure in the field. His work has mainly consisted in pinning down theoretical issues related to the CLIL approach and he has been a key figure for the establishment of networks across Europe, materials development and coordination of CLIL-related events, among others (Pérez Cañado, 2012: 320). Järvinen (2007) also contributed to defining CLIL at a theoretical level, comparing it to immersion programmes and reporting on both quantitative and qualitative models for analysis.

However, other researchers in Finland have conducted studies on practical CLIL outcomes, such as Nikula (2006, in Dalton-Puffer, 2007, 2008), who reported on the differences in discourse structures between CLIL and non-CLIL students and concluded that, while non-CLIL students in EFL classes provided very concise responses in the lessons, CLIL students elaborated their answers to a greater extent and provided explanations in their own words.

In 2006, Bergroth looked into the results obtained by 49 immersion students at university entry exams in Finland. These students, who had Finnish as their mother tongue, had followed a 50% immersion programme in Swedish since they were three to six years old until the end of elementary school (ninth grade). Although (as the author acknowledges) the factors that possibly led to these results have not been controlled and may not be entirely due to the immersion programme, the results show that Finnish immersion students outperformed their non-immersion peers on virtually every test taken. Their level of Swedish had clearly improved, and a high percentage of students (98%) took the advanced test in Swedish, showing that their confidence with regards to their competence was high. In fact, the percentage of students achieving the highest grade in Swedish tripled the expectations by the Examination Board. The author (2006: 132-133) concluded that, "[w]hen the results in different languages (Swedish, English, and German) are examined it is clear that immersion students outperform their peer students". In addition, this study proves that immersion in one language increased competence not only in the target language, but also in other (non-immersion) languages such as English or German.

Continuing with Nordic countries, in both Sweden and Norway, researchers (Airey & Linder, 2006, in Sweden, and Hellekjaer, 2010, in Norway) focused instead on higher education institutions, finding similar problems in both countries with regards to lecture comprehension among CLIL students, which provided an insight on pitfalls that need to be addressed to maximise the results of CLIL. As a matter of fact, Hellekjaer (2010) found that no less than 42% of students who were instructed in English found it harder to read texts in English than they did in their mother tongue. Therefore, this laid the basis for some of the research which

focuses on the effects that CLIL may have on the acquisition of subject matter in those subjects taught through the foreign language.

However, further studies confirmed that studying certain subjects through a foreign language did not hinder students' academic results in the long run. In the Netherlands, a quantitative study conducted by Admiraal, Westhoff, and de Bot (2006) found that in university entry exams, while the CLIL group displayed higher scores in reading and oral skills than their non-bilingual peers, there were no significant differences for receptive vocabulary knowledge. Methodological flaws of this research, as acknowledged by the authors of the study (2006: 91), included a "lack of initial matching of the cohorts and of statistical analysis which would allow the outcomes to be attributed to CLIL instructional practices" (Pérez Cañado, 2012: 323-324).

Moving now to Germany, Rumlich (2013, 2017), Wolff (2002), Wode (1999) and Zydatiβ (2007) stand out as leading CLIL researchers. Nevertheless, research is not as robust and extended in this field as it is in other European countries (Pérez Cañado, 2012: 324; Gálvez Gómez, 2013: 88). In fact, it consists mainly of action research, which, in Pérez Cañado's words (2012: 324), "sheds light on the difficulties which teachers are experiencing". Nevertheless, Vázquez (2007) considers CLIL to have a special importance in the country in spite of its compartmentalised educational system. To illustrate this point, it is worth mentioning that, by 2007, over 800 bilingual programmes across 16 federal states were running in Germany, and some of them dated back as far as the 1960s (Gálvez Gómez, 2013: 88; Lancaster, 2016: 72).

Studies conducted in Germany by Wolff (2002), Wode (1999) and Zydati β (2007) report on the benefits of CLIL on students with regard to their linguistic development (vocabulary, grammar, accuracy and communicative competence). However, subsequent studies (Rumlich, 2013, 2017) have shed light on the fact that, in German schools, students who were about to enrol in a CLIL programme but have already received preparatory instruction to be part of it already outperformed those students who were not going to enrol in CLIL –an effect also documented in the BAC region in Spain by Grisaleña, Alonso, and Campo (2009). This proves the point that there are large initial differences that are to be taken into account when conducting research, ensuring the homogenisation of the control and experimental groups at the outset of the study, in order to guarantee that the differences between both groups can truly be ascribed to the effect of CLIL itself and not to the "biased selection of students for CLIL and non-CLIL strands upon entry into secondary school" (Rumlich, 2013: 197).

Therefore, the differences in L2 competence found for the CLIL group cannot be attributed to CLIL, given that "their advantage of approximately (slightly more than) one academic year in comparison to regular EFL students is in the range of what could be expected given that they have had an additional year's worth of language teaching during Grades 5 and 6⁹" (Rumlich, 2017: 129). Furthermore, Rumlich (2013) found that, in some cases, the differences between students were solely due to individual learning factors, given that, in some cases, students who were in mixed CLIL and non-CLIL classrooms developed differently, even if the teacher was the same.

⁹ Prior to CLIL instruction, which starts on Grade 7.

In Switzerland, as Pérez Cañado (2012: 324) reports, researchers have mainly focused on investigating the effects of CLIL in students' oral competence via lesson observation, analysis of narratives and observation, and the results are "primarily exploratory" (Lancaster, 2016: 73). Research findings from Stotz and Meuter (2003), Gassner and Maillat (2006), Stehler (2006), and Serra (2007) show consistent results concerning the positive effects of CLIL in students' oral skills and productive competence.

Turning now to Austria, considerable effort has been invested in researching the impact of CLIL in the classroom. Nevertheless, as Pérez Cañado (2012), Gálvez Gómez (2013) and Lancaster (2016) point out, the studies conducted present some methodological flaws which compromise the validity and reliability of the results obtained. Ackerl (2007), Hüttner and Rieder-Bünemann (2007, 2010), Seregély (2008), and Jexenflicker and Dalton-Puffer (2010), as cited in Pérez Cañado (2012), conducted studies at different levels with the aim of evaluating CLIL students' writing skills, lexical competence, motivation and general language ability. Their results are consistent in that they all coincide in the positive effects of CLIL on the students' learning.

Summing up, research conducted in Europe points to the positive effects of CLIL on the students' general competence in the L2, although, as Rumlich (2013, 2017) found, it would be necessary to find out via homogenisation of the experimental and control groups whether the differences can truly be ascribed to CLIL. Longitudinal studies would also be beneficial in order to investigate the way in which CLIL effects on the students develop over the years and whether these effects pervade even after CLIL is discontinued.

3.1.2 Effects of CLIL on L1 competence

Given that bilingual programmes increase the number of hours dedicated to the L2 in class, the number of hours where instruction is provided in the L1 is reduced. The extended use of English (in detriment of the exposure to the L1) leads to worries about possible loss of competence in the students' L1, loss of academic weight of the L1 in the scientific community (Swales, 1997; Dalton-Puffer, 2011; Lasagabaster, 2017, for minority languages), the development of a strong register in a foreign language at the expense of students' mother tongue (Dalrymple-Smith, Karagiannakis, & Papadopoulos, 2013), or loss of motivation towards the learning of other foreign languages (Lasagabaster, 2017).

Nevertheless, it has been suggested that improvements made in one language do not necessarily hinder the competence acquired in another language, provided that the two languages affect one another through positive transfer. In Serra's words (2007: 600), CLIL students are used to "processing written text and discourse in two languages". This hypothesis is known as the Common Underlying Proficiency principle (Cummins, 1979, 1984; Cummins & Swain, 1986), and it is related to the Linguistic Coding Deficit Hypothesis (Sparks, Ganshow, & Pohlman, 1989, in Ramos, Ortega, & Madrid, 2011), by means of which students with problems in the L2 may also have them in their L1.

In spite of this, considering that most studies in CLIL have been conducted by language teachers and researchers, the effects of CLIL have mainly been studied with regards to L2 acquisition, rather than looking into what CLIL does at the mother tongue and content

acquisition levels (Admiraal *et al.*, 2006; Dalton-Puffer, 2008; Lasagabaster & Ruiz de Zarobe 2010; Merino & Lasagabaster, 2015; Pérez Vidal & Roquet, 2015; Fernández Sanjurjo *et al.*, 2017). Nevertheless, the effects of CLIL on the L1 have also been looked into in a few research studies.

In the Netherlands, contrary to what might be expected, the abovementioned study conducted by Admiraal *et al.* (2006) found that the CLIL students' performance in university entry exams, conducted in their L1, was not lower than the performance of non-CLIL students, although the researchers admit that the CLIL programme was pioneering when the study was carried out and, therefore, those initial CLIL students (and their teachers) might have been particularly motivated and able to cope with challenges.

Similarly, a longitudinal study conducted by Merisuo-Storm (2006, 2007) on differences in literacy skills between CLIL and non-CLIL groups in Finland showed that following a CLIL programme (with 20% of the time being exposed to English as opposed to their native language, Finnish) did not hinder the overall literacy skills of the students involved. For this study, three measurements were taken at different stages in 78 CLIL and 58 non-CLIL students: the first measurement was destined to serve as an initial evaluation, and the second and third tests intended to measure students' literacy skills at the end of first and second grades. The CLIL group scored higher on average on all tests: reading, writing, memory, and auditory perception. Furthermore, the CLIL programme did not negatively affect the students' performance in their first language, and they were able to keep the two languages separate (Merisuo-Storm, 2006, 2007). L1 proficiency was also tested in Bergroth's (2006) study, also

looking into university entry exams in Finland. The results showed that the students' L1 (Finnish) had not been threatened by the immersion programme; in fact, the results were slightly better than those of their non-immersion peers.

Admiraal *et al.* (2006), as reported in section 3.1.1, conducted a longitudinal study in the Netherlands, where 1,305 students were tested in English, Geography and History, and Dutch. Out of all students, 584 students were participating in a Bilingual Education programme, and 721 were following the traditional EFL programme. It emerged that the fact that the experimental group had followed a bilingual programme and had been taught in English did not cause any negative effects on their Dutch skills. In fact, these students outperformed their non-bilingual peers at every level. However, the learning curves of both experimental and control groups were stable, and the differences cannot be attributed to the CLIL programme itself, given that they were there from the very outset of the programme.

In the light of these results, it should be born in mind that, while these studies did not find any negative outcomes on the students' L1 as a result of the CLIL programme they were in, it is not yet proved that CLIL actually improves their mother tongue proficiency, since there are no remarkable differences between their mother tongue competence and that of non-CLIL groups. The differences that are found in the literature are due to the CLIL group displaying an initial advantage over the non-CLIL group, being both learning curves similar (Bergroth, 2006; Merisuo-Storm, 2006, 2007; Admiraal *et al.*, 2006; Serra, 2007; Merino & Lasagabaster, 2015). Even though CLIL reduces students' exposure to their L1, no negative effects have been found in the literature with respect to the students' performance in their mother tongue at

either primary or secondary education levels. However, given that only few studies have carried out longitudinal analyses with pre-tests and/or initial matching of the cohorts, these results need to be interpreted with caution until further robust research either endorses or contradicts them.

3.1.3 Effects of CLIL on NLA content knowledge

Despite the fact that, as has occurred in the previous section (effects of CLIL on the L1), the effects of CLIL on content acquisition have been underresearched, over the last few years this area has begun to blossom, and relevant results have been obtained across Europe. If CLIL continues to expand across Europe, it is of utmost importance to fully grasp the effects that it has on students at the content level and, if needed, to readjust the path of action as quickly as possible.

In the abovementioned studies conducted in Sweden by Airey (2009) and Airey and Linder (2006), it was found that, when students defined scientific concepts in English, they experienced certain difficulties. Therefore, it was suggested that there may be some negative effects of CLIL on subject matter learning. However, later studies denied this hypothesis.

In the abovementioned longitudinal study conducted by Admiraal *et al.* (2006), it was proved that CLIL did not affect negatively Dutch students' learning of History and Geography (while it increased their foreign language skills with no detrimental effect to their mother tongue competence either). In fact, research has shown that not only does CLIL not hinder content

learning; in some cases, CLIL students actually outperform their monolingual counterparts in NLA subjects, as was found in Switzerland by Stotz and Meuter (2003), Gassner and Maillat (2006), Stehler (2006), and Serra (2007), who found that CLIL had positive effects on students' subject content knowledge, or by Bergroth (2006) in Finland.

Turning now to the United Kingdom, the figure of Do Coyle stands out prominently in CLIL theory. Coyle has extensively theorised about what constitutes good CLIL practice (Coyle, 2002, 2007, 2008, 2009, 2010). However, as far as empirical studies are concerned, the UK as a whole has failed to produce sound research, and CLIL has been evaluated through basic interviews and classroom observation (Ullmann 1999). Language learning and teaching is in decline in the country (Coyle, 2009: 174, attributes it to the "island mentality" of the country), in spite of the fact that English is the most studied language in CLIL programmes elsewhere.

Nevertheless, the Content and Language Integration Project (CLIP), which was carried out by CLIL trainers from the University of Nottingham (School of Education) and the CILT (Centre for Information on Language Teaching), developed a three-year programme for teacher training on the CLIL approach as a response to the Nuffield Languages Inquiry. This inquiry evaluated language teaching in the UK in the period 1999-2000, and concluded that CLIL should be adopted in the UK in a coordinated manner (Wiesemes, 2009: 42). The CLIP project, thus, intended to explore effective ways to implement CLIL in the UK in a motivating way, as well as in a cognitively engaging manner, for 11-15-year-old students (Wiesemes, 2009: 43). Theory and practice were combined in a variety of schools, and the outcomes were evaluated by the schools and the researchers from the University of Nottingham following quantitative (test

results) and qualitative (lesson observation, semi-structured interviews with learners teachers and trainers) procedures of data collection and analysis. It was found that, in general, the languages chosen for instruction were French, German and Spanish, and the subjects used for CLIL were Geography, History and Citizenship (years 6-10) (Wiesemes, 2009). The results showed positive benefits of CLIL, in line with previous studies in the UK (Wiesemes, 2002, in Wiesemes, 2009). Wiesemes (2009: 44) points to several factors that may have contributed positively to these results: "These beneficial effects of CLIL might be due to a range of factors such as increased support for learners, more visual support materials and non-linguistic context, which could serve as a motivator for some learners".

However, not all studies conducted on the effects of CLIL on the NLA subjects yield such positive results. While these studies evaluated NLA learning as part of wider studies, Dallinger, Jonkmann, Hollm, and Fiege (2016) focused specifically on determining the effects of CLIL on NLA subjects and on isolating the CLIL effect from other variables. They conducted a study in Germany (state of Baden-Wuerttemberg) comparing 1,806 German CLIL and non-CLIL students from 37 academic-track secondary schools on their English competence and their knowledge of History. In order to control for the self-selection factor in the outcomes, and to isolate it from the sheer impact of the CLIL intervention alone, variables such as students' prior achievement, motivation, general abilities, demographic factors, classroom composition, quality of instruction and teacher characteristics were taken into account. It was expected for CLIL students to display a greater knowledge of History facts, since it has been hypothesised that metalinguistic awareness favours abstract thinking (Surmont, Craen, Struys, & Somers, 2014), and given that, in Germany, CLIL students receive more hours of instruction in History

than their monolingual peers (three hours per week vs. two). Teacher self-selection was also hypothesised to work in favour of CLIL, since the extra work that CLIL entails attracts only the most motivated teachers.

Nonetheless, it was found that, once the "CLIL-effect" (Dallinger *et al.*, 2016) was isolated from all external factors, the History results were comparable among the two groups, in line with previous studies (Jäppinen, 2005; Badertscher & Bieri, 2009). These results lead the authors to conclude that "[t]he question arises why one should introduce CLIL at all, given its null-effect on the content subject and the limited positive outcomes in English" (Dallinger *et al.*, 2016: 30). However, they acknowledge that History might not be the kind of subject that benefits most from CLIL and call for further studies, claiming that the CLIL approach as a whole would have to be questioned if CLIL advantages are not found in research.

These results are in line with those obtained by Mattheoudakis, Alexiou, and Laskaridou (2014), for primary education, in which higher scores were intrinsically matched with higher linguistic competence. A country that, up to this point, virtually has had no provision of CLIL (Eurydice, 2017), Greece has taken some initial steps to evaluate its possible adscription to the CLIL enterprise. The subject which was implemented through CLIL with 51 sixth-grade students was Geography. They found higher linguistic gains for the CLIL group, though they were not statistically significant, possibly due to the reduced sample and the limited time exposure to CLIL. In addition, they found that there was a relationship between proficiency in the language and the scores obtained in the Geography test: the higher the proficiency, the better the mean score in Geography. Out of the three tests that were conducted, CLIL students

scored higher than their non-CLIL counterparts in two of them. However, statistically significant results were only found in content test 2, and, as previously mentioned, they were linked to the students' performance in the L2 (the higher the linguistic competence, the higher the Geography result), which accounts for the fact that CLIL students (with an overall better proficiency in the L2) obtained higher scores in Geography as well. These findings led the researchers to support the continuation of CLIL programmes in Greece, although up to this point Greece is still officially considered a country with no provision of CLIL programmes.

Contrasting results to those obtained by Dallinger *et al.* (2016) and Mattheoudakis *et al.* (2014) were found by Surmont, Struys, Van Den Noort, and Van de Craen (2016). These researchers conducted a longitudinal study in Ostend (Flanders, the Dutch-speaking part of Belgium) in which they compared the mathematical development of 35 CLIL students who were instructed in French and 72 students who followed a non-CLIL strand and who were taught Mathematics in Dutch, their native language. For the longitudinal study, mathematics tests were carried out at the beginning of the school year, after three months, and after ten months into the school year.

The CLIL group outperformed the non-CLIL group as early as three months into the program, and these differences were consolidated in the later test (10 months after the start of the school year). Although metalinguistic awareness was not directly tested, the authors hypothesise that the differences in Math performance between the two groups could be due to an increase in understanding the way language structures function, given that bilingual students are more likely to question the foreign language system and compare it to their

native language. In fact, Clarkson (2007) already found that bilingual students are more confident in their problem-solving approach than monolingual students. As a result of these findings, Surmont *et al.* (2016: 323) conclude that "CLIL stimulates metalinguistic skills in such a way that the understanding of the language of maths [...] increases". Therefore, they go on to suggest that, "[i]f the European Union intends to improve math performance, it should create bridges between language learning and mathematics (and science for that matter)" (2016: 330). These results tally with those obtained by Admiraal *et al.* (2006), Bergroth (2006) and Merisuo-Storm (2006, 2007).

All in all, research shows a trend whereby CLIL students tend to outperform their monolingual peers on NLA knowledge, although the subjects that are most benefitted by this type of instruction and the reasons why CLIL works better with some subjects than with others is not yet fully understood. However, more often than not, these differences are not statistically significant and could be attributed to individual factors or motivation. Therefore, it cannot be concluded that CLIL programmes boost their content knowledge. Nevertheless, to put it in a nutshell, it is safe to say that a review of the literature on this topic points to the fact that CLIL does not damage learning in other areas.

3.1.4 Qualitative studies on stakeholder perspectives

Apart from the effects that CLIL has on L2, L1, and NLA subjects, the opinions of stakeholders concerning CLIL programmes have also been researched across Europe, in many cases as a complement to quantitative studies, as is the case of Estonia. Mehisto and Asser (2007), by

means of semi-structured interviews, classroom observation and questionnaires, concluded that the stakeholders involved in CLIL were committed to the development and showed motivation with regards to CLIL, although more cooperation and communication between the school, the families and the teachers, and further teacher training would make a positive impact in the programme, as there is room for improvement in these areas (Pérez Cañado, 2012: 322).

In the Czech Republic, Poland and Hungary, CLIL has mainly been observed from a descriptive point of view, aiming to identify and describe the most effective CLIL practices in these countries. The research that stands out in these eastern European countries is carried out by Novotná and Hofmannová (2007) in The Czech Republic, by Luczywek (2009) in Poland, and by Kovács (2005) in Hungary. Additionally, a study conducted in Poland by Czura *et al.* (2009) published some qualitative results concerning teacher and student satisfaction with the CLIL programme. The results show that teachers felt engaged with the programme, and they saw CLIL as both a challenge and source of satisfaction. Students saw in CLIL a catalyst for future opportunities, even though they pointed out some caveats such as the poor use of ICT resources in class, the lower standards of subject contents or the use of traditional rather than innovative methodologies for language teaching. In turn, Bognár (1999), in Hungary, reported on the high admission of CLIL students into universities and the recognition on their part for students who have followed a bilingual programme, since they often award extra points to these students on their entry examinations.

Moving now to southern Europe, in Italy, Coonan (2007) and Infante, Benvenuto, and Lastrucci (2008, 2009) conducted qualitative studies on teachers' perceptions concerning CLIL programmes, which, up to that point, had neither been systematically enforced nor monitored in Italy. The tools for these studies included interviews, focus group sessions, questionnaires, teacher logs and follow-up telephone conversations. These authors focused on the impact of CLIL on those programmes already in place. In these studies, the teachers reported on the increased motivation of students who were enrolled in the CLIL programme, which positively affected their attentiveness to the lessons. Teacher roles were also perceived to have been modified: in the CLIL lessons, they shifted from being mere information providers to a figure who is more aware of the students and their learning objectives and who becomes more active in engaging the students in the lessons. This shift in teacher roles in CLIL settings has already been mentioned in the literature. As Pérez Cañado (2016b: 6) puts it, the CLIL classroom is "student-led", which entails that "the instructor [...] becomes a facilitator".

Later on, Di Martino and Di Sabato (2012) conducted a survey on teachers' opinions on CLIL at a time when most Italian upper schools were on the verge of jumping on the CLIL bandwagon by offering at least one subject in a foreign language, as part of the national curriculum. At this point in time, the picture that emerged was not a particularly positive one: teachers did not anticipate a particularly enthusiastic response on the part of the students (2012: 94-95), they doubted the professionalism of their colleagues (2012: 97), and they feared that the teacher body would not be able to meet the necessary competence in the foreign language (2012: 98). In the light of these results, the authors concluded that "quality training is the key to success" (2012: 98).

Nonetheless, the implementation of CLIL in Italy, over the last few years, seems to have changed for the better. In Cinganotto's words, "Italy has made very important steps forward in its educational system by pursuing the implementation of CLIL" (2016: 394), and the country is "falling into line with the majority of other European countries" (2016: 384), even though there are still some challenges worth addressing (materials development, coordination among teachers, training courses which are excessively time-consuming). Decree n.6, (Ministero dell'Istruzione dell'Università e della Ricerca, 2012), established training courses for both linguistic and methodological upgrades (the latter imparted by Italian universities), and the law introduced in 2015, dubbed *La Buona Scuola* (Ministero dell'Istruzione dell'Università e della Ricerca, 2015) included language provisions aimed at strengthening language competences among CLIL teachers. The Italian National Teacher Training Plan places language competences and CLIL as top priorities in the Italian educational system for the period 2016-2019 (Cinganotto, 2016: 389).

Last but not least, in the UK, in the abovementioned study by Wiesemes (2009), several conclusions were reached concerning the way in which future CLIL practices in the country should proceed (2009: 44): First of all, "CLIL needs to be considered as part of an overall strategic development and reconceptualisation of teaching and learning in secondary schools". Secondly, "CLIL needs to be considered as part of a larger overhaul of foreign language teaching as well as teaching and learning in general". Last but not least, "CLIL requires language and the use of language in classrooms to be revised as well as the surrounding support mechanisms for language planning and language use".

To recap, in general, the findings from the various studies that have examined CLIL in Europe show positive results. However, the heterogeneity of the programmes across regions and countries comes to mind when reviewing the research conducted so far in various countries. In Hüttner and Smit's words (2014: 163), "CLIL comes in such diverse national, but also local realisations that cross-study evaluations need to remain particularly careful not to disregard the different educational specificities the respective CLIL studies are taken from". Furthermore, the methodological weakness of some of these studies call for further research which is empirically solid.

We will now proceed to examine CLIL in Spain and to review the main studies that have been conducted in the country, subsequently focusing on Andalusia, the community where our study takes place.

3.2 CLIL in Spain

After having canvassed the state of the research in Europe, we will now focus on the Spanish CLIL scenario. Given that there are Spanish regions which are bilingual (due to the existence and promotion of a regional language) and regions which are purely monolingual, we will focus on them separately, since the bilingual regions have more years of experience on implementing bilingual programmes at school, and therefore are in the avant-garde concerning the CLIL enterprise.

3.2.1 General overview

As far as the general state of language learning and teaching of languages in Spain is concerned, Spain is behind the European average. In fact, the 2012 PISA¹⁰ report (OECD, 2012), which compares educational standards in the world, placed Spanish educational results behind the average of the countries that participate in the report, in spite of an increase of 35% in the budget dedicated to education between the 2003 and the 2012 report (OECD, 2012). More specifically, the linguistic area is one that consistently obtains low results when compared with the national levels of other countries, with 54% of Spaniards considering themselves unable to speak another language other than their mother tongue well enough to hold a conversation (European Commission, 2012). Nevertheless, the latest PISA report (OECD, 2015) shows that significant progress has been made in Spain (especially in reading, with seven extra points compared to the previous report), although further progress is expected in the upcoming years.

Spanish laws and decrees for education are changed fairly frequently (due to political reasons), derogating one another as they are being implemented. This situation has an effect on a variety of factors within the educational context to the detriment of Spanish students, who are the ultimate victims of this instability. While Spanish educational laws are ever-changing and, therefore, unstable, they are also influenced by supranational entities, since they aim to develop European guidelines. Furthermore, at a regional level, it is worth noting

¹⁰ The Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development Programme for International Student Assessment.

that the Spanish educational system is somewhat decentralised. Therefore, there are certain communities that have competences in educational laws, which translates into the development and implementation of regional laws as long as these do not contradict the state ones.

As a result of these factors, the situation of CLIL in Spain is in line with that of Europe in that the implementation of CLIL is being carried out at a regional rather than at a national level (Fortanet Gómez & Ruiz-Garrido, 2009; Fernández Fontecha, 2009). And yet, CLIL has spread over Spain over the last decade (Ruiz de Zarobe & Lasagabaster 2010: ix), "rapidly becoming one of the European leaders in CLIL practice and research" (Coyle, 2010: viii). There is not a standard method all over Spain about the way in which CLIL teaching should be carried out, or, as Pérez Cañado (2012: 327) puts it, "no single blueprint exists". Nevertheless, Coyle (2010: vii) points out that the Spanish cultural and linguistic diversity that has fostered a variety of policies within CLIL constitutes precisely the strength of this approach:

[M]any teachers, learners, parents, researchers and policy-makers have realised the potential of CLIL and interpreted this potential in many ways. Indeed, the fact that CLIL is open to wide interpretation is its strength since the ways in which different languages are learned and used, including the first language, need to be embedded in the local and regional learning context.

CLIL in Spain, however, has the particularity that, in bilingual communities with two co-official languages, English is relegated to the third position, since the regional language occupies the second position, and the monolingual communities have a weak tradition in foreign language

teaching. This diversity makes Spain a country that could well serve as a model to other countries who wish to undertake CLIL (Coyle, 2010; Ruiz de Zarobe & Lasagabaster 2010).

3.2.2 Effects of CLIL on L2 competence

After having taken a look at the general state of language learning and teaching and the relevance of CLIL in Spain, we will now proceed to review the most outstanding research that has been conducted in Spain on this subject. To do this, we will first focus on the studies that have focused on the effects of CLIL on the L2, followed by those which have focused on its effects on the L1, the NLA subjects, and the stakeholders' perspectives. For the effects of CLIL on the L2, the regions that have two official languages will be evaluated first, and we will subsequently turn to communities with a firmly entrenched monolingual model.

3.2.2.1 Bilingual communities

3.2.2.1.1 Catalonia

After the democratisation of the political system in Spain in 1978, the regional languages of Spain were legalised, and linguistic policies aimed at their development and flourishing were established. Hence, in Catalonia, immersion programmes in which the Catalan language became the vehicle of instruction for the content subjects were developed. Navés and Victori

(2010) concluded that Catalan students who followed those programmes became fully bilingual in Spanish and Catalan by the end of secondary school.

In the Catalan context, where plurilingualism and linguistic policies are a reality and aim to develop European guidelines, CLIL is easily integrated (Piquer & Lorenzo, 2015: 87). In fact, in Coyle's words (Piquer & Lorenzo, 2015: 91), "all the regions of Spain, including Catalonia, have been some of the leaders in developing classroom pedagogies in CLIL settings". Furthermore, according to this scholar (2015: 92), "language teachers in Catalonia are well positioned both in terms of mind set and skill set to share expertise", even if CLIL "has not been systematically adopted in Catalonia" (Navés & Victori, 2010: 30). This makes Catalonia, along with the Basque Country, one of the dominant forces in the Spanish CLIL scenario (Lancaster, 2016: 82).

Indeed, the region of Catalonia has taken some steps to research on and improve foreign language teaching in the region, thereby gaining theoretical knowledge and enriching teacher training courses (Piquer & Lorenzo, 2015: 87). Some of these steps have been the following:

1. Extending the period of foreign language learning at school;
2. Introducing foreign language learning at an earlier age;
3. Embedding social and cultural aspects of language learning in the teaching process;
4. Adopting oral and communicative teaching approaches.

Likewise, several projects were developed in Catalonia in order to propel the implementation of CLIL forward, such as the CLIL Innovation Project (1999), the Orator Project (1999-2005), or the Experimental Foreign Language Plan (2005-2008). CLIL was also integrated into school

projects, and these initiatives have bloomed, making it possible to overcome initial difficulties and to advance in CLIL development and research.

Researchers have tapped into the CLIL programmes in place in order to draw conclusions about the effect that this approach has on the students in the region. Muñoz (2006) and Navés (2006) found that starting FL instruction at an earlier age did not necessarily lead to significantly higher competence in English.

Vallbona (2009, in Bret Blasco, 2011: 8) compared the proficiency of CLIL and non-CLIL fifth and sixth graders in primary education in listening, reading and writing. While the CLIL groups had received 35 hours of CLIL instruction per week (plus three hours of regular EFL teaching), the non-CLIL students had only attended regular EFL lessons. The results showed that the CLIL fifth graders outperformed their non-CLIL counterparts in lexical diversity and fluency, whereas the CLIL group of sixth graders significantly outperformed the non-CLIL stream students in lexical diversity.

A subsequent study by Victori, Vallbona, and Bret (2010, in Bret Blasco, 2011: 8) compared fifth and sixth-grade students in primary education from both CLIL and non-CLIL streams (the CLIL stream having received 105 hours of CLIL instruction). It found statistically significant differences between the two streams in listening and writing (fifth-grade students) and listening and fluency (sixth-grade students) when compared against the non-CLIL students.

Navés and Victori (2010), comparing the CLIL and the non-CLIL students from Grades 5 to 12, concluded that CLIL learners outperformed their EFL peers in listening, cloze, grammar and dictation tests and in writing composition. Furthermore, the results showed that CLIL students

in years 7 and 9 were as many as two years ahead of the students in non-CLIL lessons. Navés (2011), in turn, concluded that the differences between the CLIL and the non-CLIL students were not applicable when it came to listening comprehension, even though in all the other skills CLIL students were two to three years ahead of their non-CLIL peers.

These results by Navés are in line with the study carried out by Pérez Vidal and Roquet (2015), who, in a longitudinal study on the effects of CLIL in both receptive and productive skills, found that CLIL students improved their reading skills when compared against the mainstream students. However, this was not the case for the listening skills, where no significant differences were found.

Listening skills were also a weak point in the study conducted by Pladevall and Vallbona (2016) on primary education students over a 20-month period (fifth and sixth grade), which focused exclusively on receptive skills. While no significant differences were found between the experimental and the control groups regarding the reading skill, the control group performed significantly better than the experimental one in listening at the beginning of the study and maintained this difference up to the end of the study, when CLIL students "managed to catch up with their EFL counterparts" (Pladevall & Vallbona, 2016: 46). The authors explain this performance gap by stating that it is possible that the effects of the CLIL exposure on young learners are not immediate, which is corroborated by the fact that, in their study, over time, CLIL students caught up with their monolingual peers.

3.2.2.1.2 The Basque Autonomous Community

The Basque Autonomous Community (henceforth, BAC) is, along with Catalonia, the other region in Spain which has a strong bilingual tradition, due to its regional language, Basque. This language, as is the case with Catalan in Catalonia, has been actively promoted in schools. The 1982 'Basic Law for the Normalisation of the Use of Basque' aimed at the development of Basque competence in students enrolled in compulsory secondary education, although Basque Education already existed before the three models for bilingual education in Basque were developed (Cenoz, 2015: 10; Lasagabaster, 2017). These models are explained by Cenoz (2015: 14), the D model being the most popular of all:

A model: Aimed at Spanish L1 students with Spanish as the language of instruction and Basque and a foreign language as school subjects. It is not CBI/CLIL.

B model: Aimed at Spanish L1 students with Basque and Spanish as languages of instruction (approximately 50% of the subjects in each language) and a foreign language as a school subject. It is the model of the school visited in this article and it is CBI/CLIL in the Basque-medium classes. It is also a typical example of partial immersion. Originally, it was not CBI/CLIL in English because there were no English-medium classes.

D model: Aimed at Basque L1 students with Basque as the language of instruction and Spanish and a foreign language as school subjects. It is a language maintenance model for Basque, which is a minority language. Originally, it was not CBI/CLIL because the home language and the language of instruction were the same.

As Cenoz (2015: 14) explains, the English instruction in the Basque Country under this model could be considered CBI or CLIL, but not immersion, since English-medium exposure is restricted to just one subject.

The introduction of English as a third language in the curriculum through the integration of content and language came years later, in 2003, with the implementation of the so-called *Plurilingual Experience* in 12 schools (Lancaster, 2016: 77), by means of which seven hours of CLIL were incorporated into the –already bilingual- school curriculum. The effects of the CLIL programme have been reviewed by several authors. Jiménez Catalán, Ruiz de Zarobe, and Cenoz (2006) conducted a study on students enrolled in CLIL programmes in primary education and compared the CLIL group against their non-CLIL peers. The tests included a cloze test, a reading task, a receptive vocabulary test and a writing task. Grammatical and discursive competences were measured, and it emerged that CLIL students outperformed the students enrolled in traditional programmes.

Egiguren (2006, in Lasagabaster, 2011: 7) compared early starters of EFL lessons, who were delivered English lessons since they were four, against CLIL students who began English instruction at eight. He concluded that an early start does not necessarily lead to an improvement in English competence, since those students who were taught two hours of Arts per week in English caught up with the non-CLIL early starters in only one year and a half.

Lasagabaster (2008) conducted a study among students in their fourth grade of compulsory secondary education, and he assessed their grammatical, listening, speaking and writing skills. In line with the previous study, as well as with the results obtained in Catalonia by Navés and

Victori (2010), the CLIL students performed significantly better than the students from the non-CLIL group. In addition, Lasagabaster and Sierra (2009) and Lasagabaster (2011) also reported positive effects of CLIL on the students' motivational levels when compared to mainstream students, and, as a result of this increase on motivation, on their overall English achievement. In Lasagabaster's (2011: 15) words, "CLIL programmes should be boosted as they exert a very positive influence on learners' motivation, which goes hand in hand with increased foreign language achievement".

In contrast, more recent studies by Heras and Lasagabaster (2015: 84) and Lasagabaster and Doiz (2015) reported no major differences in motivation between the CLIL and the non-CLIL groups, although the CLIL approach did have some positive effect on motivation and self-esteem when the gender factor was weighed in. Furthermore, CLIL programmes had a positive effect on maintaining the motivation towards the subject matter (Lasagabaster & Doiz, 2015: 22). However, Lasagabaster and Ruiz de Zarobe (2010) warned about a possible bias in the studies conducted on CLIL in those cases where students had previously had to pass an entrance exam.

Nevertheless, the results from Lasagabaster (2011) display significant differences –other than those related to the affective factors– between the two cohorts: the CLIL students achieved a significantly higher competence in English than the other group, especially in the grammar test, due to increased exposure to the target language. The reading skill, however, was not taken into consideration for this study, and Lasagabaster (2011: 14) expected greater differences between the two groups with regards to oral skills, although he points out that

"this lack of greater impact may be due to the fact that the students enrolled in CLIL had only been involved in this teaching methodology for two years". Therefore, "students will probably need some more time so that the beneficial effects of CLIL are more salient" (Lasagabaster, 2011: 14).

3.2.2.1.3 Galicia

The Galician language, along with other regional languages, was pushed to the back seat during Franco's times. However, since the democratic era began, numerous efforts have been made to revitalise it via positive discrimination. The 1983 '*Ley de normalización lingüística*' [Law for Linguistic Normalisation] (Xunta de Galicia, 1983, in González Gándara, 2011), and the 2004 '*Plan general de normalización de la lengua gallega*' [General Plan for the Normalisation of the Galician Language] (Xunta de Galicia, 2004, in González Gándara, 2011) aimed to effectively promote the use of the Galician language. In fact, the 2004 plan intended to do so through education: it established that at least 50% of the lessons in primary school and a third of the time at preschool level were to be delivered in the regional language, with the aim of spreading the language across the school community so that it was naturally acquired as a first language by the new generations.

In 2010, the '*Decreto do plurilingüismo*' [Decree for Plurilingualism] (Xunta de Galicia, 2010, in González Gándara, 2011) introduced the teaching of a third language through content: English. Nonetheless, this was seen by many as an attempt by authorities to eradicate the regional language from school by reducing the number of hours dedicated to its teaching.

San Isidro (2010) was a pioneer in evaluating the outcomes of the plurilingual programme in Galicia. To do so, he tested CLIL and non-CLIL students on English language competence. The results show that CLIL students outperformed their non-CLIL peers in global language skills, which attests to the success of the programme in the region. San Isidro (2017) confirmed these results with a longitudinal analysis which matched the CLIL and the non-CLIL students for homogeneity, therefore measuring the progress due to CLIL and not to initial differences between the two groups. It emerged that, while both groups had greatly improved over the two-year span (possibly due to the fact that the non-CLIL groups also followed a TBLT approach with a multilingual methodology to language learning, and engaged in international projects and exchange programmes), CLIL students showed a greater improvement than their monolingual peers.

These results also tally with those of San Isidro and Lasagabaster (2018), who conducted a longitudinal study (two-year span) in a multilingual school in rural Galicia. For this study, homogeneity was ensured regarding the CLIL and non-CLIL students' competence in Galician, Spanish, and English, along with their content knowledge. It was found that, even if both the experimental and control groups had made improvements over the two-year span of the study (during which students sat for language competence and content knowledge tests on three different occasions), it was the CLIL students who made the fastest progress in English, Galician and Spanish. Moreover, the decreased exposure to Galician as a result of the implementation of CLIL in the region had no detrimental effect on the students' Galician competence.

3.2.2.1.4 Valencia and the Balearic Islands

Valencia and the Balearic Islands have been grouped here due to the fact that CLIL is, in both regions, linked to the teaching of Valencian and Catalan, since they are also promoted in schools (as is the case with other regional languages across Spain).

In Valencia, as it happened with other communities in Spain, a law passed in the newly established democracy promoted the use of the regional language in school: the '*Llei d'Ús i Ensenyament del Valencià*' (*Presidència de la Generalitat*, 1983) [Law for the Use and Teaching of the Valencian Language]. By means of this law, there were initially two lines that could be followed in the Valencian-speaking areas of the region¹¹ (Pérez Vidal & Juan Garau, 2010: 127-129). On the one hand, in the '*Programa d'Ensenyament en Valencià*' [Teaching in Valencian Programme], Valencian became the default language at school, and Spanish was instructed as a second language, with some subjects being taught in Spanish. On the other hand, in the '*Programa d'Incorporació Progressiva*' [Progressive Incorporation Programme], Spanish was the language by default, and Valencian was first taught as a second language and progressively introduced as a means of instruction.

Later on, a third line was introduced for primary education only: the '*Programa d'Immersion Lingüística*' [linguistic immersion programme], aimed at students whose mother tongue is not

¹¹ In contrast, in the Spanish-speaking areas, the Basic Programme was followed, by means of which Spanish is used as a means of instruction and Valencian is taught only as a compulsory second language (Pérez Vidal & Juan Garau, 2010: 128)

Valencian. In this programme, lessons are delivered in Valencian, and Spanish is gradually introduced as the medium of instruction.

A fourth programme that could be combined with any of the other existing ones was the PEBE, i.e., the '*Programa d'Educació Bilingüe Enriquit*' [Enriched Bilingual Education Programme]. By means of this programme, which is adopted voluntarily by the schools, students receive content instruction in English since they are six, for 1:30 hours per week (Pérez Vidal & Juan Garau, 2010: 127-129). This programme has fast spread across the Valencian community, which leads Pérez Vidal and Juan Garau (2010: 129) to argue that "bilingualism seems to pave the way for plurilingualism".

As far as research is concerned in these two autonomous communities, the SALA-COLE project deserves to be foregrounded. This state-funded project, which was based at Pompeu Fabra University and the University of the Balearic Islands, aimed to measure the effects of regular Formal Instruction (FI), CLIL and the Study Abroad programme on the acquisition of the students' L3 (English) in order to compare the different programmes. Quantitative data showed an advantage on the part of CLIL students when compared against regular FI students when it comes to oral fluency, especially in rate of speech (Pérez Vidal & Juan Garau, 2010: 132).

Later on, Pascual Bajo (2018), in a longitudinal evaluation of CLIL programmes in the Valencia region, confirmed that CLIL students' linguistic competence in the target language was superior to that of their non-CLIL peers for all the skills tested (grammar, vocabulary, listening, reading, speaking, and writing). In addition, qualitative data that emerged from this study

underscored the fact that, in general, students, teachers, and parents had overall positive views regarding the CLIL programme, particularly concerning students' L2 development and self-confidence when interacting in English. Nonetheless, some of the caveats that were identified in this study point to methodological matters (as there is not an agreement that the particular methodology used in this CLIL scenario is optimal for the students' language acquisition), the use of ICTs in class, CLIL materials, or the disagreement between teachers and students concerning the evaluation of the oral dimension (teachers consider that oral skills are evaluated far more than students).

In the Balearic Islands, as Pérez Vidal and Juan Garau (2010: 123) document, CLIL programmes are denominated European Sections. They were initially implemented in the academic year 2004/2005, and have been spreading across the region ever since. They are evaluated by an external committee that weighs in the assets and pitfalls of the programme. In these European Sections, teacher training is given special importance, for it is considered an essential part of the success of the programme.

To sum up, numerous studies conducted in the bilingual areas of Spain testify to the success of the CLIL programmes being implemented. Nevertheless, they still remain to be perceived as highly controversial, since English is often seen as a competitor to the minority language (Heras & Lasagabaster, 2015: 71). For this reason, as the authors point out, "not only do education authorities need to evaluate these new programmes, but they also have to carry out research that focuses on particular projects in order to find out what the real benefits and limitations of CLIL might be" (Heras & Lasagabaster, 2015: 71).

3.2.2.2 Monolingual communities

In monolingual communities, CLIL is not as firmly entrenched in the educational system as in those regions that have two official languages. While bilingual communities share a tradition of immersion in a second language at school, monolingual communities are still jumping on the CLIL bandwagon, which is a relatively new phenomenon to them (Llinares & Dafouz, 2010: 95) and making the necessary adjustments to make it work as effectively as possible. This is the case of the autonomous communities examined below, which are at present the most conspicuous monolingual ones in terms of CLIL research.

3.2.2.2.1 Madrid

In Madrid's primary education system, as Llinares and Dafouz (2010: 95) point out, there are two programmes that are currently being implemented: the MEC¹²/British Council Project and the CAM¹³ Bilingual Project. The MEC/British Council Project consists in a partnership between Spain and the UK, by means of which there is a flow of British language teachers and teaching assistants (TAs) who, along with the Spanish teachers of English –who constitute the majority of the teaching staff– teach an integrated curriculum with the aid of authentic materials. The cultural exchange of this programme plays a key role, as well as the institutional support, which translates into teacher training, workshops, teacher encounters or visits to the United Kingdom.

¹² MEC stands for *Ministerio de Educación y Ciencia*, i.e., Ministry for Education and Science.

¹³ *Comunidad de Madrid*

The CAM Bilingual Project began in 2004 in Madrid and has spread fast ever since in the region: in only five years it grew from the original 26 schools to a total of 206 bilingual schools in the area (Llinares & Dafouz, 2010: 97). In the schools which participate in the project, English is used as the medium of instruction between 30% and 50% of the time. The subjects taught in English can be any subject other than Spanish and Mathematics, although the tendency is for schools to teach Science subjects in English due to the availability of the materials, and the amenability of this area to being taught in English (Llinares & Dafouz, 2010: 98). The bilingual schools also benefit from institutional support, for they receive English-speaking language assistants (not necessarily from the UK), specific training programmes for the teachers involved and an increase in school funding. Furthermore, links are established between the Spanish schools and twin schools based in the UK, which entail an exchange of teachers and students.

As far as secondary schooling is concerned, both projects, even though they were first applied to primary schools, have reached secondary schools (2004 and 2010, respectively). In Llinares and Dafouz's words (2010: 100), "[o]ne of the challenges of CLIL education at the secondary level, in contrast to primary education, concerns teacher profiles. While teachers in primary education have a dual profile (content and language) most teachers in secondary are content experts with certified knowledge of the target language". Therefore, this is an area that needs to be looked into by authorities and teacher training centres (TTCs) to ensure that this potential weakness is addressed.

The research conducted on these two projects (Halbach, 2009: 20-21; Reilly & Medrano, 2009: 64) shows positive results for the learners' development in terms of concentration, higher-order cognitive skills, affective gains and language skills. Academically, the students' receptive skills (listening and reading) have been found to improve even more than the productive ones (writing and speaking).

Several research groups have evaluated a variety of aspects of bilingual education in the Madrid area: The UAMLESC (Universidad Autónoma de Madrid Learner English Corpus), directed by Jesús Romero and Ana Llinares, started in 1998 by collecting a corpus of classroom data from two schools participating in the British Council/MEC bilingual programme in primary education. The researchers found that quantity of exposure to the target language is less relevant for the development of language skills than quality. Llinares and Romero (2007) point out that teachers need to elicit from students language related to their personal issues (the personal function), because these topics are usually talked about in the students' L1, in spite of their potential to improve the students' oral skills.

3.2.2.2.2 La Rioja

La Rioja, a traditionally monolingual community in Spain, has recently begun to develop bilingual educational programmes in schools. According to Fernández Fontecha (2010: 79), the two main factors that have fostered this shift are: its tourism, which attracts people from all over the world, and the region's growing immigrant population. These factors account for the region's opening to other cultures and languages.

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First, the regional government launched an action line with regards to language policy in the area by means of which schools could opt for some CLIL initiatives, described below. PILC stands for *Proyectos de Innovación Lingüística en Centros*, i.e., School Language Innovation Projects. It started in the school year 2004-2005, and it addressed content teachers in state schools, who could choose between options A and B for their lessons. Option A meant that the foreign language (English or French) would be used to communicate everyday instructions, greetings, and common classroom words. In contrast, in option B, part of the content was delivered through the FL (Fernández Fontecha, 2010: 81).

The Bilingual Sections programme started in 2008-2009. In the programme, at least two subjects can be taught in the foreign language, which can be English or French, for a maximum of 50% of the total hours in the curriculum. The teachers can be both language and content teachers, and language assistants are assigned to each Bilingual Section to provide language support (Fernández Fontecha, 2010: 83-84).

A study conducted by the research group GLAUR (*Grupo de Lingüística Aplicada de la Universidad de La Rioja*, i.e., the Applied Linguistics Group at the University of La Rioja) on foreign language vocabulary acquisition reported negative outcomes for the CLIL students when compared against the non-CLIL group (Jiménez Catalán & Ojeda Alba, 2008, as cited in Fernández Fontecha, 2010: 86). These results contradict similar studies conducted in the Basque Country (Jiménez Catalán *et al.*, 2006; Jiménez Catalán & Ruiz de Zarobe, 2009) and Catalonia (Navés & Victori, 2010). Fernández Fontecha therefore concludes that further research is needed on the development of language skills and communicative competence in

CLIL settings, as well as studies that evaluate the way CLIL methodology is being implemented in order to provide a well-rounded picture of the CLIL scenario (2010: 89).

3.2.2.2.3 Castilla-la Mancha

Castilla-la Mancha is a monolingual region in the centre of Spain which joined the CLIL bandwagon in 2005 by means of the so-called European Sections and which thus saw a gradual increase of bilingual schools in the region. They have currently reached over 300 centres (Nieto Moreno de Diezmas, 2016). Even though the implementation of a CLIL programme brought about an unprecedented interest in bilingual education on the part of families, schools, and teachers, research is scarce with regards to the outcomes of this educational approach in the region. For that reason, Nieto Moreno de Diezmas (2016) carried out a study on the effects that the regional CLIL programme had in Castilla-la Mancha in the L2 competence of fourth grade primary students.

The sample for this study was comprised of students between nine and ten years old from all primary school in the autonomous region, out of which about one in ten students were enrolled in the CLIL programme. The CLIL group had an average of 250 extra hours of exposure to English, and both CLIL and non-CLIL students were tested on writing, oral production and interaction, reading, and listening. Each of these tests was divided into several subskills, in order to determine which subskills were most affected by the bilingual programme.

The results showed that CLIL students outperformed non-CLIL ones in oral production and interaction to a significant extent, particularly on vocabulary and conversational verbal skills. Their monolingual counterparts, however, performed better than CLIL students in listening,

although not to a statistically significant level. CLIL students, however, overtook their monolingual peers in the subskills of global comprehension and detail identification. Writing and reading showed no significant differences between the experimental and control groups. These findings are in line with previous studies on primary education, since results typically evince that, for CLIL students to outperform non-CLIL ones, more hours of exposure are required. However, for Nieto Moreno de Diezmas (2016), these findings only justify the introduction of CLIL from an early age and its continuation in secondary education.

3.2.2.2.4 Extremadura

The region of Extremadura has been one of the most active ones in Spain concerning the promotion and implementation of CLIL programmes (Manzano Vázquez, 2015). Its beginnings date back to the year 1996, where, by means of an agreement between the *Consejería de Educación de Extremadura* (the Extremadura region educational authority) and the British Council, a bilingual-bicultural education was provided for children as young as three by means of an integrated English-Spanish curriculum (Baldwin, 2006).

It was not until the academic year 2004-2005, however, that CLIL methodology was implemented in both primary and secondary schools. This methodology started via the *Proyectos de Sección Bilingüe* (Bilingual Section Projects), which ensured that students could receive instruction in either English, French or Portuguese for at least one session per week. By the year 2014-2015, 265 bilingual sections were established, the majority of them using English as the vehicular language of instruction. Research conducted by the Extremadura government (Gobierno de Extremadura, 2014) yielded encouraging results concerning the

level of English that students were able to achieve (A2 by the end of primary education and B1 by the end of secondary education), but the picture was gloomier concerning the qualification of teachers in the region and their motivation to take part in the CLIL programme.

The *Plan Linguaex* (Junta de Extremadura, 2008), which developed between 2009 and 2015, targeted specific needs for students, teachers, and the general society in Extremadura. It aimed to increase the number of bilingual sections in the region, to create a network of bilingual schools in primary education, and to open up new bilingual primary schools. It also had as one of its main objectives the accreditation of a B2 level on the part of teachers, as well as methodological training, the integration of ICTs in the classroom, and the use of the European Language Portfolio and the CEFRL as FL teaching and assessment tools. In addition, teachers and learners were eligible for study visits abroad, and the number of native language assistants in the classrooms increased.

Research conducted by Alejo and Piquer (2016) on the urban-rural divide in Extremadura in CLIL settings and the impact of such context on CLIL students showed that urban students had started earlier than rural students, that they had had more support through private tuition, were less anxious than rural students, and were less inclined to make efforts concerning their language acquisition. Additionally, urban students' English level was less closely related to the grades obtained in other subjects (meaning that a student with a high level of English could not be performing as well in other areas), whereas the English level of rural students was more likely to be paired with similar results in other subjects.

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As for the effects of CLIL programmes in Extremadura on extramural exposure and language acquisition (as opposed to extra tuition in private academies), Lancaster (2018) conducted a study in ten public CLIL and charter non-CLIL primary and secondary schools in the region of Extremadura which proved the positive effects of CLIL methodology on out-of-school language exposure: CLIL students dedicated more time than non-CLIL students to reading, playing videogames, the Internet, and listening to music in English. Furthermore, in this same study, another significant aspect of CLIL instruction was revealed: CLIL methodology had more impact on the students' language proficiency than extra tuition in private academies. When comparing the language level of CLIL students without private tuition and of non-CLIL students who were attending private English lessons, it was the former group who outperformed the latter. Therefore, in Lancaster's words, "[t]aking into consideration CLIL students come out on top in both circumstances provokes food for thought on the topic of the FI provided by private academies" (2018: 111).

To put it in a nutshell, monolingual regions in Spain are also working towards the integration of CLIL in the curriculum, and promising results have already been obtained. In these communities, where no regional language is spoken, foreign languages have been greenlighted to be implemented in the schools' curricula, and it is expected that these CLIL programmes will foster bilingualism in these areas in the near future.

3.2.3 Effects of CLIL on L1 competence

Studies on the effects that Content and Language Integrated Learning has on the L1 competence, as discussed in section 3.1.2, are scarcer than those which focus on L2 competence, probably due to the fact that most of the researchers who investigate CLIL are foreign language educators. Nevertheless, over the last few years, a number of studies have factored in not only the effects of CLIL on the L2, but also on the L1 and the NLA subject, and many of these have been carried out in Spain.

In the Autonomous Community of Madrid, Sotoca (2014) set out to evaluate the impact that CLIL had on the academic achievement of students of public schools during their second and third cycles of primary education. To do this, she measured students' performance via course grades, an external test that is carried out in sixth grade by the regional administration on "Essential Skills and Knowledge", and a diagnostic test carried out in fourth grade, also by the administration. It was found that, while school grades in the areas of English and Science were higher for non-CLIL students, the external tests administered to fourth-grade students yielded no statistically significant differences between the control and the experimental group. However, for students of sixth grade, the examination of the external tests confirmed that there were statistically significant differences in favour of CLIL students in Spanish and Mathematics. From these results, Sotoca (2014) suspects that, even though CLIL students performed better overall than the non-CLIL students, CLIL teachers were more demanding than teachers who did not teach their subjects through CLIL, therefore lowering the school grades of the bilingual students.

These results tally with those obtained by Nieto Moreno de Diezmas (2017) in the region of Castilla-la Mancha. In this case, however, the study was carried out with secondary education students in their second grade of CSE. A reading test evaluated students' reading comprehension in Spanish, their mother tongue, and aimed to gather data concerning three reading subskills: Literal reading, Inferential reading, and Critical reading. CLIL students significantly outperformed non-CLIL ones in two out the three reading subskills analysed (Literal and Inferential reading), but there were no statistically significant differences with respect to Critical reading. Additionally, CLIL students outstripped their monolingual peers with regard to global comprehension, lexical comprehension, time-space relationships, extra-textual relationships, and interpretation of extra-textual context. Nieto Moreno de Diezmas (2017) interprets those results as evidence that language transfer has taken place between the students' first and second languages, which would also explain why critical reading is not affected by CLIL, given that this skill is more related to students' maturity than to the acquisition of reading skills.

Nevertheless, while most studies in Spain have found that CLIL has no detrimental effects on the students' L1, the above-mentioned research from San Isidro (2017) shed some interesting results with regards to the effects of CLIL on Galician and Spanish language. In this study, it was proved that CLIL, rather than having no detrimental effect on the L1, actually improved students' competence in their L1 (both Galician and Spanish). As a matter of fact, while the CLIL cohort showed improvements on global competence, reading, and writing in the Galician language after the first year, no significant changes were found with respect to listening, writing, or speaking for the non-CLIL group. Similarly, for Spanish language, while the CLIL

group improved their global competence, reading, and writing, no significant differences were found for the non-CLIL group either on their overall competence or on individual skills. These findings are in line with Pascual Bajo's study in the Valencian community (2018), where, in public schools, the CLIL students outstripped the control students in their use of the regional language (Valencian), and no statistically significant differences were found between the experimental and control groups for Spanish competence.

All in all, it can be concluded that, in Spain, as is the case in Europe, CLIL has no detrimental effects on the students' mother tongue. In fact, rather than negatively affecting students' Spanish competence, in some cases it seems to enhance it, due to the underlying proficiency on which it has an effect. Nonetheless, further research would be required in order to confirm whether this holds true in a statistically significant number of cases.

3.2.4 Effects of CLIL on NLA content knowledge

With respect to the effects of CLIL on NLA knowledge, different studies have shed light on whether CLIL has any positive or negative effects on the acquisition of contents from subjects not belonging to the language area. While some studies in Europe (Jäppinen, 2005; Badertscher & Bieri, 2009; Mattheoudakis *et al.*, 2014; Dallinger *et al.*, 2016) showed no significant results in favour of the CLIL group with regards to the acquisition of NLA competences, other studies (Surmont *et al.*, 2016) revealed positive effects of CLIL on the content area.

In the Spanish context, however, Anghel *et al.* (2016) found very different results concerning the effects of CLIL on the NLA subject. They compared the results obtained in a standardised test (the *Conocimientos y Destrezas Indispensables*¹⁴ test, also known as CDI) among bilingual and non-bilingual primary students in the Madrid area. Whereas the differences between the experimental and control groups were insignificant regarding the areas of reading and Mathematics, the CLIL group obtained statistically significant lower results than the monolingual one in the area of *Conocimiento del Medio*¹⁵, which was taught in English. This difference between the two groups was more marked when the parents of the bilingual students did not have college education (2016). For Anghel *et al.* (2016: 1204) "it seems clear that the extra effort made to use English as the medium of instruction comes at the expense of a worsening in the results of standard examinations of that subject in Spanish". The authors admit that it may be true that the bilingual students do not know less, but are not able to express their knowledge of the area in Spanish, their native language. However, given that other tests that have academic consequences (unlike this one) are in Spanish, these results are particularly relevant, since the bilingual programme has put these students at a disadvantage over their monolingual peers.

Additionally, another recent study by Fernández Sanjurjo *et al.* (2017) tallies with these results and provides another contrasting note to the positive results found by Surmont *et al.* (2016). Fernández Sanjurjo *et al.* (2017) intended to measure primary education students'

¹⁴ Indispensable Knowledge and Skills

¹⁵ Knowledge of the Environment

competence in Science factoring in whether or not they were following a CLIL programme. They conducted their study in the Principality of Asturias in Spain, and their sample comprised of 709 sixth grade primary education students enrolled in public schools. The researchers also determined the socio-economic status (SES) of the students by means of a survey, in order to determine whether this variable had any effects on their performance. The students' content knowledge was determined via a Science test in Spanish. Both tools were validated by experts in the area.

The researchers found that students who followed a CLIL programme were outperformed by their non-CLIL peers. It was also found that their SES affected their performance on the Science test (poorer results were linked to lower SES). When both the CLIL/non-CLIL and the SES variables were factored in, it emerged that, for each of the three SES groups, the non-CLIL students performed slightly higher than their CLIL counterparts.

The authors hypothesise that the poorer performance of CLIL students could be due to limited exposure to the L2 outside school, to poor teacher training programmes (especially compared to those of other countries), to lack of suitable materials, or even to the fact that students may not have been able to perform well in their Science test because it was in Spanish, in which case it would be required to reconsider whether CLIL programmes are contributing to English monolingualism rather than to bilingualism (Phillipson, 1992, 2003, 2008; Seidlhofer, 2004).

The scarcity of research on the effects of CLIL on NLA knowledge in Spain makes it difficult to derive any final conclusions from its review. It seems, however, that the alleged beneficial effects of CLIL on the students' NLA knowledge in the Spanish context are virtually nonexistent

for primary education, and, in some cases, the bilingual programme hinders academic achievements in the areas taught through the L2. It is yet to be proved whether, over the course of time, these programmes work in favour of CLIL students (as was indeed found by Sotoca (2014)). However, it would be necessary to continue analysing this particular effect in order to draw any solid conclusions in our national context.

3.2.5 Qualitative studies on stakeholder perspectives

A number of studies have been aimed at understanding the opinions of the different stakeholders involved in the CLIL enterprise across Spain. Even though "the country has no single blueprint for CLIL" (Pladevall & Vallbona, 2016: 39), some studies on stakeholders' perspectives in different CLIL contexts across the country allow us to paint an overall picture of the *zeitgeist* concerning CLIL in Spain.

In the province of Madrid, the CLIL project directed by Ana Halbach and conducted in the Universidad de Alcalá de Henares aimed to gather and analyse qualitative data from the Comunidad de Madrid bilingual project. It emerged that teachers and schools viewed the bilingual programme as a way to adapt to European needs and as an opportunity to develop teachers' language competence and English language teaching methodology (Llinares & Dafouz, 2010: 103-104).

In turn, the ProCLIL project (Providing Guidelines for CLIL Implementation), a Comenius Project coordinated by the University of Cyprus –and, in the Madrid community, by María Dolores

Ramírez-Verdugo from the Universidad Autónoma de Madrid– had the objective of identifying good CLIL practices and to evaluate the effectiveness of this approach at infant and primary school levels. For this purpose, data were gathered through questionnaires delivered to teachers and administrators and through video-recorded lessons. The project then provided guidelines of effective CLIL practice and disseminated their results through publication of materials, training seminars and a public website.

At secondary level, the UAM-CLIL Project, which started in 2005-2006, collected data from two CLIL schools participating in the MEC/British Council Project. Spoken and written data were collected, and some students were also interviewed. The same students were monitored from their first to their fourth grade of CSE, and the analysis was made using Systemic-Functional Linguistics as a framework. The studies carried out were cross-sectional and longitudinal, though most of them were cross-sectional (Whittaker & Llinares, 2009). The CLIL students were also compared against those students in non-CLIL programmes. The studies show the complexities in classroom interaction between CLIL students and teachers, and the findings have implications on teacher training (Llinares & Dafouz, 2010: 107).

In turn, the MIRCo research group (Multilingüismo, Identidades sociales, Relaciones intercomunitarias y Comunicación) examines the links between local discourse practices and wider social processes, basing their studies on two different educational approaches in the Madrid area: the immersion programme called *bridging classes* (where Spanish is the only means of instruction) and the CLIL programmes in public secondary schools (where both English and Spanish are the means of instruction). It concluded that there were hierarchical

differences between linguistic varieties and that linguistic ideologies legitimise these inequalities (Martín Rojo, 2009).

Last but not least, the UCM-CLUE Project (Universidad Complutense de Madrid - Content and Language in University Education), directed by Emma Dafouz Milne, focused on CLIL in Higher Education. Since 2007, it focuses on teacher discourse patterns in lecture-type lessons conducted in the teachers' L2 (English). It emerged that CLIL teachers use language that promotes a less hierarchical atmosphere and fosters student participation. In the micro-features contrastive analysis, the teachers show greater stylistic variety, more explicitness, and the use of more cognitively salient devices when they interact in Spanish, their mother tongue.

Turning now to students' perceptions, Lasagabaster and Doiz (2016) found that CLIL students from all age groups acknowledged their own improvements in English due to the programme more than their non-CLIL peers. They preferred group work rather than individual work (although this trend diminished as students entered adolescence, and the least popular activity by all age groups was oral presentations). They also showed preference for authentic materials over the textbook. Moreover, in the CLIL classroom, students considered all four language skills, as well as pronunciation and vocabulary, to be important. Grammar, on the contrary, was not considered as relevant, especially for the younger and older students. The importance given to all language aspects, nevertheless, decreased as students got older, and, supposedly, more fluent in the foreign language, which led the researchers to believe that, as

students' competence in the FL increases, the focus is shifted from language to content, and therefore language is not considered as important.

In addition, San Isidro (2017), proved that CLIL students showed higher positive attitudes and motivation than the non-CLIL students from the start towards English, and that CLIL students were more integrative of other cultures, had a clearer instrumental orientation towards the FL, and displayed lower levels of anxiety when speaking English. Although both the experimental and control groups displayed more positive attitudes and motivation towards the end of the longitudinal study, "the CLIL cohort's scores were significantly higher and sustained in time" (2017: 332).

As far as teacher perceptions are concerned concerning bilingual programmes in Spain, Durán Martínez and Beltrán Llavador (2017) carried out a study in order to gather information from 97 in-service primary teachers on four key areas: training, resources, school organisation, and overall assessment of the bilingual programme. It emerged that teachers demanded more training from the educational authorities both in methodological aspects of CLIL and language competence. These results tally with other studies such as San Isidro (2017), in which it emerged that teachers demanded more training even prior to starting any CLIL programme. They also match those obtained in the study by Cabezuelo Gutiérrez and Fernández Fernández (2014), and the study that Fernández and Halbach (2011) carried out. The two latter investigations found that, in the Madrid area, rather than language improvement courses, which were more needed at the outset of the programme (*cf.* Fernández Fernández, Pena Díaz, García Gómez and Halbach, 2005), teachers demanded methodological training in CLIL.

Fernández and Halbach (2011) also found that teachers asked for some kind of recognition for participating in a bilingual programme. Therefore, more investment in bilingual programmes on the part of the educational authorities was claimed by teachers, given that "their effectiveness increases insofar as they are backed with human and material resources" (Durán Martínez & Beltrán Llavador, 2017: 10).

This investment is linked to the cooperation of language assistants, ICT training opportunities, and mobility programmes, amongst other resources. Teachers were not enthusiastic either about published materials (in which they coincided with students in Lasagabaster and Doiz's (2016) and Durán Martínez, Beltrán-Llavador, and Martínez-Abad's (2016) studies), and placed emphasis on the aspect of coordination for the CLIL programme to succeed.

However, not all teachers have the same opinions about bilingual programmes. Durán Martínez *et al.* (2016) showed that there were significant differences between experienced and novice teachers. For example, the more experienced they were and the higher their linguistic competence, the more they valued methodological skills and the integration of content and language, and the more critical their view towards the materials and resources available for the CLIL classroom. Moreover, it emerged that their regard for organizational aspects also increased as their level of experience was higher, since they were more aware of the demands of CLIL and the importance of coordination with other teachers within and outside the school.

Not all aspects evaluated evinced negative results for Durán Martínez and Beltrán Llavador (2017): in general, teachers perceived an overall improvement of their students' level of

English as a result of the bilingual programme, they also believed that more active methodologies were involved in CLIL (which, in turn, increased coordination among teachers), and they held the bilingual projects in high regard despite acknowledging that "there is still a long way ahead of them" (2017: 12), in line with the results obtained by Durán Martínez *et al.* (2016) and Barrios Espinosa and Milla Lara (2018).

Concerning families' perceptions about CLIL, San Isidro (2017: 337) confirmed that parents displayed "really positive attitudes towards foreign languages", and, although this statement was true for parents of students from both the experimental (CLIL) and control group (non-CLIL), there were differences concerning the opinions of both groups of parents about language learning: while parents of CLIL students, from the outset of the study, showed favourable attitudes towards the CLIL model, parents from the control group had a clear preference for Galician as the means of instruction of NLA subjects. Additionally, in San Isidro's words (2017: 340), the answers from parents in the control group "seem to indicate a lack of support regarding the learning of English". However, parents from both groups proceeded over the span of this longitudinal study to improve their views towards language learning, and this progress was parallel in both groups even though parents of CLIL students consistently showed more positive attitudes.

To sum up, CLIL programmes across the country seem to have gained stakeholders' positive regards, since students, teachers, and parents from the CLIL cohort consistently display more favourable attitudes towards the programme and language learning in general, and agree that the CLIL students have improved their English skills as result of the programme in which they

are enrolled. However, it is also acknowledged that there are areas still to work on: teacher training and lack of materials come to the fore as niches that need further investment for the correct development of CLIL programmes.

3.3 Andalusia: the APPP and the PEDLA

3.3.1 Background

Andalusia, a region which consistently obtains poor results in tests designed to compare educational standards such as PISA (OECD, 2012), also exhibits very low results compared to the European (and Spanish) average concerning English as a first foreign language. The results obtained in Andalusia for reading comprehension and writing expression in English are low compared to the Spanish and European results, and only France and England obtained lower scores for these skills. However, in the case of oral comprehension, Andalusian scores were the lowest of all countries and regions compared, including England and France (Ministerio de Educación, Cultura y Deporte, 2012: 49-53).

In spite of the fact that these results are neither secret nor new, we still find them shocking, especially bearing in mind the multicultural society in which we live, due not only to immigration, but also to the number of tourists from a variety of places who visit the region. This implies cultural and linguistic wealth which could be taken advantage of in order to invert the current situation, using the resources at hand. However, Andalusian educational authorities decided to take action on the language education issue, and the region has been

described as "a monolingual community striving to jump on the bilingual bandwagon" (Pérez Cañado, 2011: 392).

Andalusia has, to a certain degree, competences in education in the territory as long as these do not contradict Spanish educational laws. Thus, the law currently in force is the Ley de Educación de Andalucía (also known as LEA)¹⁶. In this law, the extension of the number of weekly hours dedicated to the teaching of Mathematics, Spanish language and a foreign language is regulated.

Nonetheless, as for the legal framework concerning the topic under scrutiny, the most relevant regulation is the Andalusian Plurilingualism Promotion Plan (Junta de Andalucía, 2004)¹⁷, launched in November 2004 (Madrid, 2006: 181) and approved in March 2005 as an attempt to elaborate a linguistic policy designed to meet Andalusia's needs, although there were some initiatives for that purpose already being launched since 1998 in the region (Madrid, 2006: 182). The plan aims to improve Andalusian foreign language standards via immersion in one or two foreign languages (to be chosen between English, French and German) in content areas. The Plan has ever expanded since its beginnings and, in the year 2018-2019, 1,469 public bilingual schools form part of the APPP (Lorenzo, 2019). Meanwhile, the regional authorities have disclosed their aim to achieve at least 1,500 bilingual schools in the APPP network by 2020 (Europa Press, 2017). In Lancaster's words (2016: 91), a "swift uptake" has taken place with regards to CLIL implementation in the region.

¹⁶ Ley 17/2007, de 10 de diciembre, de Educación de Andalucía (BOJA 26/12/2007).

¹⁷ Plan de Fomento del Plurilingüismo en Andalucía (BOJA 65, 05/04/2005). (Junta de Andalucía, 2004).

3.3.2 The APPP

The Andalusian Plurilingualism Promotion Plan responds to recommendations by the European Commission concerning the implementation of CLIL in the European Union, as well as the Council of Europe's recommendations (Beacco & Byram, 2003). Therefore, it can be considered that the APPP responds to the linguistic needs of its society, and it also meets the criteria established by several official documents at supranational (European), national and regional level. These bases promote a language learning atmosphere in which methodological innovations, teamwork and linguistic improvements have fostered the elaboration of an Integrated Language Curriculum (ILC).

3.3.2.1 General objectives

In general terms, the Andalusian Plurilingualism Promotion Plan (the APPP) intends to raise linguistic competence among Andalusian students and to develop their plurilingual and pluricultural skills (Madrid, 2006: 182), so that they obtain the tools necessary to prosper in today's society. For that purpose, the foreign language is to be used in realistic communicative situations, "in such a way that it allows [the students] to become aware that it is a valid instrument which can help them to discover and structure their vision of the world" (Junta de Andalucía, 2004: 25).

The general objectives stated in the APPP can be summarised as follows:

Action 1: Increase in the number of hours of language study in the school curriculum and expansion of the network of Official Language Schools.

Action 2: Establishment of a network of 400 Bilingual Schools.

Action 3: Pushing forward the first foreign language to infant education and the first cycle of primary education.

Action 4: Progressive implementation of flexible school timetables in order to increase contact with the L2.

Action 5: Adaptation of the curriculum for pupils with special educational needs.

Action 6: Reform and expansion of distance language learning.

Action 7: Promotion of the participation of schools in European programmes.

Action 8: Promotion of exchange visits by pupils and teachers.

Action 9: Progressive extension of the Language and Youth Programme.

Action 10: Strengthening of language-learning summer camps for pupils in obligatory education.

Action 11: Promotion of twinning between schools in different countries.

Action 12: Creation of a commission to develop a new design for the integrated language curriculum.

Action 13: Opening of a line of research to experiment and implement the European Language Portfolio throughout the education system.

From these general objectives, the scope and ambition of the APPP can be inferred, since it entails a variety of changes within the Andalusian school system, making the APPP a programme that goes well beyond a mere increase in the hours the students are exposed to the L2.

These general objectives are narrowed down into specific programmes which develop the general objectives and render them more tangible for their implementation in the Andalusian schooling system, which will be reviewed in the following section.

3.3.2.2 Specific programmes of the APPP

3.3.2.2.1 Bilingual schools programme

By means of the Bilingual schools programme, schools from infant, primary, and secondary educational levels increase the exposure of the students to the L2. Both the mother tongue and the FL become the means of instruction for content subjects, while students also benefit from linguistic and cultural plurality, as recommended by the EU. The L2 is introduced from the first cycle of primary education, while the second foreign language (or L3) is introduced from the third cycle of primary education.

For the programme to run smoothly, support is provided by the authorities through the following tools: Specific training for teachers, curriculum-related teaching material and equipment, technological equipment, training plan for parents, agreements with foreign institutions, language assistants, specialised language classrooms, cultural activities, and exchange visits, amongst other.

This programme aims to develop students' language skills in their mother tongue and their foreign languages. In addition, it is expected that they will gain cultural awareness and benefit from the development of overall cognitive skills (Junta de Andalucía, 2004: 30-31).

3.3.2.2 Official Language Schools programme

This programme adapts the existing Official Language Schools (OLSs) across Andalusia to the needs put forward by the APPP in terms of curriculum, organisation, levels of instruction, and teaching. Therefore, these schools become integrated language schools where the favoured languages are the ones that are co-official in Spain, the ones of the EU state members, and those of neighbouring countries.

A key point in the OLS programme is that these language schools are not solely dedicated to the teaching of foreign language to students, but also to the bilingual schools teachers, who need to increase their language competence in order to be able to teach their subject in the FL. These are the so-called *Cursos de Adaptación Lingüística* (Language Adaptation Courses).

Research and innovation on the part of the OLS teachers are encouraged in order to meet the objectives set by the CEFR. Likewise, with the aim of reaching as many people as possible,

distance learning is invigorated. Furthermore, given that OLSs also have the function of officially certifying language proficiency, tests across OLSs are unified.

In sum, the OLSs serve as a chief element of the APPP by supporting the structure of the bilingual schools programme via teacher training, language certification, outreach to the community, and, needless to say, language instruction (Junta de Andalucía, 2004: 39-41).

3.3.2.2.3 Teachers and Plurilingualism programme

Teachers are vital in the effective implementation of the APPP: it is they who are ultimately responsible for the success of the programme, since they are in charge of the lessons and of coordinating with other teachers to guarantee a smooth CLIL environment. It is for this reason that the APPP places special focus on teacher training, which is "one of the pillars of any education system" (Junta de Andalucía, 2004: 42), and on the improvement of teachers' working conditions.

For those aims, TTCs, OLSs and other institutions work together to ensure that teachers are updated in their language skills, methodological practices, materials development and assessment criteria, and that they are able to implement the European Language Portfolio at all levels. Furthermore, as mentioned above, OLSs provide specific lessons to teachers of bilingual schools so that they are able to deliver their lessons in the FL. Last but not least, a network is established between educational centres in Andalusia and other parts of Europe via programmes such as Grundtvig and Comenius, and teacher mobility is encouraged (Junta de Andalucía, 2004: 42-43).

3.3.2.2.4 Plurilingualism and Society programme

The APPP recognises the vital role that society in general, and families in particular, play in the educational arena. For that reason, the Plurilingualism and Society programme aims to engage not only the school, but also the broader society, in the language development of the students.

Different actions are destined for this purpose, such as:

1. To give priority to extra-curricular and complementary classes outside school hours
2. To provide language training lessons for parents, with the objective of engaging them in the learning process and ensuring their integration within the school community.
3. To create specific courses at the OLSs for adults and professionals.
4. To encourage language learning also from public television, by broadcasting programmes aimed at young audiences in a language other than Spanish, with the aid of subtitles.

3.3.2.2.5 Plurilingualism and Cross-Culturalism programme

Given the multiculturalism of Andalusian society, and provided that language education is an essential tool to foster multicultural awareness and understanding among the cultures, the APPP foresees a number of actions dedicated to achieving a more integrated and equal society while preserving the students' cultural identities.

Therefore, students who have a different country of origin will be instructed in the Spanish culture. However, their own culture will also be studied, so that they are able to maintain their roots. Teachers will also receive training in foreign languages in order to improve their

communication with immigrant students. The APPP also suggests the revision of the school's official documents in order to ensure that immigrant students are accounted for, so that they can assimilate in their classrooms with normality.

In addition, partnerships between Spanish institutions and those of the countries of origin of the students (such as Morocco) will be established. Furthermore, a pilot Mixed Scholarisation Programme is to study the possibilities of having two groups of students in class –each one from one culture of origin– in which each group studies their peers' culture and language as well as their own, thus learning to value all cultures equally.

Most of the above-cited objectives have been implemented so far in Andalusian plurilingual schools (Lancaster, 2016: 95) and the current network comprises 1,469 schools as of the academic year 2018-2019, with over 460,000 students benefitting from a CLIL approach in either English, French, German, Arabic, Chinese, Modern Greek, Italian, Japanese, Portuguese, Russian, or Spanish for foreigners. This has superseded initial expectations and has made of Andalusia the number one Spanish region where more languages are taught at primary and secondary education levels (Junta de Andalucía, 2017b).

3.3.3 The PEDLA

The Junta de Andalucía launched in 2017 the PEDLA (*Plan Estratégico de Desarrollo de las Lenguas en Andalucía*), which aimed to consolidate the APPP's achievements and to advance its objectives, matching them with the current reality of Andalusia (Junta de Andalucía,

2017a). Therefore, the main objective that the educational authorities had upon the launch of this plan was the complete acquisition of linguistic communicative competence, which was to be understood (beyond merely the competence in foreign languages) as the use of language as an instrument for communication and regulation of thought and conduct (2017a: 11).

In order to achieve this broad objective, these are the sub-aims of the PEDLA (2017a: 19-29):

1. To consolidate the achievements of the APPP

To guarantee continuity of bilingual education when progressing from one educational stage to the next, as well as equality of opportunities for students in disadvantaged areas, by widening the bilingual school network, ensuring appropriate certification for teachers via teacher training opportunities, promoting the figure of language assistants, and turning classrooms into multilingual environments.

2. To improve and to expand teacher training

To contribute to adequate teacher training, designing a battery of formative activities that cover the most relevant aspects of language learning and teaching and evaluation from the linguistic, scientific, didactic and pedagogical points of view. This objective will be achieved by fostering cooperation between teachers through training opportunities, by generating an open resource and materials bank, by ensuring that teachers have the necessary training in

innovative methodologies (ELP¹⁸, e-ELP¹⁹, CLT²⁰, and PBL²¹among others), by designing formative itineraries for teachers, by fostering team work via the ILC²², by recognising partial linguistic competences, by linking language learning to the development of communicative skills, by promoting the SLP²³, and by developing plurilingual and pluricultural skills as inseparable aspects of the teaching and learning of a language.

3. To optimise R & D

To consolidate the relationship between the educational administration and society in a way that language teaching has as one of its referents R & D activities. This will be done by linking Language Education to R & D in accordance to the principles of the Andalusian Knowledge System (*Sistema Andaluz de Conocimiento*) and the 2020 Andalusian R & D Plan (*Plan Andaluz de Investigación, Desarrollo e Innovación 2020*)

4. To increase exposure to languages outside the classroom

To encourage the use of foreign languages in a different context than the classroom by developing Lifelong Language Learning strategies through the use and adaptation of cultural products in their original versions by means of agreements with the media industry

¹⁸ European Language Portfolio

¹⁹ Electronic European Language Portfolio

²⁰ Communicative Language Teaching

²¹ Project-Based Learning

²² Integrated Language Curriculum

²³ School Language Project

(particularly, RTVA²⁴), and by disseminating the foundations of the Erasmus + programme as a source of contact with other schools across Europe.

5. To foster interculturality

To benefit from the presence of students of foreign origin in the educational system (which entails a diversity of languages and cultures in schools) and to counteract the fact that foreign students suffer from a higher failure rate, by guaranteeing their full integration in the Andalusian educational system, and by fostering intercultural harmony from schools.

6. To increase the students' results in language learning

At least 30% of non-CLIL students in Andalusia are to achieve the following levels of competence in the FL:

- A1 at the end of primary education
- A2 at the end of CSE
- B1 at the end of NCSE (non-compulsory secondary education)

At least 50% of CLIL students in Andalusia are to achieve the following levels of competence in the FL:

- A2 at the end of primary education
- B1 at the end of CSE

²⁴ *Radio y Televisión de Andalucía*

- B2 at the end of NCSE

To sum up, the educational authorities, while being aware of the complexity of language teaching and the effort that the bilingual programme requires, have the firm decision to continue moving forward with bilingual education by ensuring correct planning and by relying on qualified professionals who have both an adequate preparation and understanding of language and didactic strategies. Each language is conceived, therefore, as a vehicle of instruction and communication, as a tool for cultural immersion, and an aid for students' professional future.

3.3.4 Research on bilingual education in Andalusia

Despite the fact that most research on the implementation of CLIL in Andalusia has been carried out by practitioners (Pérez Cañado, 2011: 393), several large studies have been conducted, both quantitative and qualitative, from the onset of the APPP implementation up to the present.

3.3.4.1 Effects of CLIL on L2 competence

After having reviewed some of the most relevant studies concerning CLIL in Europe and in Spain, we will now focus on the research on CLIL conducted in this region. The first large study on the Plurilingualism Promotion Plan was the one coordinated by Lorenzo (Pablo de Olavide

University in Seville), and carried out between 2006 and 2007. It consists of a quantitative and qualitative study on the outcomes of CLIL instruction, with outstandingly positive results. Several publications sprang forth from this study: Casal and Moore (2008), where the research design is described; Lorenzo *et al.* (2009a), where the qualitative outcomes are analysed; and Lorenzo, Casal, Moore, and Afonso (2009b), where quantitative data from the study are explained. Given that this study was the first of its type in Andalusia, it constitutes "a necessary starting and reference point in the research panorama of our autonomous community" (Pérez Cañado, 2011: 393).

The results obtained by Lorenzo's study were clearly positive: CLIL learners outperformed their non-bilingual peers by statistically significant margins. In the authors' words, "[t]hese results demonstrate a clear competence differential between bilingual and control groups, confirmed as significant in the statistical analysis" (Lorenzo *et al.*, 2009a: 426). In sum, "CLIL learners were clearly outperforming their mainstream peers" (Lorenzo *et al.*, 2009a: 426). Furthermore, the correlation between exposure to the L2 and the competence acquired by the students was not linear, according to the researchers, since later start learners' competences were comparable with those of early start learners (Lorenzo *et al.*, 2009a: 426-427). In sum, as they put it (2009a: 436), "these results suggest that CLIL is an approach which may hold significant potential for European education planning".

Nevertheless, this study has been found to be flawed in several methodological aspects (Bruton, 2011: 1-4; Pérez Cañado, 2011: 395-396). For example, the language competence results were analysed in bulk without being segregated by language (English, French or

German). Furthermore, the homogeneity between the control and experimental group was not controlled for, and there was not always an experimental and control group for each of the languages. There is no methodological triangulation or a factor analysis that allows the researchers to determine the cause of certain outcomes from the study. In addition, no pre-test scores were taken into account, which Bruton (2011: 2) interprets as an implication that both CLIL and non-CLIL groups are similar upon entering the study. However, in his view, this is far from reality, since self-selection may have played an important role in how the CLIL and non-CLIL groups are formed (Bruton, 2011: 2-3). Lorenzo, Francisco, Casal, and Moore (2011: 451), in a reply to Bruton's claims, defend their position by arguing that the groups were formed in line with the regulations in place, and that "it can be hardly claimed that the study was not an accurate [sic.] reflection of what actually happens in the bilingual school network". As for self-selection, they remind us (2011: 454) that "when one-size-fits-all models have been introduced, the programmes have failed miserably".

A few years later, another study, this time coordinated by Daniel Madrid, from the University of Granada, overcame many of these pitfalls. It aimed to provide information on the students' L1, L2 and subject matter knowledge in both primary and secondary education, and it was carried out by a team of 16 people (six researchers and ten collaborators) (Pérez Cañado, 2011: 396). The results of this study are displayed in several publications (Madrid, 2011; Ramos, 2011; Ramos *et al.*, 2011; Roa, Madrid, & Sanz, 2011; Villoria, Hughes, & Madrid, 2011; Hughes & Madrid, 2015). 312 participants took part in this study: 144 in primary education and 168 in secondary education (Roa *et al.*, 2011: 116). Data were collected from four different types of schools at both primary and secondary level: public bilingual, private bilingual, public

monolingual and charter monolingual. However, as the authors acknowledge, the main objective was to compare the results of the CLIL vs. non-CLIL students and, therefore, to draw conclusions based on the amount of hours of instruction they received in the FL (Roa *et al.*, 2011: 119). The schools this study was conducted in are mostly located in the province of Granada, although some students from a public school in Seville were also included (Roa *et al.*, 2011: 122-126). Spanish, subject matter knowledge and English (all five skills, taking into account oral interaction) were tested and analysed following a quasi-experimental design (Roa *et al.*, 2011: 132).

In this study, it emerged that bilingual students consistently outperformed their monolingual peers at both primary and secondary education levels in listening, speaking and oral interaction, reading and writing (although differences were not as significant when comparing public and private schools for these two last skills) (Villoria *et al.*, 2011: 170-180). Higher performance levels were obtained by those who attended private tuition in addition to their morning lessons and by girls, although gender differences were not statistically significant (Villoria *et al.*, 2011: 179-180). Villoria *et al.* (2011) thus conclude that "the results [...] do seem to indicate that initiatives taken by the educational administration in terms of the introduction of bilingual programmes are beginning to have an effect on student performance in the public sector".

In the light of their results, Madrid and Hughes (2011: 41) consider that the APPP "represents the most important step towards the teaching and learning of modern languages in our autonomous community since the regional authorities took charge of educational policy".

Nevertheless, some methodological flaws can also be pointed out in this study. First of all, the sample was extremely small. As the authors of the study acknowledge, "[t]he type of sample used in our study has been casual and non probabilistic" (Roa *et al.*, 2011: 116). Secondly, no statistical analyses were performed that explain whether the differences between the CLIL and non-CLIL groups are specifically due to CLIL instruction and not to self-selection variables. Last but not least, no follow-up study was carried out. Therefore, the evolution of these students was not monitored in order to track their progress over time.

Looking more specifically into some key aspects evaluated in this study, Hughes and Madrid (2015), using the same sample of students from bilingual and monolingual students at both primary and secondary education levels, analysed written production differences between the cohorts. Significant differences between monolingual and bilingual students were found at both primary and secondary levels: it was clear to the researchers that bilingual students had a higher level of linguistic competence in the L2, reflected in their writings in both accuracy and use of vocabulary. Monolingual students, on the contrary, were barely able to complete the tasks proposed in primary education, and had to resort to compensation strategies, such as recurring to their mother tongue. Even though the gap between monolingual and bilingual students was not as wide in secondary education as it was in primary education, the differences were significant, which led the researchers to conclude that

[B]ilingual education [...] enables students to deal with writing tasks with much higher levels of fluency and accuracy than by learning the language in the language class alone. Bilingual students are better prepared to meet official targets for written expression and, hence, to communicate more effectively in the foreign language (2015: 110).

Years later, a team of researchers coordinated by María Luisa Pérez Cañado at the University of Jaén participated in two governmentally-funded projects (FFI2012-32221 and P12-HUM-2348, funded by the *Ministerio de Economía y Competitividad* and the *Junta de Andalucía*, respectively) concerning the effects of CLIL on students' L2 and L1 competence, NLA content acquisition and stakeholders' perspectives as some of their key metaconcerns in the autonomous regions of Andalusia, Extremadura, and the Canary Islands. These research projects overcame many of the limitations from previous investigations (lack of triangulation, no homogenisation process, no longitudinal perspective, no discriminant analyses, no intervening variables), and accounted for the effects of CLIL on eight different types of variables, namely context, type of school, educational level, motivation, verbal intelligence, extramural exposure, and socio-economic status²⁵.

Within the abovementioned projects, the effects of CLIL on productive skills were looked into by Pérez Cañado and Lancaster (2017). They reported on a longitudinal case study in the province in Jaén in which 24 fourth grade of CSE students (12 following a CLIL programme and 12 following a traditional EFL programme) were tested on oral comprehension and production at the onset of the study, after a CLIL intervention of a one-year duration (post-test), and six months after the intervention ended (second post-test) in order to determine whether the effects of the intervention persisted even when CLIL instruction was no longer received.

Their results show that productive oral skills, rather than receptive ones, are the ones that are most positively affected by a CLIL intervention programme in the medium and long term, in

²⁵ The present dissertation is embedded in these projects.

contrast with previous findings in other contexts (Harley *et al.*, 1991; Genesee & Lindholm-Leary, 2013; Tedick & Weseley, 2015). The post-test phase, tallying with previous research, showed statistically significant differences between the groups in both oral productive and receptive skills, in favour of the CLIL group (except for pronunciation, in which the EFL students were more accurate than the experimental group). However, in the second post-test phase, no statistically significant differences were found between the groups in receptive oral skills. Both the experimental and control group levelled out in their listening tasks, which is a surprising finding, given that the CLIL group had outperformed the ELF one in the previous phase of the study.

Nonetheless, the situation is markedly different as far as the productive oral skills are concerned: CLIL students clearly surpassed their non-CLIL counterparts in speaking skills, including pronunciation. Therefore, this study by Pérez Cañado and Lancaster (2017) shows greater development of productive oral skills in CLIL programmes, which contrasts with most of the research in the area. Nevertheless, the sample is fairly reduced both geographically and numerically, and it would be necessary to carry out discriminant and factor analyses before being able to extrapolate these results.

More recently, Madrid and Barrios (2018) confirmed, in a study carried out in the provinces of Cádiz and Málaga, that, when the CLIL group was compared against the non-CLIL one, they obtained higher scores, both at primary and secondary education levels, for the composite measure of use of English, vocabulary, listening and reading, as well as for speaking (a skills that obtained particularly outstanding results for the CLIL group). 17 schools formed part of

the sample, out of which 13 were public schools, one was private, and three were charter schools. Out of all types of schools, the bilingual private school obtained the highest scores, followed by the public CLIL school, in line with the results obtained by Villoria *et al.* (2011).

However, surprisingly enough, at the secondary level, no significant advantages were found for the CLIL group in speaking, which is a finding that departs from the abovementioned study by Villoria *et al.* (2011), given that these researchers found advantages for the CLIL group in all FL skills. These findings concerning the lack of significant differences by the end of secondary education also contrast with the ones obtained by Pérez Cañado (2018a), who found that the differences between the CLIL and the non-CLIL groups, although found already at the end of primary education, were even more marked at the end of CSE, and were maintained months later, when students were in their first grade of NCSE²⁶. Moreover, the differences between the experimental and control groups were found "on absolutely all the linguistic aspects sampled" (2018: 68), which departs from the findings of Madrid and Barrios (2018), and coincides with those of Villoria *et al.* (2011).

As far as the impact of factors other than the CLIL programme itself on L2 learning is concerned, Pavón Vázquez (2018) analysed the rural-urban divide and its effects on 295 primary and secondary CLIL students in the provinces of Jaén, Granada, and Córdoba. He found that, while at the end of primary education it was students who were enrolled in urban schools who outstripped their rural peers in English competence, by the end of secondary

²⁶ This study was carried out in the eight Andalusian provinces, as well as in Extremadura and the Canary Islands (12 provinces in total).

school this was no longer the case, since both groups of students levelled out in terms of linguistic attainment (except for the oral component of the language, where urban students still maintained an advantage over rural students). These findings depart from those of Alejo and Piquer (2016) in Extremadura, where urban students consistently scored higher than rural ones.

Differences in SES in CLIL programmes, however, were not conducive to different performances in the L2, as found by Rascón Moreno and Bretones Callejas (2018). The performance of students in the L2 was independent of their SES background, which was not the case in non-CLIL scenarios. Therefore, a higher level of English was not correlated in CLIL contexts with a higher SES status. However, having a lower SES status did have an effect on anxiety, interest in learning and desire to work (all of them greater for primary students from a low SES status), which was "flipped" (2018: 133) by the end of secondary school, when students from low SES backgrounds had less interest in learning and less desire to work than students who came from a higher SES status.

The latest study on CLIL in Andalusia (Lorenzo, 2019) has both a quantitative and a qualitative focus. Its aim is to gather students' and teachers' perceptions about the APPP as well as quantitative data on L2 and L1 competence, and NLA content acquisition at primary and secondary education levels in both CLIL and non-CLIL students. Its sample is large (over 8,000 students from primary and secondary education centres and 1,101 teachers including all bilingual coordinators from the eight Andalusian provinces). The results show statistically

significant differences between the two groups always in favour of CLIL students for reading, listening, and writing skills in the L2.

The variability in some of these studies' results may be due to the fact that more time is needed until we determine with absolute certainty the effects of CLIL on all linguistic aspects considered, since time is a requisite "for the full effect of CLIL to be felt on foreign language attainment" (Pérez Cañado, 2018a: 68). Nonetheless, these results suggest that language learning is changing for the better, and the APPP is having fruitful results. Therefore, "its continued implementation would undoubtedly be recommended" (Pérez Cañado, 2018a: 68).

3.3.4.2 Effects of CLIL on L1 competence

The scarcity of research on the effects of CLIL on students' L1 is conspicuous, given the fact that most studies on CLIL in this region have focused on either the effects of CLIL on the L2 or on stakeholders' perspectives about the programme. However, three studies have included an analysis on whether CLIL has an influence on the students' mother tongue, since extra exposure to the L2 in class entails a lesser exposure to the natural language of instruction, the L1.

In the abovementioned study coordinated by Daniel Madrid, though its main focus was on whether or not CLIL improved students' foreign language skills, the effects of CLIL on the L1 were also researched. The results obtained in this study were surprisingly positive. As far as the L1 development is concerned, it was found that the bilingual students' Spanish

competence went hand-in-hand with the development of their L2, and the exposure to the L2 did not hinder students' overall performance in the CLIL lessons. Furthermore, the reduced exposure to Spanish in school did not damage their competence in their mother tongue (Ramos *et al.*, 2011: 156).

The effects of CLIL on the L1 have also been researched in 12 monolingual provinces in Spain in the regions of Andalusia, Extremadura, and the Canary Islands. Pérez Cañado (2018e) analysed the results of verbal intelligence and motivation tests, and Spanish language and literature and NLA school grades. She concluded, coinciding with the above study, that CLIL did not have a detrimental effect on students' mother tongue. These results are in line with those obtained by Merino and Lasagabaster (2015) in the Basque country, who found that following a CLIL programme in English had no detrimental effects on the students' L1 (Spanish) or L2 (Basque) development.

In fact, in Pérez Cañado's (2018e) study, which has a sample size of 2,024 participants, bilingual students superseded their monolingual peers at both primary and secondary education levels: non-CLIL students from public schools were the group lagging behind CLIL students in both private and public bilingual schools, as in Madrid and Hughes (2011). Furthermore, discriminant analyses carried out on the data confirmed that CLIL programmes were not negatively impacting either L1 or NLA learning, and that the differences between the experimental and control groups were "best explained by setting and motivation" (Pérez Cañado, 2018e: 10).

These results were later confirmed by Madrid and Barrios (2018) in the third study on this subject in Andalusia. In this study, a total of 720 students from 13 schools from the provinces of Cádiz and Málaga participated. Students were both from primary and secondary education, most of them attending schools located in urban areas. It was confirmed that the CLIL programme did not negatively affect the students' competence in their mother tongue. In fact, at CSE level, CLIL students even obtained higher scores than their non-CLIL peers for Spanish language, but these differences were not statistically significant. Similarly, the above-mentioned study by Lorenzo (2019) showed that CLIL benefits the development of the L1, especially the skill of writing. No negative effects were found because of the bilingual programme.

Additionally, the effects of SES on L1 acquisition were statistically insignificant in CLIL contexts (Rascón Moreno & Bretones Callejas, 2018), while this was not the case in non-CLIL contexts, where high-SES students obtained better grades for this subject than low-SES students. CLIL, in this sense, served a levelling purpose for students from varied SES contexts. The urban-rural divide was not a major factor either for performance in the L1: both rural and urban CLIL students obtained similar results in their L1 competence (Pavón Vázquez, 2018).

The studies on the effects of CLIL on the L1 in Andalusia, though scarce, unanimously point to the fact that no negative effects are found in this area. It does seem that, in Andalusia, L2 learning has been improved with no cost to students' mother tongue. In addition, given that students in the two latter studies have been matched to ensure homogeneity of the cohorts,

it can be concluded that the differences between the experimental and control groups cannot be ascribed to already existing differences between them due to self-selection.

3.3.4.3 Effects of CLIL on NLA content knowledge

The studies that have carried out an analysis on the effects that CLIL may have on the acquisition of NLA knowledge in those subjects taught through CLIL in Andalusia are the very same ones which evaluated the effects of CLIL on the L1. First of all, Madrid (2011) reported that following a CLIL programme did not necessarily damage the students' competence in the subject matter (Natural, Social and Cultural Environment in primary education and Social Science in secondary education were taken into account in this study). In fact, he stated, "it can increase [in CLIL lessons] if the right teaching and learning conditions are given" (2011: 211). The results proved that bilinguals were not negatively affected by instruction of Social Sciences subjects in the FL. However, it is necessary to bear in mind that, in some cases, bilingual students have not yet reached an appropriate level of competence in the FL that allows them to perform as well in their tasks as their monolingual peers, as was the case of some bilingual students in primary education (2011: 213).

Madrid and Barrios (2018) also obtained similar results in their study, where both CLIL and non-CLIL students did not differ substantially in their end-of-year scores for Natural Science, which shows that CLIL had not had any negative effects on their learning in subjects taught through CLIL. Therefore, their results led them to state that "CLIL education is not detrimental to non-linguistic content learning" (Madrid & Barrios, 2018: 7). These results also tally with

Lorenzo's (2019) study, where no statistically significant differences were found between CLIL and non-CLIL students in either primary or secondary education.

Analogous outcomes were obtained for primary education in Pérez Cañado's (2018e) aforementioned study. That is, no statistically significant differences were found between CLIL and non-CLIL students in content learning by the end of primary education. Nonetheless, given that this was a longitudinal study, it was possible to appreciate that, over the long term, CLIL students came to outperform their non-CLIL counterparts in Natural Science, which suggests that it may take longer for CLIL programmes to come to fruition, and confirms that "bilingual education is not watering down content learning in either primary or secondary education" (Pérez Cañado, 2018e: 10).

The study on the urban-rural divide by Pavón Vázquez (2018) did not show that setting accounted for great differences between the CLIL students from rural and urban backgrounds. In fact, contrary to what was expected, rural students outstripped urban students in Science. These differences between rural and urban students were more acute in primary than in secondary school, where it appears that the CLIL programme acted as a leveller. This was also true for the effects of SES on the Natural Sciences subject: whereas in non-CLIL settings having a lower SES implied lower performance in NLA content acquisition, in CLIL settings, having a lower or a higher SES status was not an indicator of a better performance in this subject (Rascón Moreno & Bretones Callejas, 2018). Lorenzo's (2019) results also showcase a similar effect of CLIL on the marks obtained by students from different SES levels, confirming its equalizing effects on competence grades, usually affected by SES.

3.3.4.4 Qualitative studies on stakeholder perspectives

From the outset of the Andalusian Plurilingualism Promotion Plan, a variety of studies have gathered stakeholders' opinions concerning different aspects of its functioning and their overall satisfaction with the programme, many of them in a SWOT (Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities and Threats) format, in order to pay heed to the areas that need improvement for the correct development of the APPP in Andalusia.

Teachers and teacher training were the main focus of Rubio Mostacero's (2009) study (University of Portsmouth and University of Jaén), carried out in the province of Jaén in June 2005. She intended to examine NLA teachers' training needs by carrying out interviews to 20 teachers in four secondary schools. Her aim was to design a training course for NLA teachers. In order to do so, she first designed a model and then revised it after analysing the results she obtained from her needs analysis study. A final revision was made after it was reviewed by the interviewees and a local TTC (Pérez Cañado, 2011: 397). The novelty of this study accounts for its intuitive nature (Pérez Cañado, 2011: 398). However, the study would have benefitted from methodological and data triangulation and a larger and more geographically spread sample. Furthermore, the interviewees were not involved with the APPP implementation, which would have been desirable for a study of these characteristics (Pérez Cañado, 2011: 398).

Later on, Cabezas Cabello (University of Málaga) conducted a study (2010) between January and June 2009 in which over 100 teachers and 30 coordinators all across Andalusia were

interviewed with the purpose of developing a SWOT analysis of the APPP. He also intended to explore the possible discrepancies between the top-down and bottom-up approaches to the APPP. The interviews were conducted in 30 primary and secondary schools which implemented a CLIL approach in English, French and German. This study, which presents several methodological shortcomings, is the first of its kind in our area. However, as Pérez Cañado (2011: 398) points out,

Despite the attested shortcomings of this piece – lack of data and methodological triangulation, no theoretical [sic.] grounding of the interview content, unclear account of research design, sample, instruments, and procedure-, it deserves praise if only for being the first endeavor to orchestrate a balance between the grassroots and top-down implementation of the APPP and to trace its inconsistencies.

Cabezas Cabello's conclusions are, however, devastating concerning the development of the plan and the integration of top-down and bottom-up approaches. In his own words (2010: 90), "The APPP document is full of wishful thinking and false expectations; as some teachers put it, "in the present circumstances of most Andalusian schools, it is neither viable nor doable".

Students' perspectives were first taken into account by Gálvez Gómez (2013), who conducted a SWOT analysis of the APPP in José Plata, a primary school in Mengíbar, Jaén, with the aim of evaluating stakeholders' perspectives concerning the Plan and to compare the cohorts. She carried out survey research by means of questionnaires delivered to 89 students, 64 parents, and three teachers. The analysis of the data was both qualitative and quantitative, and data triangulation was ensured, in order to reduce possible bias. She found that the stakeholders

were generally satisfied with the programme, with the student group being the most enthusiastic of the three. While students were especially optimistic concerning their use of the L2, the development of English in class and the methodology –which they claimed increased their motivation towards learning English–, teachers and parents were most satisfied with evaluation, teacher training and mobility (2013: 180-181).

It must be noted, however, that students provided mixed responses concerning their competences in oral expression and understanding the FL (2013: 181), that the workload on the part of the teachers was increased while insufficient teacher-training was provided, and that parents were concerned about the price of the materials, the need for more information about the programme, and not being able to help their children with their homework.

Despite the APPP's shortcomings, Gálvez Gómez (2013: 183) concludes: "Unequivocal satisfaction with the bilingual programme in general terms demonstrates that the plan has been embraced and welcomed as the way of improving not only foreign language competence, but also general knowledge of the whole school community".

The study lacks a longitudinal focus and the sample was small (only one school took part in the study) and constrained to a specific geographical location. In addition, there was a lack of methodological triangulation. Therefore the results, albeit encouraging, cannot be generalised to other schools or areas where the APPP is implemented.

Moving now to higher education, Madrid and Madrid (2014) conducted a study amongst university students from the degree of primary education at the University of Granada. In the study, 102 students who were taught exclusively in Spanish and 89 students who were taught

in English were asked by means of a questionnaire about a specific course they followed, either in English or in Spanish (experimental and control group). Their opinions concerning the course's competences, objectives, contents, methodology, and evaluation were thus evaluated, with the aim of comparing both groups' perceptions about the weakest and strongest points of the courses, the differences in performance and preparation between the experimental and control groups, the problems that may arise with regards to the contents of the courses, and any possible differences that occur due to the gender variable.

First, it was concluded that both groups showed similar levels of performance in their respective courses, regardless of the language of instruction. Second, bilingual students attributed certain difficulties of their course to factors other than the language of instruction. Third, generally, bilingual students showed greater satisfaction with the degree of consecution of the course objectives and competences, and with the methodology employed in the theoretical lessons. Last but not least, while females in the monolingual group displayed a more positive overall outlook on the course than monolingual males, these differences between the genders were less marked in the bilingual group. This last finding is virtually in line with Heras and Lasagabaster (2015: 85), who found that CLIL instruction had a potential effect of levelling differences between genders with regards to affective factors.

Sánchez Torres (2014), in turn, carried out a qualitative longitudinal analysis which aimed to gather information concerning the role of the language assistant in Andalusia and the relationships between the assistant and the APPP language coordinator. For this study, methodological and data triangulation were employed, and the gathering of data consisted in

interviews and observation of multiple informants (15 teaching assistants, 15 coordinators in bilingual schools in Seville, and five other people, including the representatives from teacher training schools, the regional bilingual coordinator and the director of international educational programmes).

It emerged that working with others (teachers and language assistants working with one another, more specifically) influenced people at a personal and professional level: they experienced changes in motivation, in the pedagogy used in their lessons, and in communication, affecting their overall evaluation of the APPP experience. It was also found that the language assistants, on average, fulfilled most of their expected functions. However, in terms of didactics, cultural approaches and leisure activities, their performance should be stepped up. These findings are in line with a previous study by Tobin and Abello-Contesse (2013), in which seven teaching assistants were interviewed for eight months. In this study, it was found that there are difficulties in combining culture and interaction in class when there is a second teacher. Instead, the language assistant was used as a "human CD" (2013: 224), or a "cultural tour guide" (2013: 224), rather than making the most of this potential to push students' Intercultural Communicative Competence (ICC).

The figure of the language assistant was researched in further detail by Sánchez Torres (2014). He found that, generally, there is both cooperation and collaboration between the assistant and the language teacher, and that this relationship is fruitful with regards to participation, communication in the classroom and contextualisation of the lessons. In contrast with some other studies (Navés, 2009; Rubio Mostacero, 2009; Cabezas Cabello, 2010; Pérez Cañado, 2012; Gálvez Gómez, 2013, Lancaster, 2016), teacher training was not considered a major

drawback for the development of the programme, since it did not emerge as a cause for concern. Nevertheless, it was deemed that the language assistant was a figure that needed more pedagogical and methodological training, and that teachers should improve the use they make of such a resource. This study conducted by Sánchez Torres is worthy of praise, since it contributes to widening the view of CLIL in Andalusia. However, the sample used in this study is fairly reduced, which calls for prudence when analysing its results.

A year later, as part of an assessment conducted on the degree of achievement of the APPP objectives, Ruiz Gómez's (2015) project intended to unify methodological CLIL practices in Andalusia, serve as an example for material development, and create a bank of materials for teachers to draw on. In the assessment part of the project, it was found that, while there were many instances of bilingual schools that had achieved "immediate and obvious" (2015: 16) positive results, there was a certain heterogeneity in others that could hinder the potentially favourable outcomes of an appropriate CLIL methodology. Most schools fell under one out of two categories with respect to CLIL:

1. The L2 was merely seen as a tool to achieve the non-language-related objectives (i.e., the 'content' of the NLA subject) and no attention was paid to language exploration.
2. Language acquisition objectives and subject-matter content were integrated. It was this second approach that produced more homogeneous and satisfactory outcomes (2015: 17), and which followed one of the fundamental principles of CLIL: the integration of both language and content.

Some successful practices were identified in schools where students' communicative competences in the L2 had improved. The most outstanding was the elaboration of an integrated curriculum, but other relevant factors were related to the teaching staff, such as pursuing both content and language objectives at the same time, the level of competence in the L2 of B2 or higher, the teachers' interest in participating in innovative proposals, and the level of collaboration between the content and the language teachers.

In contrast, the main flaws detected were: a limited degree of consecution of language objectives, which were rather commonly reduced to learning a list of lexical items; a high level of difficulty of the materials employed in class; a neglect of oral skills, paired with a lack of scaffolding to conduct certain tasks; and last, but not least, a poor variety of discourses under study, with narration being given most attention, in detriment of *real* communicative situations such as debates or discussions.

Methodological practices were, in turn, the main focus of García Sánchez and Rodríguez Collado's (2015) study. They aimed to evaluate whether a competence-based education model was being followed by schools participating in the APPP, and the effects of following such a methodology. Therefore, they interviewed teachers from the bilingual sections, bilingual coordinators and a language assistant from six secondary education schools in the province of Almería (nine people in total), and conducted qualitative and quantitative analyses of the data recorded.

They concluded that following a competence-based model or not doing so depended on certain factors, such as the subject under study (whether or not it is an NLA class), the

teachers' background (veteran teachers tend to follow a more traditional approach), or the degree of implementation of the school's Integrated Curriculum. Furthermore, they reached some remarkable conclusions in relation to the bilingual programme itself.

First of all, students' motivation was affected by who took the decision to enter the bilingual section (whether it was them or their parents), as well as by their previous level of competence in the L2. It was also found that students enrolled in the bilingual programme had higher levels of motivation overall when compared with the non-bilingual students.

Secondly, students' performance in school is initially negatively affected by the daunting task of adapting to a bilingual methodology. However, this initial difficulty is overcome after the first few months, and grades are eventually higher in the bilingual sections than in the monolingual ones. These findings coincide with those that emerged in Lancaster (2016), whose study also shows that, while students are initially apprehensive of the programme, they overcome initial difficulties and experience an increase in motivation.

All in all, García Sánchez and Rodríguez Collado (2015) found that bilingual students were more motivated and achieved higher grades than the monolingual students. However, the small sample used for this study and the lack of data concerning students' and parents' attitudes towards the programme call for a moderate optimism about the positive results obtained in this study.

Back to the province of Jaén, Lancaster (2016) evaluated students' and teachers' perspectives towards the CLIL programme in the province of Jaén, using both quantitative and qualitative analyses of questionnaires, which served as the research tool. Once again, positive attitudes

were displayed by all the cohorts, in line with previous studies (Gálvez Gómez, 2013), and the teacher cohort was the most optimistic of all. High levels of motivation were found amongst students, in line with previous studies on the effects of the Andalusian CLIL programme on motivation (Lorenzo *et al.*, 2009a). It also emerged that following a CLIL methodology seemed to foster collaboration between teachers, in line with previous studies (Lorenzo *et al.*, 2009a; Cabezas Cabello, 2010; Gálvez Gómez, 2013). Both cohorts were in harmony about the acceptance of the CLIL methodology. However, students provided mixed answers concerning the use of innovative methodological tools (such as ICT) in class. Teachers, it was found, would appreciate more language and methodology training courses. Teacher training in CLIL has already been identified in previous studies as one of the major lacunae that need to be overcome for a smooth implementation of the programme in the future (Navés, 2009; Rubio Mostacero, 2009; Cabezas Cabello, 2010; Pérez Cañado, 2012, 2013, 2014, 2015; Gálvez Gómez, 2013; De la Maya Retamar & Luengo González, 2015; Pérez Cañado & Ráez Padilla, 2015; Milla Lara & Casas Pedrosa, 2018).

Lancaster (2016) lacks a longitudinal analysis of the stakeholders' perspectives, as well as geographical and methodological triangulation and a larger sample. However, her study serves its purpose of dipping into CLIL waters and Andalusia in order to take in a picture of its implementation in a specific location.

While many of these studies were geographically reduced and had a rather small sample, Pérez Cañado (2018d) corroborated many of the results previously obtained by research in a larger study, which confirmed certain trends that had already been identified in prior studies

(Fernández & Halbach, 2011; Lancaster, 2016; Pérez Cañado, 2016a, 2016b). A project jointly funded by the Spanish Ministry of Economy and Competitiveness²⁷ and by the Junta de Andalucía²⁸ allowed this researcher to poll 234 teachers from all over Andalusia in order to gather their opinions and concerns about the APPP. It emerged that, while teachers agreed that following a CLIL programme benefitted the students' levels of English and understanding of the inner workings of languages, and also increased their levels of motivation and participation in the classroom, there was still room for improvement with regards to their current language competence. Methodological advances have been made, as was reported by teachers: Task-Based Language Learning, Project-Based Learning and Cooperative Learning were followed in class using authentic materials and new technologies. Nevertheless, some methods were left behind, as was the case of the Lexical Approach or the ELP. Similarly, evaluation is now more diversified and holistic, oral skills are increasingly taken into consideration, and contents tend to be given priority over accuracy.

Another study with a large sample of respondents is Lorenzo's (2019), which is mentioned above. This study found that teachers' linguistic competence has improved since the beginning of the APPP, that coordination is stepped up thanks to the programme and that materials are scarce, which is why a resource bank would be very welcome by teachers. Moreover, teachers coincide that the students' L2 and L1 improve as a result of CLIL, and the overall satisfaction with the programme is noteworthy.

²⁷ Grant FFI2012-32221

²⁸ Grant P12-HUM-23480

Nonetheless, this overall picture is more pessimistic in what affects teacher training and teacher coordination, where authorities' support is wanting (Milla Lara & Casas Pedrosa, 2018; Pérez Cañado, 2018d). In addition, teachers had a very self-complacent view of their linguistic abilities, training needs and intercultural knowledge, which showed great advances from the results obtained by Lorenzo *et al.* (2009a). Nevertheless, teachers fell short of making the most of the training available to them, such as participation in exchange programmes or linguistic and methodological upgrade courses (Milla Lara & Casas Pedrosa, 2018).

Pérez Cañado (2017) reported similar findings concerning teachers and their training needs. It emerged that it is NLA teachers those who more urgently need an update of their linguistic abilities, especially concerning BICS, fluency, and everyday language (Ruiz Gómez, 2015). Nevertheless, aspects concerning CLIL methodology and its underpinnings have been improved, which shows that the latest teacher-training efforts have paid off. Teacher collaboration has also been stepped up, although the extra hours that this effort requires have taken their toll on their motivation. Nonetheless, ongoing professional development is still a major niche for improvement, especially for those whose level of English is below C1 (only those with a higher linguistic competence participate in courses abroad) (Pérez Cañado, 2017).

In this sense, Milla Lara and Casas Pedrosa (2018) found that there were statistically significant differences in teacher perceptions depending on certain variables: if the teachers were FL teachers, had a higher proficiency of competence in the FL, or had the role of coordinator in their school, it was more likely for them to value the items more positively, probably due to the fact that teachers who fitted these profiles had more information concerning the

programme or that, due to their linguistic competence, they were more at ease in bilingual classes than less proficient teachers, therefore assessing the APPP in a more positive light.

Another aspect that is worth stating is that, despite the abovementioned training shortcomings for teachers, research has consistently shown that parents have faith in the oral, written, and intercultural competences of their children's teachers (Ráez Padilla, 2018). As a matter of fact, Ráez Padilla (2018) found that families view the bilingual programme in Andalusia in a very positive light, since parents of CLIL students considered that CLIL was exerting a beneficial influence on students' language level, motivation, interest, and participation, and they agreed that a variety of assessment and teaching methodologies was employed by the teachers. Additionally, they had mobility programmes in high regard, even though actual mobility figures did not match parents' enthusiasm concerning this topic. However, the weak points identified included lack of information about the programme and the general principles of CLIL, and not being able to help their children with their bilingual homework, a problem that has previously been pointed out in the literature (Cabezas Cabello, 2010; Pérez Cañado, 2011; Gálvez Gómez, 2013; Lancaster, 2016; Ráez Padilla, 2018).

The evolution of research in Andalusia, particularly the type that deals with stakeholders' opinions, shows the solid advances that have been achieved in the +10 years the APPP has been functioning. The conspicuous evolution from the gloomy picture that emerged in the first few instances of research on CLIL in the region to the positive opinions that stakeholders currently have on the programme, shows that, in Ráez Padilla's (2018: 194) words, "CLIL in Andalusia has taken solid and far-reaching steps". Nonetheless, as several studies report,

there is still a long way to go in order to maximise the benefits of such a far-sighted enterprise such as Andalusian CLIL. Let us now precisely foreground the key areas that still need improvement and suggest in which directions to continue.

3.3.5 The future of CLIL in Andalusia

Since the beginning of the APPP, there has been a considerable number of studies that have reviewed the Plan, both quantitative and qualitatively, and a majority of them have concluded that CLIL in Andalusia, despite its caveats, has had a positive impact on its stakeholders at various levels. Bilingual education has undoubtedly spread throughout Andalusia, and it is expected to reach all corners of this community in the near future.

Having reviewed the research that has been conducted so far on the Andalusian Plurilingualism Promotion Plan, the first idea that surfaces as a necessity for the development of the Plan is teacher training. It is the cornerstone upon which future advances can be built, as well as a challenge. In Coyle's (2011, in Pérez Cañado & Ráez Padilla, 2015: 7) words, teacher training is "where CLIL will stand or fall in terms of sustainability". Since it is well-known that teacher training constitutes the essential foundation of the Plan, and of a viable implementation CLIL as an approach, European states have vastly increased their allocated funding for this purpose. However, their actions have not met the training needs teachers face (Lancaster, 2016; Pérez Cañado, 2015, 2016d; Pérez Cañado & Ráez Padilla, 2015; Milla Lara & Casas Pedrosa, 2018).

The areas that have been identified as those more training efforts need to be placed by the authorities are "theoretical underpinnings of CLIL" and, especially, "ongoing professional development" (Pérez Cañado, 2016d). These findings by Pérez Cañado contrast those of previous studies, where linguistic competence development was seen as the number-one training need (Fernández Fernández *et al.*, 2005; Pena Díaz & Porto Requejo, 2008; Rubio Mostacero, 2009; Cabezas Cabello, 2010; Fernández & Halbach, 2011; Martín del Pozo, 2011).

Efforts are being made to effectively provide the training needs that are required of CLIL practitioners. The first public, fully online CLIL Master's degree in Spain has recently been approved by the University of Jaén, in Andalusia, and it is based on the aspects that the literature has identified as lacking and intends to address the main issues with regards to CLIL training needs: understanding of its theoretical framework, developing language competence, curriculum and materials design, and strategies for the consolidation of CLIL (collaboration and cooperation, and action research). These needs are addressed in three different modules followed by an end of Master's dissertation (Pérez Cañado, 2015). This Master's Degree is pioneering, and the University of Jaén is expected to be followed by other higher institutions in Europe in developing other training programmes.

Last but not least, the vast amount of the research conducted in Andalusia either lacks the methodological grounding to make it sound and solid, or has been conducted in such small samples that it is not possible to extrapolate results. Fortunately, the situation appears to be changing at present, through the more empirically robust studies conducted by the University of Jaén research team with more geographically and numerically representative samples and

more tightly controlled methodological conditions. In addition, while some authors consider CLIL the panacea for language learning and teaching, others see in it as attempt by authorities to segregate students between the more and the less able and by socio-economic status. As Bruton (2011: 5) puts it, "there is a growing body of research into CLIL that is being conducted by investigators who seem to want to demonstrate that CLIL is necessarily a positive route to raising the standards of FL learning at primary and secondary levels in Europe".

This swing between positive and negative views of the Plan which, in turn, influence the research outcomes on one side or another, has already been pointed out by some authors and identified as the "pendulum effect" (Pérez Cañado, 2016b: 1). Needless to say, taking either a positive-only or negative-only stance on CLIL and the APPP is not a desirable position from the point of view of an impartial researcher, since there are pros and cons of CLIL that must be identified via thorough and solid research and dealt with in order to improve language learning and teaching for all students.

3.4 Conclusion of the literature review

Unarguably, Content and Language Integrated Learning has fast spread over the continent during the last decade, and so has research on this approach (Deller, 2005; Järvinen, 2007; Navés, 2009; Lasagabaster, 2011; Pérez Cañado, 2012; Hüttner & Smit, 2014; Heras & Lasagabaster, 2015).

Both positive and negative aspects of CLIL have been identified, and most researchers agree on the need for further research in order to elucidate its impact on different cohorts. CLIL has

taken different shapes across educational systems and contexts, and there is no blueprint of CLIL to be taken as a single model. In addition, it is commonly agreed that further action needs to be taken in order to bridge government approaches and grassroots action.

As Navés (2009: 35) reminds us, it is vital to move forward with our research, and not become fixated on justifying the benefits of bilingual education, since it has already been proved that, when correctly implemented, bilingual education is beneficial for language learning:

Now, almost 50 years after Canadian Immersion programmes were first thoroughly evaluated and then unanimously acclaimed, researchers still seem to feel the need to reaffirm that these programmes are not in fact harmful before daring to describe how successful they have been. Likewise, in the United States, in spite of the wealth of empirical research that confirms the success of properly implemented bilingual education programmes, researchers still feel it is necessary to present their rationale and to prove their success, time and time again, before proceeding to describe the characteristics of effective bilingual education programmes.

In the European context, CLIL reached its watershed around 2010 (Marsh, 2002: 185). However, "the main emphasis is still on describing the rationale and benefits of implementing content and language integrated (CLIL) approaches and methodologies" (Navés, 2009: 36). Therefore, it is time for action, to go further and investigate the features that make CLIL efficient as a language learning approach, rather than enter into a loop to endlessly justify the research in itself. There is not a long span of time to plan our linguistic strategies, since, as Crystal (2003: 28) points out,

Governments who wish to play their part in influencing the world's linguistic future should therefore ponder carefully, as they make political decisions and allocate resources for language

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planning. Now, more than at any time in linguistic history, they need to adopt long-term views, and to plan ahead –whether their interests are to promote English or to develop the use of other languages in their community (or, of course, both). If they miss this linguistic boat, there may be no other.

4. RESEARCH DESIGN

4.1 Justification of the investigation

In the previous section of this dissertation, we endeavoured to provide a comprehensive picture of the predecessors of CLIL, the socio-political context which led to the creation of this acronym, its definition and characterisation (bearing in mind both arguments for and against the implementation of CLIL), as well as an overall look at the research on this approach from all corners of the European continent. We finally focused on the research conducted on the APPP in the traditionally monolingual region of Andalusia, in southern Spain.

One of the conclusions that transpire from a review of the literature on this topic is the need for solid research, now that CLIL has reached its watershed (Marsh, 2002: 185). As Heras and Lasagabaster (2015: 71) remind us, "[e]ducation, research and innovation (often cited as the pillars of the 'knowledge age society') need to work together". Therefore, extensive research on the effects of CLIL is required in order to continue moving forward, maximising its acknowledged advantages and finding ways to overcome its pitfalls. As Dalton-Puffer and Nikula (2006: 6) advocate, research on CLIL can take many perspectives, and "continued work is needed in order to increase our research-based understanding of the complexity of issues involved, and to provide help for both practising CLIL teachers and for those involved in development work". Moreover, as Navés (2009) underscores, while in North America and Canada researchers are occupied in describing what constitutes good practices in bilingual education, in Europe we are merely focusing on describing its benefits.

In particular, some voices have been raised for moving on from research on whether CLIL promotes competence, to classroom-based research on how to increase efficiency and effectiveness in CLIL (Cenoz *et al.*, 2013: 16-17), on the effects of CLIL on L1 development (Merino & Lasagabaster, 2015: 3), on the different levels of CLIL intensity (Heras & Lasagabaster, 2015: 85), or on the extent to which positive outcomes in the research on CLIL are due to its intrinsic nature or to an increased exposure to the target language, as Dalton-Puffer *et al.* (2010b: 12) propose.

Empirical research on CLIL across contexts began to flourish in the mid-2000s (Dalton-Puffer *et al.*, 2014: 214–215), and Spain is fast becoming one of the leading countries as far as research on CLIL is concerned (Coyle, 2010). Numerous studies have been conducted all over the country, both in traditionally bilingual communities (Catalonia, the Basque Autonomous Community, Galicia, Valencia and the Balearic Islands) and those with a firmly entrenched monolingual tradition (such as Madrid, La Rioja, or Andalusia). These studies have been invaluable stepping stones to research on the field, and have provided the basis for further studies. The overall conclusions are very favourable to the CLIL approach, since it has been found that CLIL entails a series of positive outcomes in terms of language competence (in both L2 and L1), learning of NLA content, motivation, and cognition. It is not surprising, then, that "in the light of these results, [...] CLIL has been championed across Europe" (Pérez Cañado, 2012: 330).

Nevertheless, most of the studies compiled in the literature review of this dissertation present serious methodological flaws that compromise the validity and reliability of the results obtained, which implies that these positive results must be taken with caution. In Genessee's

words, "[...] the unfortunate reality is that the vast majority of evaluations of bilingual programs are so methodologically flawed in their design that their results offer more noise than signal" (Genesee, 1998: 10).

Returning to the studies conducted in Spain and the APPP, first of all, they tend to be qualitative-only studies that do not have a quantitative counterpart. In the instances where a quantitative evaluation of CLIL programmes takes place, it generally does not guarantee homogeneity between the experimental and control cohorts to ensure their comparability. Secondly, they do not use methodological triangulation for data-gathering or factor in intervening variables in their analyses. Thirdly, they do not perform factor or discriminant analyses, which would ensure that the differences between the groups are due to CLIL instruction and not to other variables. In fourth place, they do not make use of statistical tools that explain the differences in the results between the experimental and control groups, and, in some cases, they do not calculate the existence of statistically significant differences between the cohorts. Fifth, they tend to be cross-sectional rather than longitudinal, which prevents us from following up on the cohorts' evolution over time. And last but not least, they work with numerically and geographically reduced samples, which hampers possible generalisations of the results obtained to other groups and geographical areas, and impedes the drawing of more general conclusions.

In the light of these research shortcomings, we remain in need of solid empirical evidence of the effects of CLIL. In Vez's words (2009: 18), "[t]here is not yet solid empirical evidence from EU countries on which to base definitive claims about the educational (or other) advantages of multilingual education. But we do have plenty of negative evidence that monolingual

models are ineffective". It is for these reasons that the study we propose is necessary, since it overcomes most of these methodological flaws and presents solid empirical research on the effects of CLIL.

The present study is embedded in two governmentally-funded research projects on the effects of CLIL in monolingual contexts (FFI2012-32221 and P12-HUM-2348, funded by the *Ministerio de Economía y Competitividad* and the *Junta de Andalucía*, respectively). These projects aim to ascertain the effects of CLIL on the English language competence, the Spanish language competence, and the content knowledge of the lessons taught following a CLIL approach, as well as the different stakeholders' opinions concerning the CLIL programme and the effects of CLIL on a series of variables: context, type of school, educational level, motivation, verbal intelligence, extramural exposure, and socio-economic status. The sample of the study conducted within these two projects comprises students from the sixth grade of primary education and fourth grade of CSE from 12 provinces of Spain in three monolingual communities: Andalusia, Extremadura and the Canary Islands. Teachers and parents also participated in the study.

CLIL and non-CLIL students were matched at the outset of the study to ensure homogeneity, and different types of tests were delivered to the cohorts in order to evaluate the impact of CLIL on eight different cognitive, contextual, and affective variables: context (rural-urban), type of school (public, private, charter), educational level (primary, secondary, NCSE), motivation, verbal intelligence, extramural exposure to English, and socio-economic status. It had a longitudinal perspective, and pre-, post-, and delayed post-tests were administered to primary, compulsory secondary, and non-compulsory secondary education students. Last but

not least, factor and discriminant analysis were carried out in order to determine whether following a CLIL approach is the cause of the differences between the cohorts, as well as to pinpoint the way in which the variables interact with one another. Qualitative and quantitative methodologies are followed in this study, and the sample is large, as well as geographically comprehensive.

Framed within this broader research project, the present study evaluates stakeholders' views on CLIL, and the effects of CLIL on the students' L2, L1, and knowledge of the content studied in the non-linguistic subject taught in English. Specifically, this dissertation comprises the results and discussion from four out of the eight provinces in Andalusia: Granada and Almería, in the east, and Málaga and Cádiz, in the west. Overall results are provided for all four of them, and we determine the modulating effect of a series of intervening variables.

4.2 Objectives

The principal aim of this study is to carry out a large-scale longitudinal evaluation CLIL from both a qualitative and a quantitative standpoint in a firmly entrenched monolingual setting where students have little exposure to the English language outside the school setting, in order to determine where we currently stand in CLIL implementation in Andalusia.

The qualitative part of the study, which complements the quantitative standpoint followed in the second part of the study, seeks to analyse all the key stakeholders' (students, teachers, and parents) impressions on the APPP, as well as their level of satisfaction generated by the

APPP, and to evaluate differences in the perceptions both inside each cohort and across the different groups.

The quantitative part of the study, in turn, aims to determine whether the type of programme followed (i.e., EFL vs. CLIL) yields statistically significant differences between the experimental (CLIL) and the control (EFL) groups in terms of their L2 and L1 language competence and the degree of knowledge that the students acquire in the subject taught through CLIL. It also seeks to establish whether the possible differential effects exerted by CLIL programmes pervade in the first grade of NCSE (six months after the CSE CLIL programme is discontinued and replaced with a NCSE non-CLIL programme with significantly less exposure) or whether they gradually peter out.

This main objective can be broken down into five key metaconcerns which serve as cornerstones for this evaluation and consultancy project, each of them being divided into several component corollaries:

Metaconcern 1 (qualitative study): Satisfaction generated by the CLIL programme and identification of the main Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities and Threats of this programme, according to all the actors involved.

RQ 1. What are the students', teachers', and parents' perceptions of the way in which the Bilingual Schools Programme is functioning at all curricular and organizational levels?

RQ 2. Within the student cohort, are there statistically significant differences in perception in terms of the identification variables considered (gender, grade, setting,

type of school, number of years studying English, and number of subjects studied in the FL)?

RQ 3. Within the teacher cohort, are there statistically significant differences in perception in terms of the identification variables considered (age, gender, type of teacher, administrative situation, level of English, general teaching experience, teaching experience in a bilingual setting, number of subjects taught, and being or not a bilingual coordinator)?

RQ 4. Within the parent cohort, are there statistically significant differences in perception in terms of the identification variables considered (grade their children are in, age, gender, level of studies)?

RQ 5. Are there any statistically significant differences among the perceptions of the three stakeholders?

Metaconcern 2 (quantitative study): Effects of CLIL on Foreign Language competence.

RQ 6. Do CLIL programmes implemented with primary and secondary school students (experimental group) develop superior linguistic competence (use of English, vocabulary, listening, reading, and speaking) to that promoted by EFL programmes with students from the same level (control group)? In other words, is there a linguistic competence differential between CLIL and non-CLIL groups at primary and secondary school level in the four provinces of Andalusia analysed?

RQ 7. What is the modulating (differential) effect exerted on CLIL and non-CLIL primary and secondary students' English language competence by the intervening variables of type of school (public, private, charter), area (eastern or western Andalusia), SES, setting (rural or urban), gender, and extramural exposure?

RQ 8. Do the possible differential effects exerted by CLIL programmes on English language competence pervade six months after the CLIL programme is discontinued, when students are in their first grade of NCSE, or do they gradually peter out?

RQ 9. What is the evolution of the students from the post-test to the delayed post-test phase (both groups together, only CLIL, only non-CLIL) by type of school (public, private, charter), area (eastern or western Andalusia), SES, setting (rural or urban), gender, and extramural exposure?

Metaconcern 3 (quantitative study): Effects of CLIL on L1 competence.

RQ 10. Do CLIL programmes implemented with primary and secondary school students impact the level of Spanish acquired by the experimental group following such programmes, in comparison to that achieved by the monolingual control group studying EFL?

RQ 11. What is the modulating (differential) effect exerted on the primary and secondary students' Spanish language competence by the intervening variables of type of school (public, private, charter), area (eastern or western Andalusia), SES, setting (rural or urban), gender, and extramural exposure?

Metaconcern 4 (quantitative study): Effects of CLIL on performance in the content subjects taught through English.

RQ 12. Do CLIL programmes implemented with primary and secondary school students affect the acquisition of contents in the subjects studied through the FL in such programmes, in comparison to the acquisition of contents by the monolingual control group studying EFL?

RQ 13. What is the modulating (differential) effect exerted on the primary and secondary students' content learning by the intervening variables of type of school (public, private, charter), area (eastern or western Andalusia), SES, setting (rural or urban), gender, and extramural exposure?

Metaconcern 5 (quantitative study): Appraisal of competence differential. Discriminant analysis.

RQ 14. If there is a competence differential between the experimental and control groups, is it truly ascribable to language learning based on academic content processing?

4.3 Methodology

4.3.1 Type of research design

The present study can be characterised as primary research following a mixed-research design, since it is both quantitative and qualitative. It is, therefore, a well-rounded study that seeks not only to gather evidence from academic achievement stemming from a CLIL

approach, but also to take into account the stakeholders' points of view concerning the programme's strengths and weaknesses, in order to propose future lines of action.

According to Hellekjaer and Wilkinson (2001: 405), there are five parameters that must be followed when measuring the quality of CLIL programmes, which this study integrates:

1. There is a comparison between achievement in the CLIL group and in the mainstream group, both of them from the same institution;
2. CLIL is compared across institutions;
3. Teacher and student perceptions are gauged when assessing the quality of the CLIL implementations;
4. Developments in linguistic competence are evaluated; and
5. Teachers' growth possibilities are assessed.

The quantitative part of the study consists in applied, primary, quasi-experimental research, in which original data have been directly gathered from tests administered to the students enrolled in CLIL programmes. It is also longitudinal research, since it included a pre-test/post-test control group design, as well as a delayed post-test, which was added in order to assess whether the effects of CLIL pervade months after the CLIL intervention has ended. This part of the study meets the four requirements stipulated for research on the linguistic assessment of content and immersion learners by Rossell and Baker (1996) and Cummins (1999c):

1. It compares students following a bilingual programme (experimental group) with a control group (mainstream) of similar characteristics;

2. The initial differences between the experimental and control groups are controlled statistically;
3. Standardised test scores are used in the study, and results are based upon them, and;
4. The differences between the groups are obtained through appropriate statistical tests.

The qualitative part of the study, in turn, is an example of primary survey research, since it includes interviews and questionnaires (Brown, 2001). It employs three types of triangulation, namely, data, methodological, and location triangulation, in order to ensure that the data gathered are comprehensive, rich and robust. Data triangulation is obtained by means of gathering information from three different stakeholders involved in the APPP: students, teachers, and parents. Within the different cohorts, that of teachers, two different kinds of teachers have been identified: non-linguistic area teachers and English language teachers. Methodological triangulation, in turn, has been obtained by using different procedures to obtain information: questionnaires and interviews. Last but not least, location triangulation is also present in this study, given that the data have been gathered from primary and secondary schools from four different provinces in Andalusia (Cádiz, Málaga, Granada, and Almería).

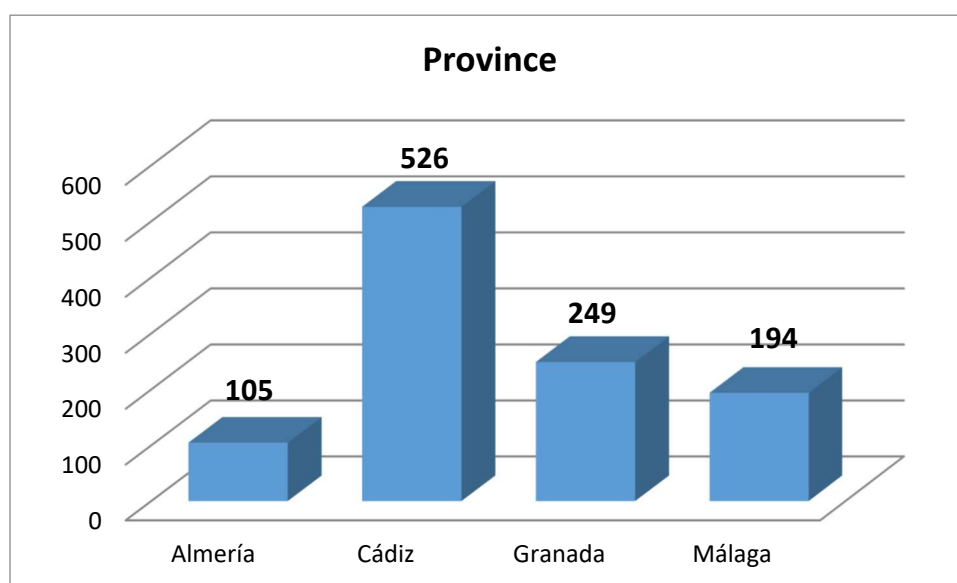
4.3.2 Sample

The sample for this study comprises a total of 1,074 students, 149 teachers, and 279 parents from 25 primary and secondary schools across Granada and Almería in the east of Andalusia, and Málaga and Cádiz, in the west of the region. Whereas students will be respondents in both

parts of the study, teachers and parents will only form part of the qualitative part of the investigation. The breakdown of the overall sample is provided below, first presented for the quantitative study, and then for the qualitative one. Percentages will also be provided for the breakdown of both the quantitative and qualitative studies, in regards to the variables that make up the overall sample.

4.3.2.1 Quantitative sample

The quantitative sample involves 1,074 students from the four provinces of our study (Almería, Cádiz, Granada, Málaga), although the province of Cádiz has the higher number of respondents, as seen below in Graph 1:

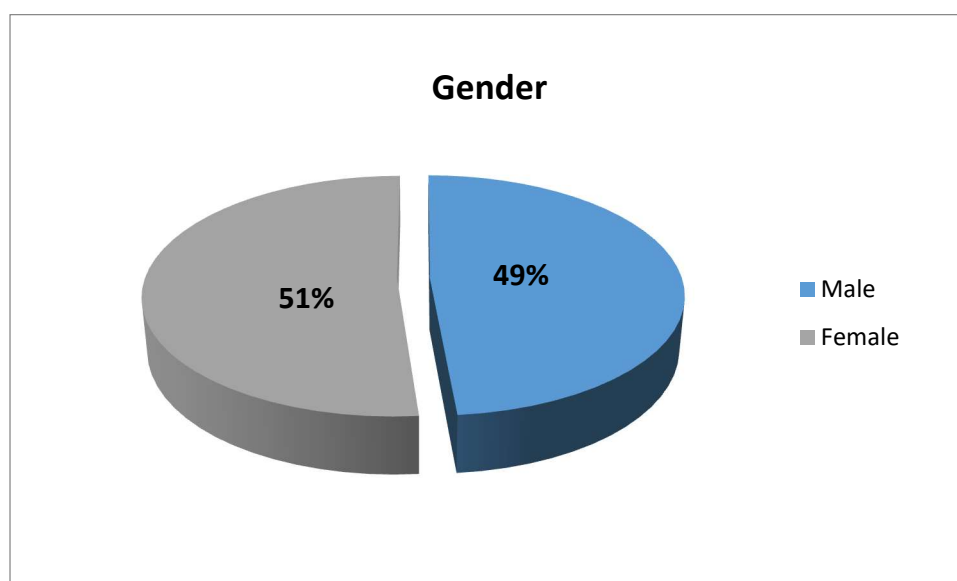


Graph 1. Breakdown of the quantitative sample in relation to province

In each province, there are schools located in both rural and urban centres. Most of the schools attended by the students who make up our sample are urban (72%), and the rest are located in smaller population centres (28%).

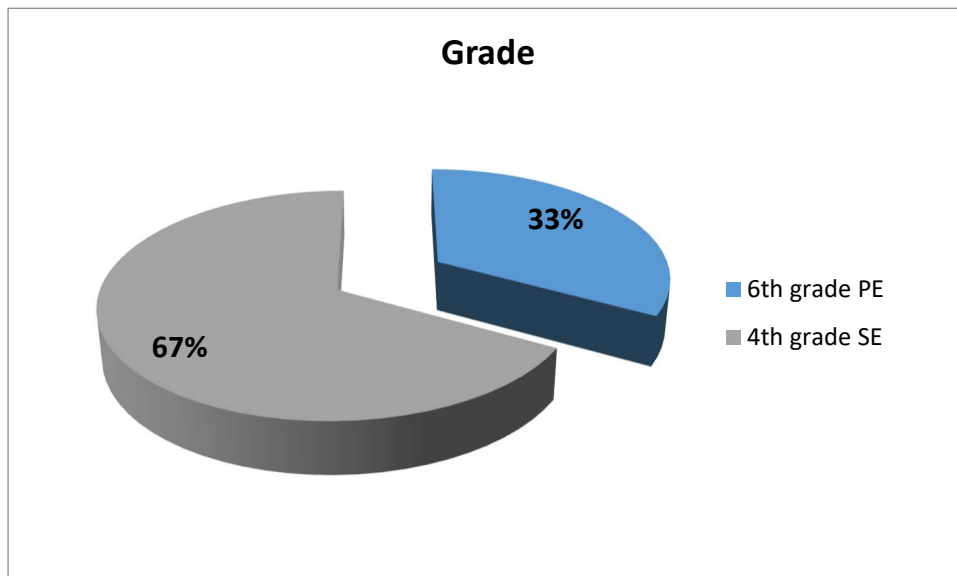
Given that the quantitative analysis of our study takes into consideration both CLIL and EFL students in order to compare both groups, our sample comprises both types of students. More specifically, 45% of the students are following a CLIL programme, and the remaining 55% are following a more traditional EFL programme.

If we take into consideration the gender of the students, most students are female (51.4%), as seen in Graph 2 below, although both genders are quite balanced:



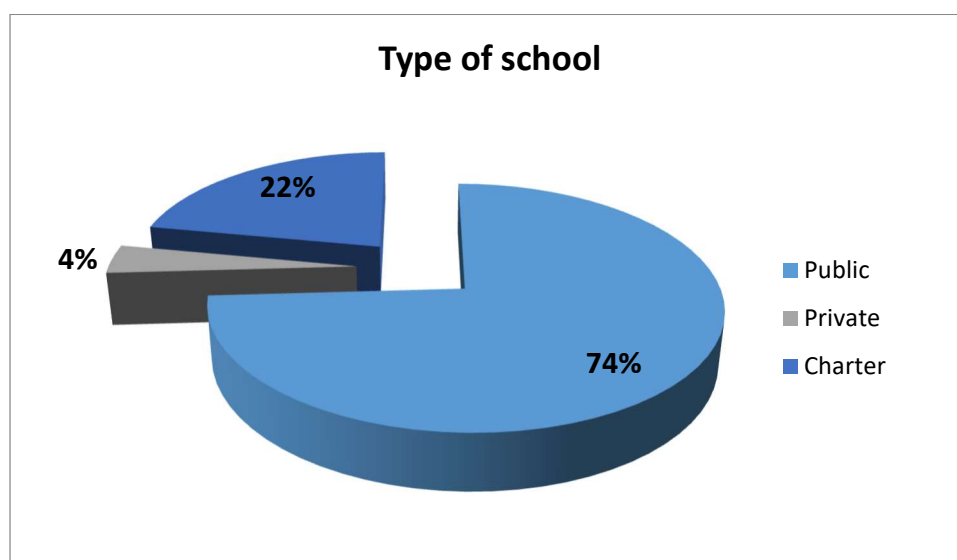
Graph 2. Breakdown of the quantitative sample in relation to gender

In addition, slightly over two thirds of students are in their fourth grade of CSE, and only a third of our student sample is in sixth grade of primary education (cf. Graph 3):



Graph 3. Breakdown of the quantitative sample in relation to grade

As for the schools in which these students are enrolled, almost three quarters of the students (74.1%) go to a public school, 3.9% attend private education, and 22.0% go to charter centres (cf. Graph 4).



Graph 4. Breakdown of the quantitative sample in relation to type of school

In our sample, every private school follows exclusively a bilingual program, every charter school is not bilingual and follows a mainstream EFL programme, and the public schools are dual-track, that is, they have both a bilingual and a non-bilingual section. In each of these schools, one CLIL and one non-CLIL class have been selected for our study, and students have been matched for verbal intelligence and four factors of motivation. This process was followed in order to select the classes which manifested homogeneity, since, given the level of self-selection in CLIL programmes, the process of homogeneisation is crucial to determine whether the statistical differences across groups can be attributed to the effects of the CLIL intervention programmes. Likewise, private and charter schools of similar features have been selected, and the public schools chosen have the same number of subjects taught through CLIL and in the same proportion, to ensure comparability.

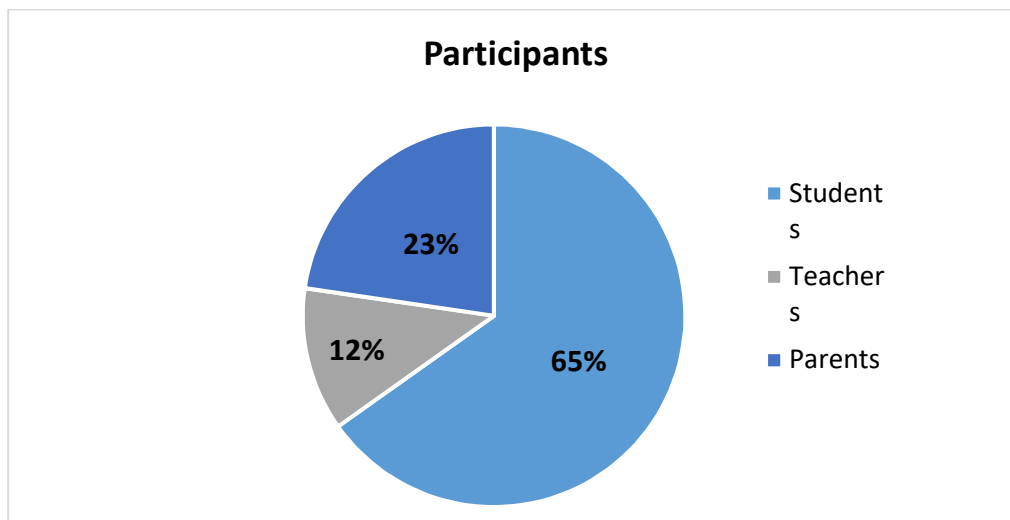
4.3.2.2 Qualitative sample

While in the quantitative section of the study both CLIL and EFL students were taken into account, in order to homogenise and compare the results of those two groups, in the qualitative part of the study, the sample is strictly comprised by those respondents who participate in the APPP, with the intention that they provide us with first-hand information about the way in which the programme is implemented and their degree of satisfaction with it. This information will serve to outline the main Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities and Threats that the APPP presents and to suggest future lines of intervention in order to maximise its benefits.

Therefore, the number of schools is narrowed down in this qualitative study to include only the private schools and the public CLIL strands. The sample of students comprises those who are following a CLIL programme in sixth grade of primary education and fourth grade of CSE. The total number of CLIL students is therefore narrowed down to 801 respondents.

Teachers and parents are incorporated in our sample, since this qualitative part of the study has source triangulation. As was previously mentioned, those who comprise the teacher body are non-linguistic area teachers and English teachers.

As expected, the student body is the largest of the three involved in the qualitative study, making up 65% of the overall sample. Parents constitute 23% of the overall respondents, and teachers, in turn, are the least represented, making up 12% of the sample, due to the fact that they are the minority group at any given school (cf. Graph 5).



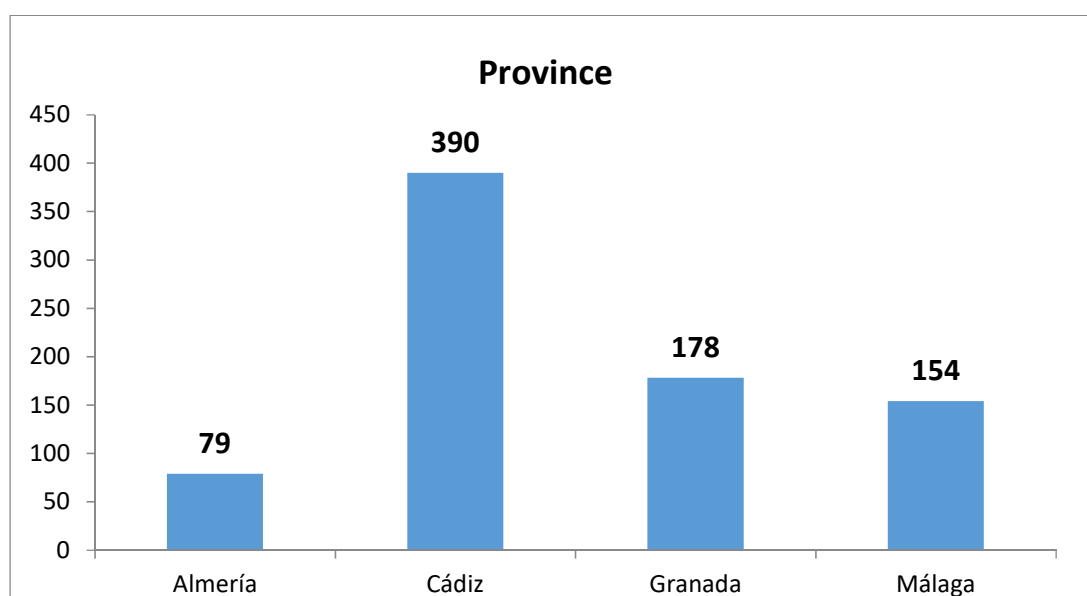
Graph 5. Breakdown of the qualitative sample

4.3.2.2.1 Students

Breaking down the sample for our qualitative study into the three cohorts in question, we are able to depict a clearer picture of each group.

As mentioned earlier, the student group is only formed of CLIL students, since only the opinions of those involved in a CLIL programme have been taken into account. Most of the students in our qualitative study attend schools in the province of Cádiz, which had the highest number of respondents, followed by Granada, Málaga, and Almería, as can be seen below in

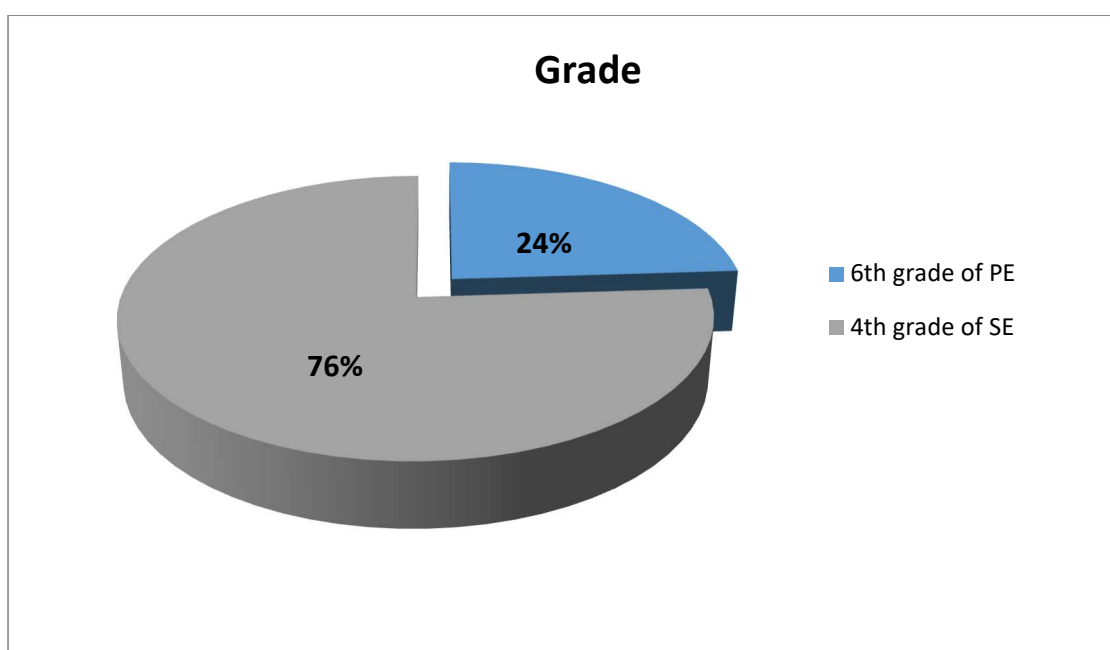
Graph 6:



Graph 6. Breakdown of the qualitative student sample in relation to province

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Although the ratio of male-female is quite balanced, there is a slight majority of female students: 52.4% of our students are female, and 47.6% are male. The proportion of females is, therefore, slightly higher within the CLIL cohort, given that in our quantitative sample, which comprised both, it was 51.4% to 48.6%. In addition, a higher percentage of our sample is enrolled in fourth grade of CSE (76%), as opposed to sixth grade of primary education (24%), as shown below in Graph 7:

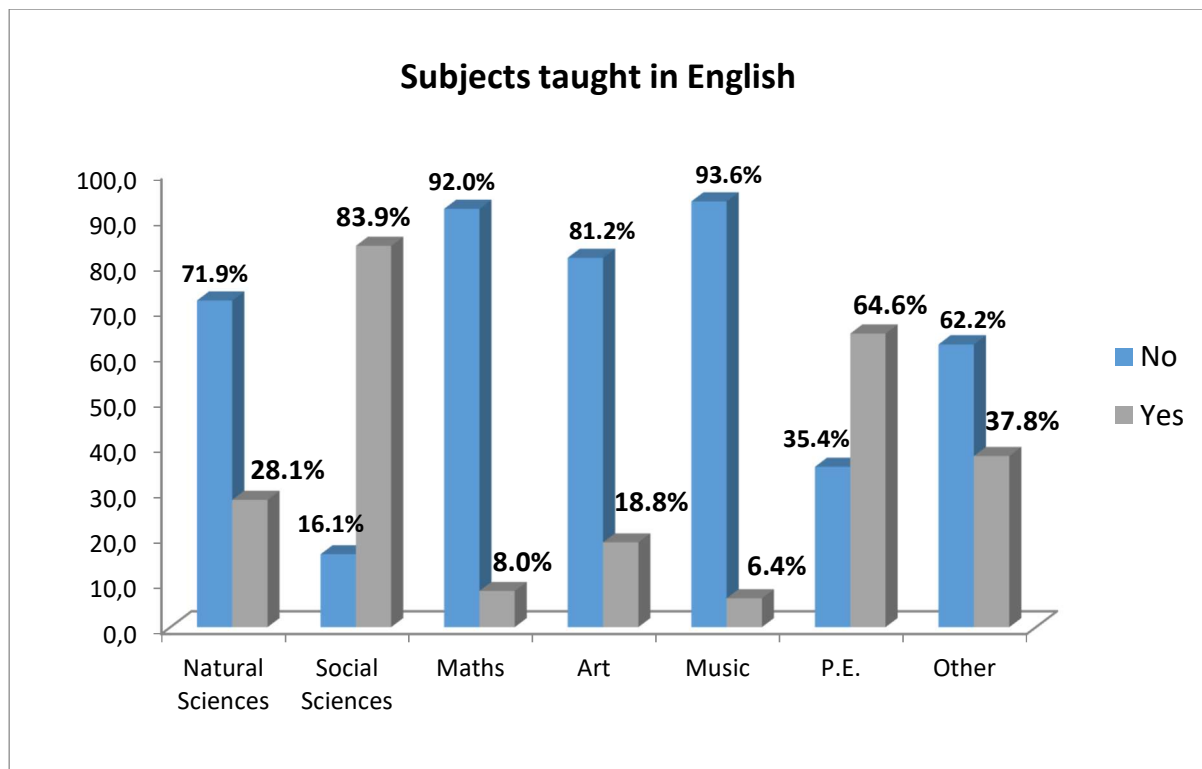


Graph 7. Breakdown of the students in the qualitative sample in relation to grade

The vast majority of students are Spanish nationals (95.6%), followed by other Europeans (2.5%). Latin Americans (0.9%) and students from other nationalities (1%), complete the sample.

As far as the type of centre is concerned, the fact that we subtracted non-CLIL students from the sample has changed the panorama, since charter schools in the overall sample were only mainstream EFL. Therefore, we are now left with public schools (86.3%) and private schools (13.7%) for the qualitative analysis. Almost two thirds of all students (64.2%) attend schools that are located in urban areas, while the remaining 35.8% go to school in rural zones.

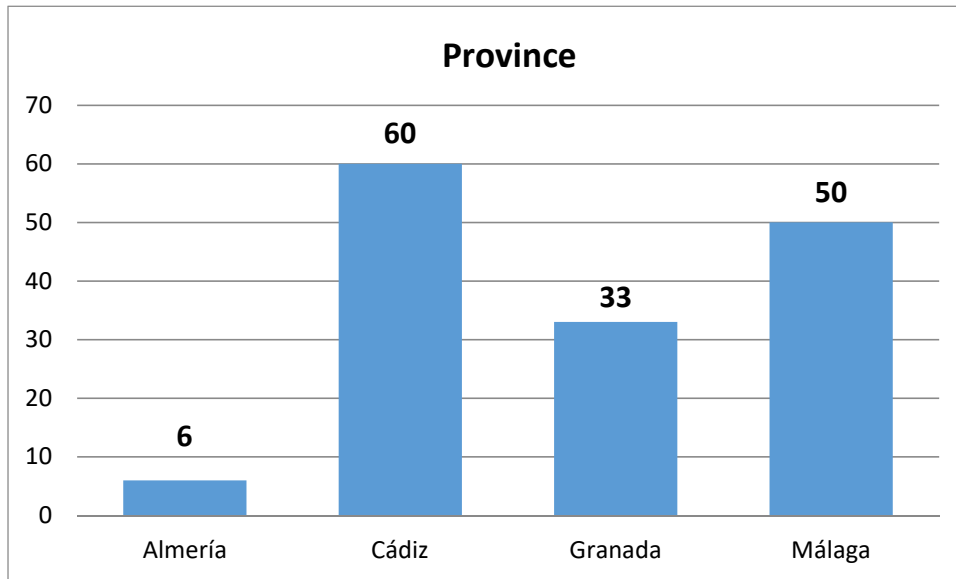
Students were also asked about the number of years that they have been studying English, and it turned out that 44.2% of them had been studying English for over four years. However, the number of subjects that were delivered to them in English was not very high: 83.9% of them received three or fewer classes in English, and only 16.1% received instruction in English in more than three subjects. The subjects that were most likely to be taught in the FL were Social Sciences and Physical Education, and those who were the least likely to be taught in the FL were Music and Mathematics, as seen in Graph 8:



Graph 8. Subjects that students are taught in English

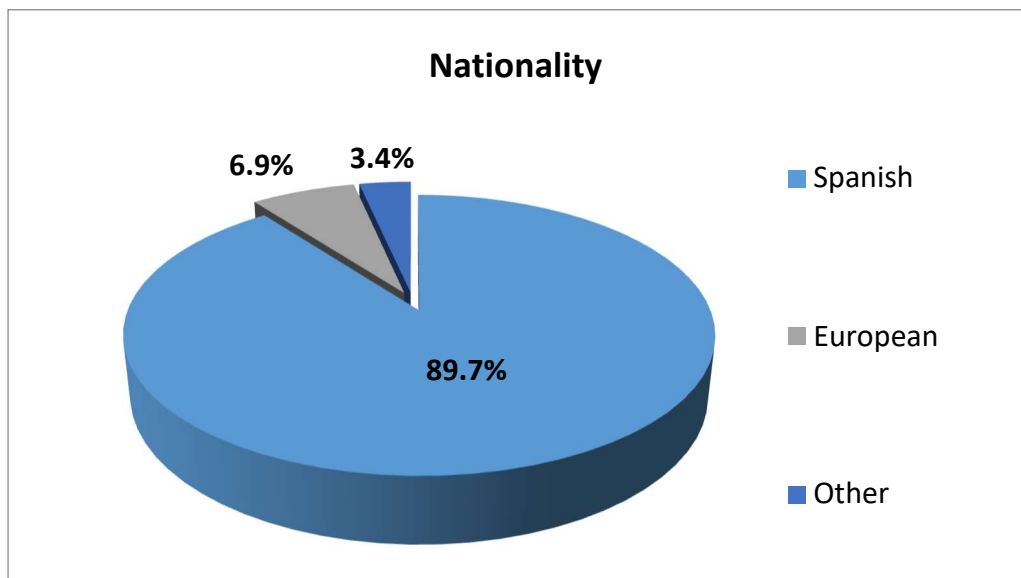
4.3.2.2.2 Teachers

As for the teacher body that we have employed in our sample, it comprises 149 teachers from the abovementioned four provinces, distributed as seen in Graph 9 below:



Graph 9. Teachers in each province that conform the qualitative sample

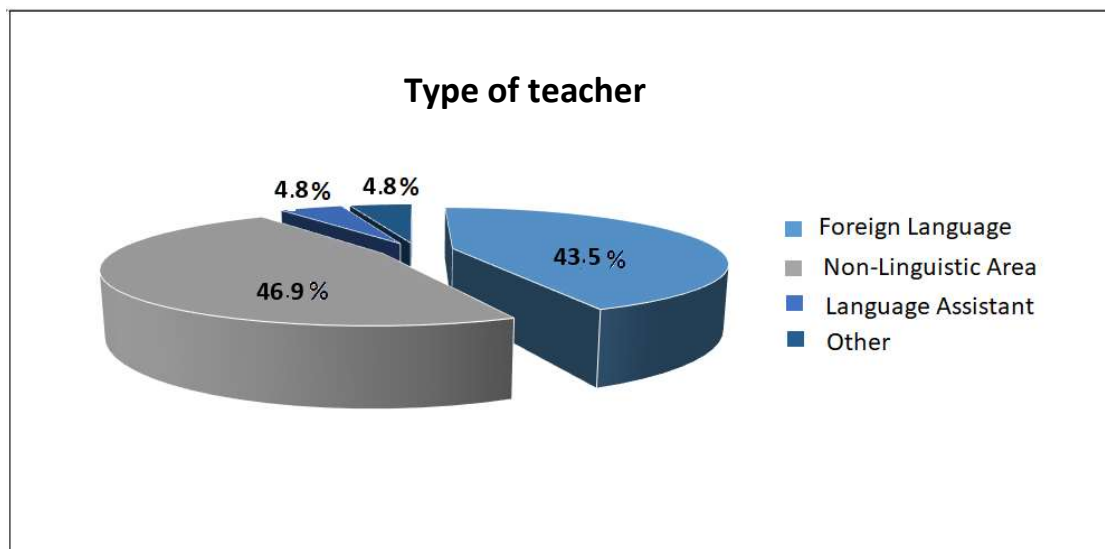
Most teachers (60.1%) are women, and a vast majority of teachers are Spanish nationals (89.7%), followed by other European (6.9%), and other nationalities (3.4%), as is shown below in Graph 10:



Graph 10. Nationality of teachers that conform the qualitative sample

In addition, the number of teachers who are over 40 years old (51.7%) surpasses that of teachers who are 40 or less (48.3%).

Vis-à-vis the type of teacher, NLA teachers comprised 46.9% of the sample, FL teachers, 43.5%, language assistants, 4.8%, and other, 4.8% (cf. Graph 11).



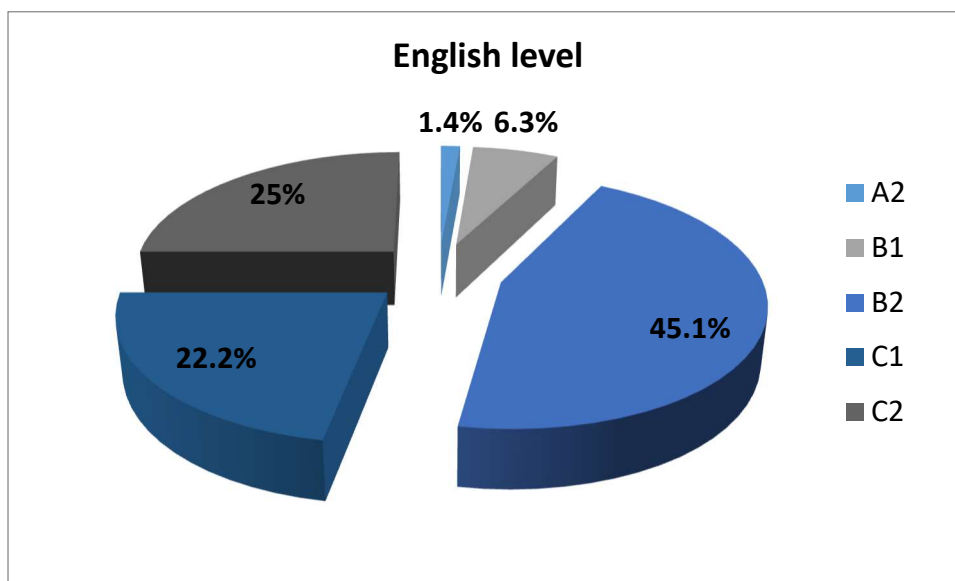
Graph 11. Breakdown of the qualitative sample in terms of type of teacher

As far as their administrative situation is concerned, amongst the participants we find 101 civil servants (98 with their final post and three without fixed destination yet), 24 temporary workers, and 23 teachers with other administrative situations.

Their competence in the foreign language is, in most cases, B2 or higher, according to the CEFR: 45.1% of all teachers have a B2 level, followed by a C1 level (22.2%), C2 (25%), a B1

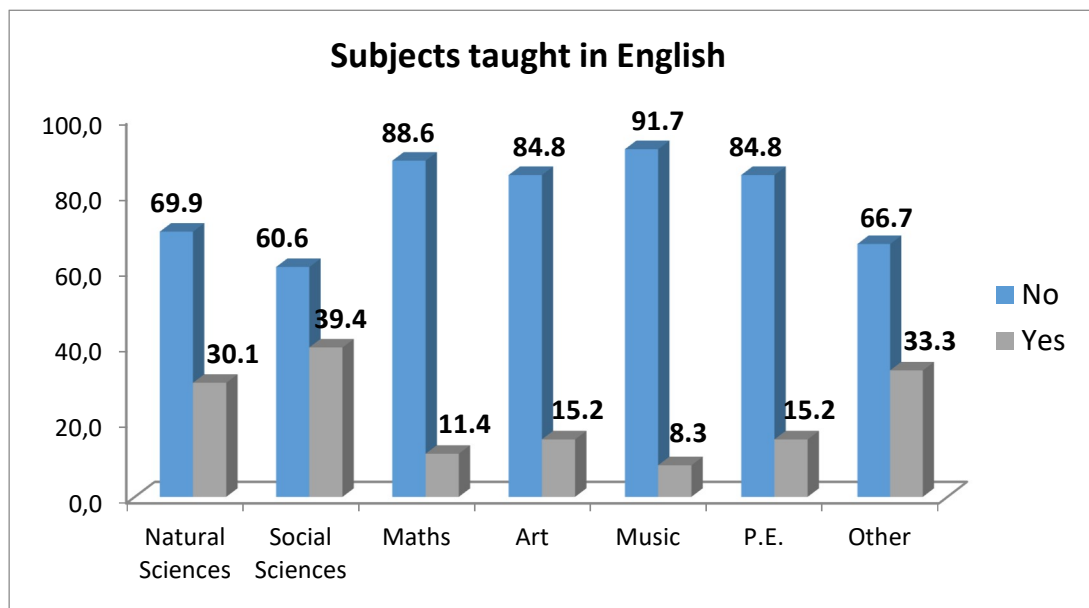
(6.3%), and A2 (1.4%). This means that 47.2% of the teachers in the sample have a C level of the CEFR, which entails a high command of the FL.

The breakdown of the different competence levels is provided in Graph 12 below:



Graph 12. Breakdown of the teachers that conform the qualitative sample in terms of English level

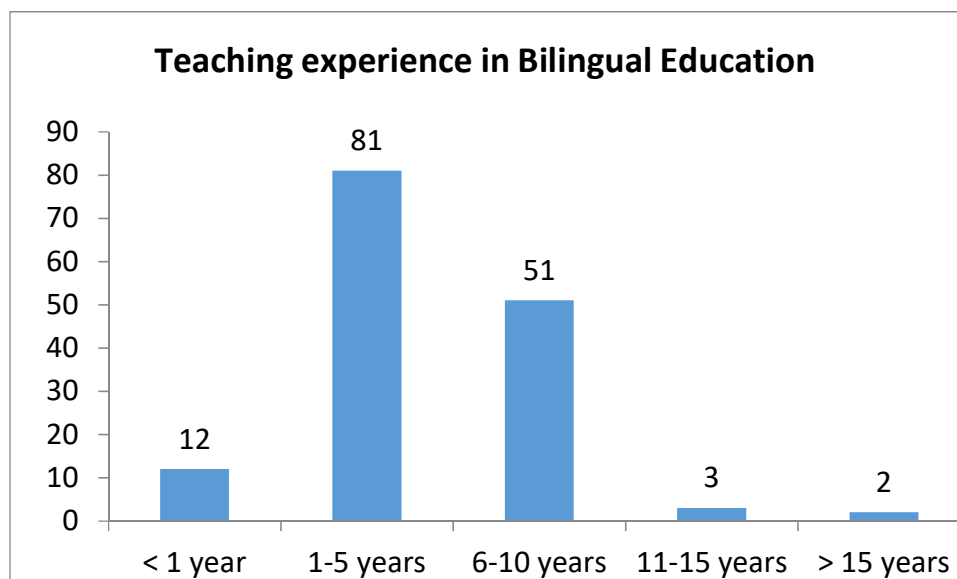
Most of the teachers in our sample (54.9%) deliver three or more subjects in the FL. The subjects that, in most cases, are delivered in English are Social Sciences (39.4%) and Natural Sciences (30.1%). Those which are the least taught in English are Music (91.7%) and Maths (88.6%), as shown in Graph 13 below:



Graph 13. Subjects that the teacher cohort impart in English

Concerning the general experience of the teachers in our sample, 92 of them have between one and 20 years of experience: 61 have taught for a total of one to ten years, and 51 have taught between 11 and 20 years. 28 teachers have 21 to 30 years of experience, and five of them have more than 30 years of teaching experience. Only four have less than one year of experience in teaching.

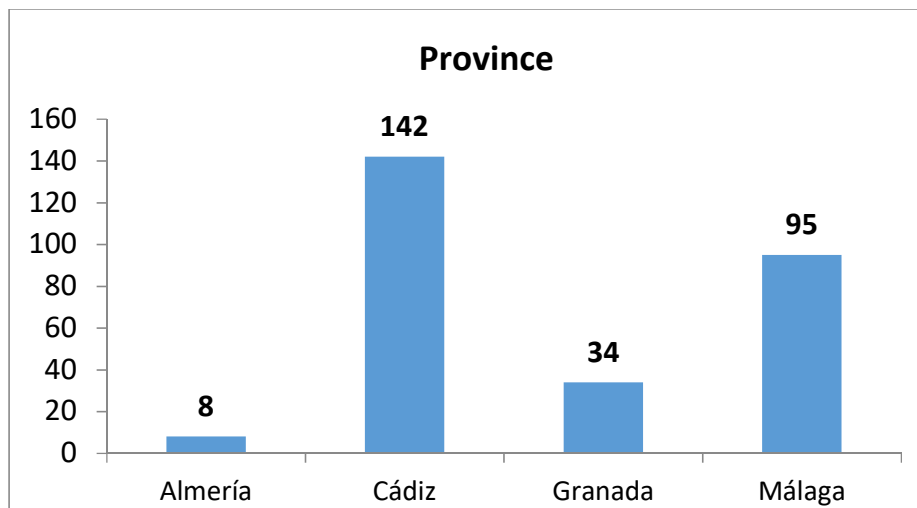
The teaching experience in bilingual programmes is, needless to say, lower than the overall teaching experience as a whole. Nevertheless, out of 149 teachers, 81 have between one and five years of experience in bilingualism (54.4%), and 51 have between six and ten years' experience in this kind of programmes (34.2%). Five teachers (3.3%) have taught in bilingual sections for over 11 years. In addition, there are 21 teachers in the sample who were coordinators of the bilingual sections at their school. The breakdown of the experience of the teaching cohort in bilingualism is provided in Graph 14 below:



Graph 14. Breakdown of teachers' experience in CLIL programmes

4.3.2.2.3 Parents

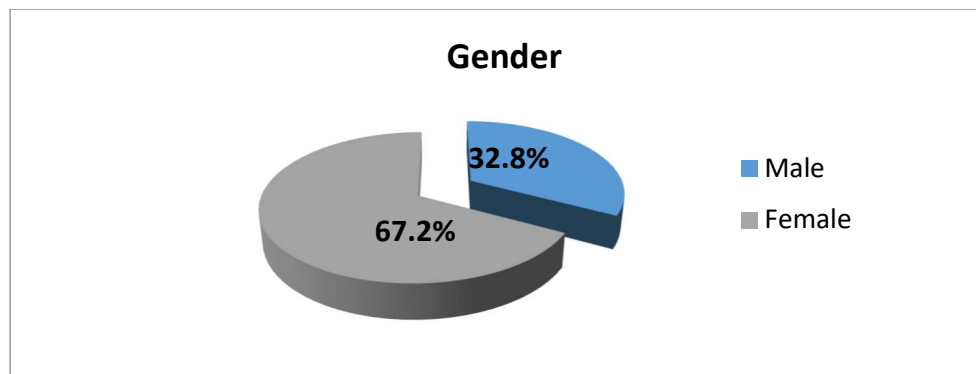
As mentioned earlier, a total of 279 parents took part in the data-gathering process for the qualitative study. Most of them, in line with the samples of students and teachers, were based in the province of Cádiz, and only eight parents were questioned about the CLIL programme in the province of Almería. The distribution of the provinces in the parent sample are provided in Graph 15 below:



Graph 15. Breakdown of the parent cohort in terms of province

Most parents (64.5%) have children studying in the fourth grade of CSE, and the remaining 35.5% have children enrolled in sixth grade of primary education.

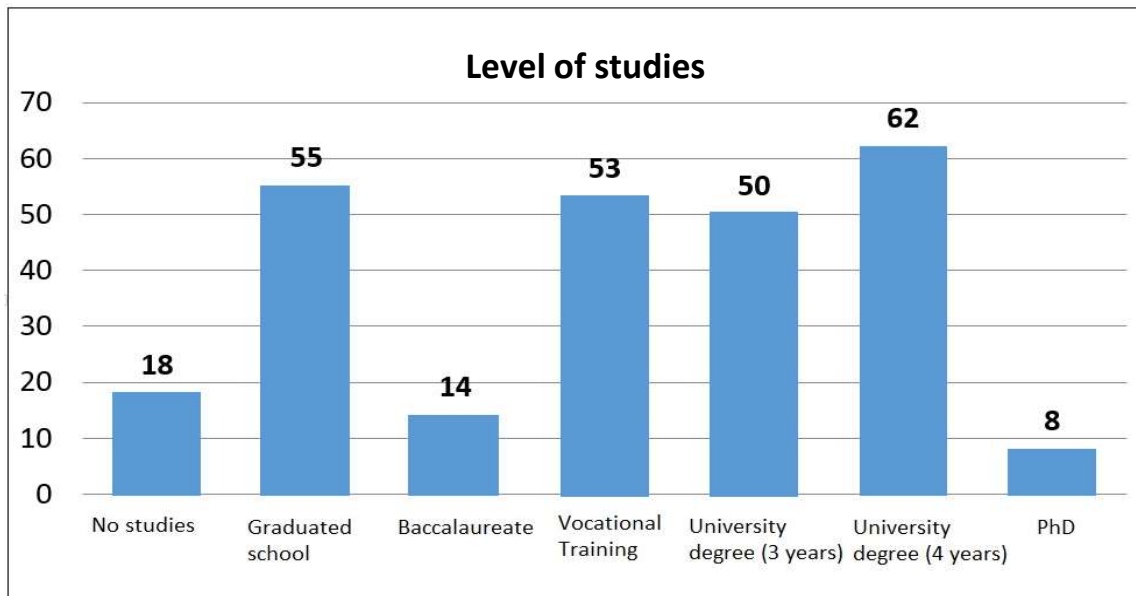
There is an almost equal percentage of parents who are 45 years old or younger and of those who are over 45. The latter group is slightly larger, comprising 50.9% of all parents. Nevertheless, the same cannot be concluded with respect to the gender of participants. As can be seen in Graph 16 below, 67.2% of the respondents are women, which implies that more mothers than fathers completed the questionnaire.



Graph 16. Breakdown of gender within the parent cohort

With regards to the nationality of the parents, the vast majority are Spanish. However, there are small percentages of other Europeans (0.7%), Latin Americans (0.4%), and other (0.4%).

Last but not least, the parents' level of academic studies has also been gauged. Only a small percentage (6.5%) have no completed studies, while 21.2% have CSE, 5.4% have completed NCSE, and 20.4% have a diploma in Vocational Training. A staggering 46.1% have university studies. Out of these, 3.1% have completed a PhD. The breakdown for the academic studies of the parent sample is provided in Graph 17 below:



Graph 17. Parents' level of studies

4.3.2.3 Homogenisation process

One of the main strengths of the present study when compared to most previous research on the effects of CLIL is the fact that the students from our sample have been matched to ensure the homogeneity of the treatment and comparison groups. This process is vital in order to compare the results obtained by these two groups, especially given that we are conducting quasi-experimental research. Thus, CLIL and non-CLIL students were matched at the outset of the project within schools in terms of verbal intelligence and motivation, which were measured by means of the EFAI battery (cf. section 4.3.4.2.1) and Pelechano's (1994) *MA test* (cf. section 4.3.4.2.2). This process was carried out by calculating the statistical significance of the differences through ANOVA and the t test, eradicating the outliers who could not be matched, and advancing to the second phase of the project by testing only those groups that

evinced homogeneity. By undergoing this homogeneisation process, we ensure that the differences between the experimental and control groups are due to the CLIL programme and not to self-selection.

4.3.3 Variables

The qualitative part of the study comprises a series of parallel identification (subject) variables which are adapted to fit the individual features of each of the three different stakeholders who have taken part in the investigation. The effect of such variables on the aspects contemplated within each of the cohorts' questionnaires is directly related to research questions 2, 3, and 4. The variables examined for each group of stakeholders are enumerated below:

Students:

- Gender
- Grade
- Setting (urban or rural)
- Type of school (public, private, or charter)
- Number of years studying English
- Number of subjects studied in the FL

Teachers:

- Age

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- Gender
- Type of teacher
- Administrative situation (civil servant with permanent destination, civil servant with provisional destination, intern)
- Level of English
- General teaching experience
- Teaching experience in a bilingual setting
- Number of subjects taught
- Being or not a bilingual coordinator

Parents:

- Grade their children are in
- Age
- Gender
- Level of studies

The quantitative part of the study, in turn, incorporates three types of variables: dependent, independent, and moderating. The dependent variables are: the students' English language (FL) competence in use of English, vocabulary, reading, listening, and speaking (and, within this last dependent variable, grammatical accuracy, lexical range, fluency interaction, pronunciation, and task fulfilment); the students' Spanish language (L1) competence; and the students' degree of mastery of the contents taught through CLIL in Science subjects. The CLIL programme constitutes the independent variable in our study. Finally, the moderating

variables that have been considered are type of school (public, private or charter), area (eastern or western Andalusia), SES, setting (rural or urban), and extramural exposure.

4.3.4 Instruments

Information about the participants has been gathered through three main types of instruments: tests (English language competence), semi-structured interviews, and questionnaires (personal opinions concerning the CLIL programme, verbal intelligence, motivation, extramural exposure). Socio-economic status has also been gauged by means of an initial questionnaire delivered to students concerning their parents' educational level during the first phase of the study. While the first instruments are non-survey tools, the semi-structured interviews (individual and focus group) and questionnaires (self-administered and group-administered) fall under the category of survey tools (Brown, 2001). Additionally, students' grades in Spanish and the NLA subject were provided by the schools, so that students' competence in those two areas could also be evaluated (for schedule reasons, it was not possible to administer our own tests).

These instruments were validated and employed in the two governmentally-funded research projects on the effects of CLIL in monolingual contexts mentioned above (cf. section 4.1). For our study on four provinces in Andalusia, we have gathered our information from these projects, therefore making use of the instruments that had already been employed in the wider study.

4.3.4.1 Instruments employed in the qualitative analysis

4.3.4.1.1 Questionnaires

The main instrument used for the qualitative study is the questionnaire. There were three different versions drawn up for teachers, parents, and students, although they were kept as similar as possible in order to guarantee that certain items were comparable across cohorts. They included initial demographic and background questions that elicited biographical information from the respondents (in line with Patton's 1987 question types) in short-answer questions, as well as opinion questions on several aspects related to the CLIL programmes, presented in seven blocks and in the form of a Likert-scale from 1 to 4, in order to avoid the central tendency error. These questions were presented as closed-response items for ease and speed of applicability. However, at the end of each block of questions, respondents were given the opportunity to fill in additional questions for analysis and to provide their opinion on them. Furthermore, these questionnaires were designed in English and in Spanish, given that some teaching assistants might prefer to fill them out in their mother tongue.

The seven blocks included in all three sets of questionnaires are the following:

1. Students' use, competence and development of English in class (14 items in students' and parents' questionnaires, nine items in students' questionnaires)
2. Methodology (four items in students' questionnaires, seven items in teachers' questionnaires, three items in parents' questionnaires)
3. Materials and resources (11 items in students' questionnaires, 12 items in teachers' questionnaires, eight items in parents' questionnaires)

4. Evaluation (four items in students' questionnaires, four items in teachers' questionnaires, five items in parents' questionnaires)
5. Teachers' use, competence and development of English in class (10 items in students' questionnaires) / Teacher training (15 items in teachers' questionnaires) / Training and information (six items in parents' questionnaires)
6. Mobility (three items in students' questionnaires, four items in teachers' questionnaires, three items in parents' questionnaires), and
7. Improvement and motivation towards English (in students' and parents' questionnaires) (four items in students' questionnaires, six items in parents' questionnaires) / coordination and organization (in teachers' questionnaires) (five items).

The items were drawn up in line with Brown's (2001) indications, that is, avoiding long, ambiguous, or incomplete questions, making sure that items did not overlap, and, at the same time, ensuring their intelligibility, clarity and neutrality.

The questionnaires were validated following a double pilot process in which nine experts and a representative sample of 263 subjects with the same traits as the target respondents provided their insights on the questionnaires' content and form. The experts, who were three professionals from each educational level (primary, secondary, and tertiary education), agreed that the instructions specified in the questionnaires were clear, and that the length of these tools was appropriate. However, they had some suggestions concerning the elimination of the variable type of school in the students' questionnaire, the removal of certain items which were overlapping across blocks, the reorganisation of certain items for improved consistency

between the questionnaires of the three cohorts, the spelling out of certain acronyms such as CEFR or ELP, the modification of age ranges in the teachers' questionnaires, the deletion of typological errors in the English version, and some rewording in the Spanish version²⁹. Once these changes were introduced and the questionnaires were presented to the representative sample of subjects, Cronbach alpha was calculated for each questionnaire in order to ensure their reliability and internal consistency. Extremely high coefficients were obtained for all three questionnaires: 0.940 for the questionnaire provided to students, 0.931 for the teacher one, and 0.895 for the parent equivalent. The final version of these three questionnaires can be found in Appendix 1.

4.3.4.1.2 Interview protocol

Interviews were also used for the data-gathering process of students' and teachers' perceptions about the CLIL programme, although parents were not interviewed. The interviews were semi-structured, with clear-cut questions established beforehand in interview protocols (cf. Appendix 2), but with a view to allowing further elaboration on each of the topics. The questions posed by the researchers comprised the main Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities, and Threats that the interviewees identified in the curricular and organisational aspects of CLIL implementation in the region, and the thematic blocks in the interviews were parallel to the ones included in the questionnaires, in order to ensure the comparability of both instruments. For each block, guiding questions and examples were

²⁹ cf. Pérez Cañado (2016c) for a more detailed account of the changes suggested by these nine experts.

provided in order to help the interviewer to elicit as much information as possible from the participants. These thematic blocks were the following:

- Use of L2 in class
- Development of L2 in class: discursive functions
- Development of competences in class
- Methodology and grouping strategies
- Materials and resources
- Coordination and organisation
- Evaluation
- Teacher training and mobility
- Motivation and workload
- Overall evaluation

Two researchers filled in the interview protocols in each session, and each interview was recorded digitally, with prior consent from the respondents. The researchers were previously trained on common basic guidelines for the development of the interviews and on how to offer clear directions to the interviewees. In each school, a small group of roughly five people formed by FL and NLA teachers and language assistants were interviewed. There were both group interviews (roughly 60 minutes long) and individual interviews (which were 30 minute each), in order to guarantee confidentiality. Interviews with the students, in turn, were one hour each, and consisted of a general introduction followed by focus group interviews in which the class was divided into subgroups of four to five students each, and each researcher was

assigned one of the subgroups. A few minutes were devoted to the discussion of each of the 10 thematic blocks in subgroups. After the discussion of all blocks, a general debriefing took place with the aim of foregrounding the main ideas discussed and to provide feedback on the experience. These interviews were roughly 30 minutes per CLIL class.

The combination of closed and open responses in the questionnaires, together with the interviews, has allowed us to gather a comprehensive picture of CLIL in the classroom and the main Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities and Threats that it poses for all stakeholders involved.

4.3.4.2 Instruments employed in the quantitative analysis

Since, in order to ensure homogenisation in our sample, students were matched within and across schools for verbal intelligence and motivation, verbal intelligence and motivation tests were employed in the initial stages of the study so that the groups could be matched and were comparable, and the results obtained could be ascribed to CLIL and not to already existing differences between the cohorts in the sample.

The tests used to measure students' verbal intelligence and motivation already existed prior to the longitudinal study, in the fields of psychology and language teaching research. These two dimensions were measured during the initial stages of the study alongside extramural exposure, which was gauged via a questionnaire based on Sundqvist and Sylvén (2014), and it is defined by the authors as "all types of English-related activities that learners come in contact

with or are engaged in outside the walls of the English classroom, generally on a voluntary basis" (2014: 4).

The data concerning socio-economic status of the families were collected in an initial questionnaire during the first phase of the study, and the level of competence in the L1 and NLA subject was measured through school grades, which were elicited from the schools in which the study took place. It was done this way because CLIL and non-CLIL students, teachers, and families to whom the battery of tests and questionnaires were delivered were overloaded with the research, and teachers and students needed the time that it would take to test them in L1 and NLA subject for their normal lessons.

4.3.4.2.1 Verbal intelligence tests

The verbal intelligence tests employed were taken from the EFAI (*Evaluación Factorial de las Aptitudes Intelectuales*) battery (Santamaría, Arribas, Pereña & Seisdedos, 2016), and two versions were employed: one for the primary education students, and another one for the secondary education students. This battery of tests evaluates the ability to solve problems of different kinds, to keep an adequate intellectual flexibility, and to complete logical processes.

Students had to answer as many items and they could in five minutes. To do so, they had to complete multiple choice exercises about antonyms, analogies, and odd-one-out. The EFAI test employed for primary education students consisted of 26 items, whereas the test delivered to secondary education students comprised 23 items (cf. validity and reliability measures in the publication). In this specific study, the Guttman Split-Half Coefficient was 0.87 for primary education and 0.83 for CSE.

4.3.4.2.2 Motivation tests

With regard to motivation, it was measured via Pelechano's (1994) *MA test*, which was originally designed to measure motivation levels. This test analyses the following four motivational factors of achievement and anxiety, distributed in 35 items: (i) vain desire to work and self-esteem (10 items); (ii) anxiety in the face of exams (made up of nine items); (iii) lack of interest in studying (nine items); and (iv) realistic personal self-demand (seven items). It is a renowned instrument to measure motivation in our field and still has great recency and applicability in studies such as the present one (cf. validity and reliability measures in the publication). In this specific study, Cronbach alpha was 0.665.

4.3.4.2.3 English tests

The L2 competence of the students was measured through two different batteries of five tests each (use of English, vocabulary, reading, listening, and speaking), one for the sixth grade of primary education, and another one for the fourth grade of CSE. The test used for the first grade of NCSE was the same as the one employed for the fourth grade of CSE, because the intention was to measure how these students had developed over the course of six months, and having them take the same test was the best way to compare the two results.

The tests were designed to assess linguistic competence, in accordance with the official curricula for these stages established by the CEFRL, national Decrees and regional Orders, and focused on grammatical, lexical, and skill-based aspects. They intended to measure final learning outcomes, that is, "the final product obtained at the end of these grades" (Madrid,

Bueno, & Ráez, in press: 5), and they fulfilled the requirements of reliability, validity, authenticity, interaction, washback, practicality, difficulty and discrimination potential.

Both the primary and the secondary English tests comprised 100 items each, distributed among the sections of use of English, vocabulary, listening comprehension, reading, writing³⁰, and speaking (cf. Appendix 3). The part on use of English consisted of 44 items which included exercises on word order, rewording, gap filling, and choosing between different tenses. The vocabulary section of the test included an exercise on filling in blanks in a text with a set of words given to the students in the instructions and an exercise in which they had to match certain symbols with their meaning. The listening part of the test consisted of seven items where students had to choose between options A - D, basing their answers on a recorded audio about a news report. The reading skill was evaluated, in turn, by a series of six items which asked general and specific questions concerning a text on non-verbal communication. Students had to choose for each item between options A - D. Finally, in order to evaluate the skill of writing, the students had to reply to an informal email telling a friend about their free time (14 items).

Students were given one hour to complete the test on the skills of use of English, vocabulary, listening comprehension, reading, and writing (items 1 - 86). The speaking test (items 87 - 100) was conducted on a different day, in pairs, in a ten-minute period. Each speaking test was

³⁰ Even though the tests included writing, due to time constraints it was not possible to analyse the writing results in order to include them in the present investigation.

conducted by two researchers in each school: one took notes and the other conducted the interview. The interviews were recorded with prior consent from students.

Once these tests were designed, they were subjected to a double-fold pilot process for their validation. Initially, they were scrutinised by external experts, who provided their input on their length, adequacy, difficulty for each level, variety of testing facets, and layout. After introducing the necessary changes resulting from this initial scrutiny, they were applied to a representative sample of students (263 informants), followed by another phase of adjustments in order to guarantee that the tests met the requirements of content, construct, face and ecological validity, reliability, and practicality.

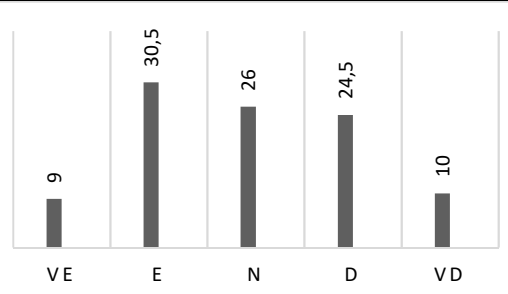
After all adjustments were made, Cronbach alpha was calculated for each of these two tests, in order to measure their consistency. The primary education test obtained an overall score of 0.94, whereas the secondary education test obtained an overall score of 0.96, which attests to the excellent consistency of both tests. Detailed results are provided in Table 1 below.

PRIMARY EDUCATION (N=828)			SECONDARY EDUCATION (N=1116)		
Components	Cronbach alpha	Items (N)	Components	Cronbach alpha	Items (N)
Whole test	0.94	71	Whole test	0.96	69
Part 1: Use of English	0.89	25	Part 1: Use of English	0.94	26
Part 2: Vocabulary	0.86	15	Part 2: Vocabulary	0.85	15
Part 3: Listening	0.80	16	Part 3: Listening	0.62	14
Part 4: Reading	0.81	15	Part 4: Reading	0.68	14

Table 1. Cronbach alpha for the primary and secondary education tests (Madrid *et al.*, in press: 9).

Moreover, the item difficulty index (Lafourcade, 1977) and the item discrimination index (Heaton, 1975) were also calculated for each of these two tests, in order to calculate their difficulty and their potential for discrimination between high and low achievers. It emerged that their difficulty was adequate, and their discrimination potential, high: 80.5% in the primary education test, and 78% in the test employed in secondary education, as can be seen in Tables 2 and 3 below:

PRIMARY EDUCATION	
<i>Criteria and DI</i>	%
Very easy: ≥ 0.75	9
Easy: 0.55-0.74	30.5
Normal: 0.45-0.54	26
Difficult: 0.25-0.44	24.5
Very difficult: < 0.25	10



SECONDARY EDUCATION	
<i>Criteria and DI</i>	%
Very easy: ≥ 0.75	21
Easy: 0.55-0.74	36
Normal: 0.45-0.54	14
Difficult: 0.25-0.44	29
Very difficult: < 0.25	0

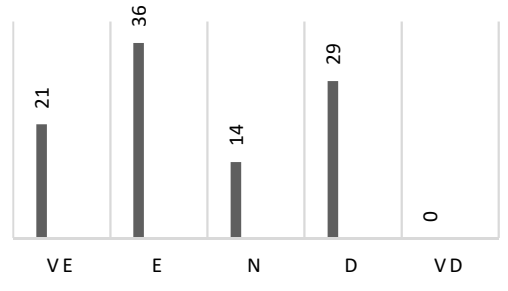
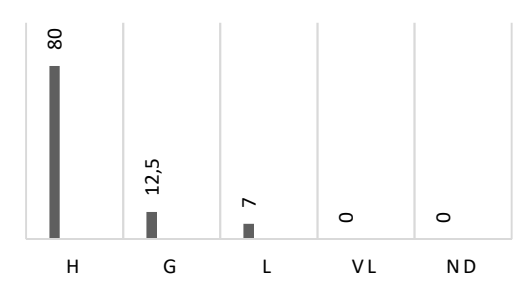


Table 2. Results of the English test items difficulty indexes (DI) in primary and secondary education (Madrid *et al.*, in press: 10).

PRIMARY EDUCATION	
<i>Criteria and discrimination indexes</i>	%
High: $\geq 0,40$	80.5
Good: 0,30-0,39	12.5
Little: 0,20-0,29	7
Very little: 0,10-0.19	0
No discrimination: $< 0,10$	0



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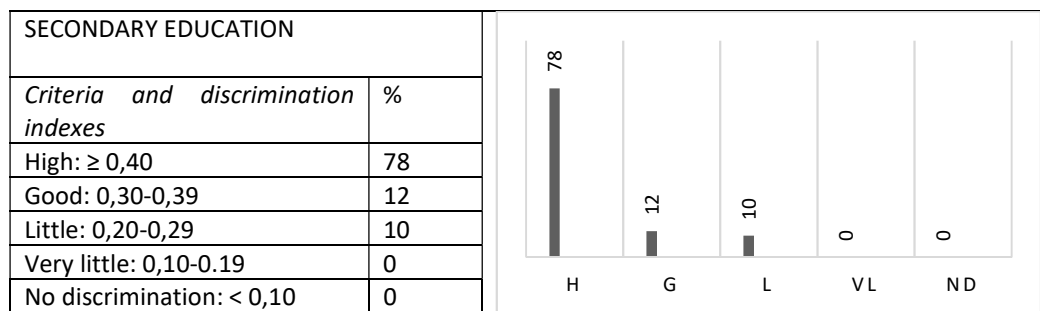


Table 3. Results of the English test items discrimination indexes in primary and secondary education (Madrid *et al.*, in press: 10).

4.3.5 Data collection

First of all, schools and target respondents who would take part in the investigation were identified. For that purpose, the *Delegación de Educación*, as well as the provincial coordination of bilingual programmes were contacted, and a list of public schools with the features that we were after was provided, as well as a list of private bilingual schools and of charter schools with no CLIL.

Data collection took place during the last term of sixth grade of primary education and fourth grade of CSE, at the end of the academic year 2014-2015. Three days were allocated for instrument administration per school. The following academic year, the students who took the English tests while they were in fourth grade of CSE were traced for the delayed post-test phase, and the same tests were delivered to them (now in their first grade of NCSE) just before the winter holidays, in order to avoid attrition after the holiday period.

4.3.6 Data analysis

The analysis of the quantitative data was carried out statistically, through the SPSS programme in its 21.0 version. In turn, the data contained in the qualitative part of the study were analysed both statistically (for the closed-response items in the questionnaires) and through Grounded Theory analysis (as was the case of the open-response questions on the survey and the semi-structured interviews). A description of the operations used in the analysis of both quantitative and qualitative data will now be provided.

For Research Question 1 (Qualitative analysis, Metaconcern 1), descriptive statistics have been used, such as mean, median, mode (central tendency measures), range, low-high, and standard deviation (dispersion measures). Percentages and graphical displays, therefore, are employed in the analysis of the results.

For RQs 2-5 (Qualitative analysis, Metaconcern 1), the ANOVA test and paired t-tests were employed, in order to determine the existence of statistically significant differences both within and across groups, taking into consideration the moderating and identification variables mentioned earlier. Cohen's *d* and eta squared were employed to determine effect sizes.

For RQs 6-13 (Quantitative analysis, Metaconcerns 2-4), ANOVA and paired t-tests were also used with the objective of comparing the experimental and control groups, in order to determine whether there are statistically significant differences, in terms of the moderating variables considered. Once again, Cohen's *d* and Eta squared were employed to determine effect sizes.

For RQ 14 (Quantitative analysis, Metaconcern 5), discriminant analysis was employed in order to determine the degree to which each variable is responsible for the quantitative results and to ascertain whether the CLIL programme accounts for the differences observed between groups.

Additionally, for the qualitative analysis of the open-response items on the questionnaires and semi-structured interviews (RQ 1, Metaconcern 1), Grounded Theory Analysis (Glaser & Strauss) was employed to code the data and to draw conclusions. Grounded theory is a form of qualitative research that serves the purpose of identifying patterns and establishing links between the theoretical concepts and the data.

Therefore, transcriptions, data coding, memoing, and conclusion drawing for the responses provided during the semi-structured interviews were employed in order to identify patterns in the data, which were open-response. Initially, after the data were transcribed, they went through a first phase of coding, which had the aim of making them more manageable. There are three types of coding (Strauss & Corbin, 1990) that were used. Open coding entailed "breaking down, examining, comparing, conceptualizing and categorizing data" (1990: 61), therefore initiating a process of creating ideas based on the transcribed data. Axial coding, referred to as "a set of procedures whereby data are put back together in new ways after open coding, by making connections between categories" (1990: 96), was the second way in which coding was used. Last but not least, selective coding consisted of "selecting the core category, systematically relating it to other categories, and filling in categories that need further refinement and development" (1990: 116). Coding, i.e., giving labels to sentences, paragraphs or chunks of texts in order to make it more manageable, was done multiple times until a

'pattern code' was developed and some salient features of the text emerged. Memoing was done during the process of reviewing and recoding data, when marginal notes and comments were written down explaining the ideas that came to mind while revisiting the data.

In relation to the English tests, they comprised mostly closed-response items. However, in the case of the oral interview, the responses were open, and their grading had to be efficient and consistent for all tests. For that matter, rubrics were created, and a CAF analysis was followed during grading, using CAF measures for this matter.

In the CAF analysis, several constructs of L2 production were taken into account: fluency, accuracy, grammatical complexity, and lexical variation. Fluency was evaluated by raw counts of words, clauses, and T-Units³¹. Accuracy was calculated through error-free T-Unit ratio and errors per word ratio. Grammatical complexity, in turn, was calculated by taking into account different measures of complexity, such as the subordination index, the coordination index, and the mean length of T-unit. Finally, lexical complexity was gauged by means of a type-token ratio (TTR), which measures word variation. In order to avoid the error by means of which shorter utterances provide a higher ratio than longer ones (regardless of their real complexity), the utterances were divided into segments, and TTR was calculated every 'n' number of words in order to calculate the Mean Segmental Type-Token Ratio (MSTTR) (Ellis & Barkuizen, 2005: 155).

In addition, as mentioned above, oral interviews were graded with analytic rubrics for the purposes of reliability and construct validity. The rubric designed for the assessment of oral

³¹ Hunt (1965: 20) defined a T-Unit as "one main clause with all subordinate clauses attached to it".

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skills was created around other assessment criteria, namely, grammatical range and accuracy; lexical range and accuracy; fluency and interaction; pronunciation, stress and intonation; and task fulfilment / appropriacy of response / communicative effectiveness. It was worded in positive statements and divided into five tiers from lowest (zero points) to highest (two points) in all criteria (cf. Pérez Cañado & Lancaster, 2017). This rubric can be found in Appendix 4.

5. QUALITATIVE RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

After having reviewed the theoretical aspects of CLIL and its implementation, the main studies that have been conducted in Europe, Spain, and Andalusia, and described the instruments employed in this study, we will proceed now to the analysis of results. To do so, we will first look into each individual stakeholder's perspectives on CLIL implementation in four Andalusian provinces: Cádiz, Málaga, Granada, and Almería. Then, we will determine whether there are any statistical differences within and across cohorts, and which are the chief variables affected by these differences.

5.1 Analysis per cohort

5.1.1 Students' perceptions

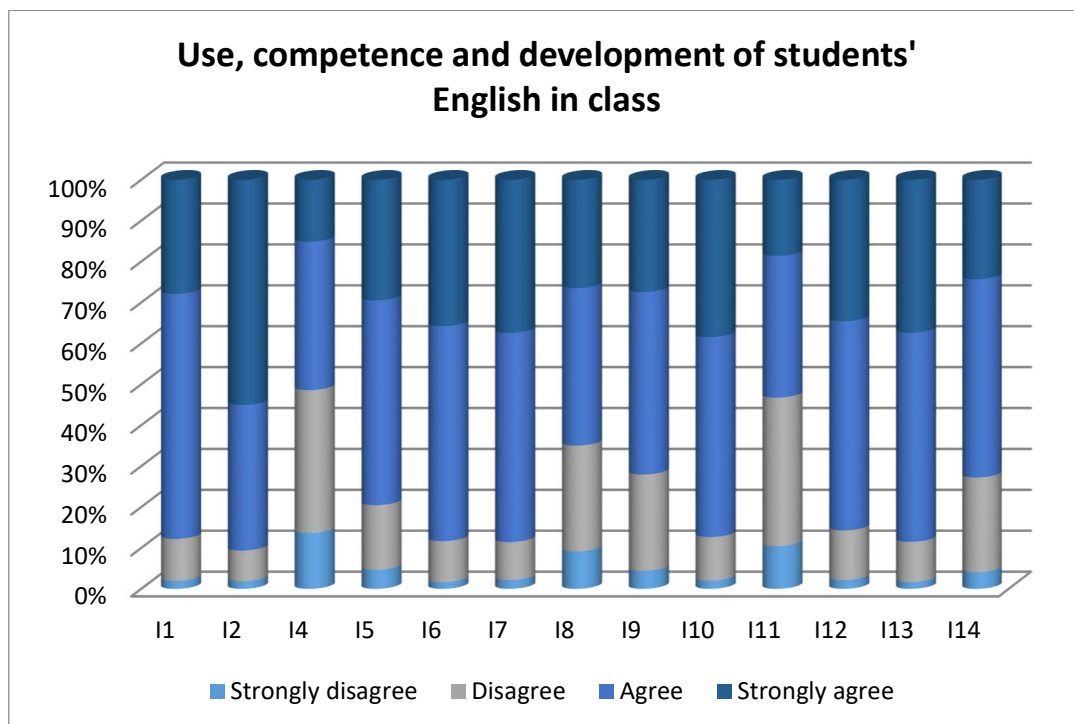
To start with the breakdown of results in the qualitative study, we will begin by reporting on the results obtained by analysing the students' questionnaires and interviews. Students make up the largest cohort of participants, and are the direct beneficiaries of the CLIL programme. Therefore, we will open the results section by paying attention to this cohort.

As mentioned earlier, the main instrument used for gathering the stakeholders' opinions on the development of CLIL programmes, is questionnaires (alongside interviews). These are divided into thematic blocks, so that all aspects of CLIL programmes are scrutinised. The first block we will be analysing is *students' use, competence and development of English in class*.

Ostensibly, the overall results are quite positive, provided that most students have partially or totally agreed with all items (cf. Graph 18 below). Therefore, their view on their own

development of L2 competence is very self-complacent, and the highest score in this block corresponds to item 2 ("my English has improved as a result of participating in a bilingual programme"). A staggering 55.1% of students totally agree with this statement, and 35.6% agree with it. Paying interest to the bilingual class (item 10), oral and written skills (items 12 and 13), also stand out in this first block. However, in general, they would not like English to be used more in class (46.7% of students either disagree or strongly disagree with item 11).

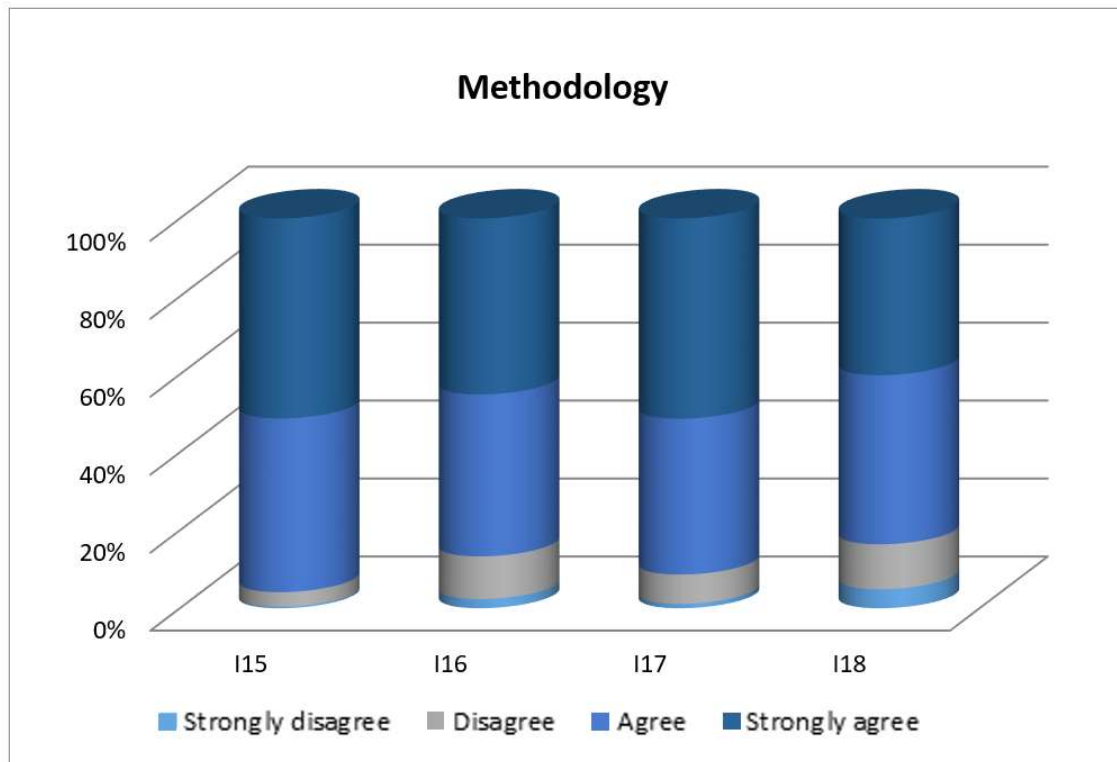
In turn, the lowest average for the whole block is 2.53 for item 4 ("my Spanish has improved as a result of participating in a bilingual programme"), which is, nonetheless, evaluated favourably. The positive evaluation of items on this block on the part of students mirrors the results obtained in previous studies (Lancaster, 2015, 2016; Gálvez Gómez, 2013).



Graph 18. Students' perceptions concerning use, competence, and development of English in class

With regards to our second block, *methodology*, results are very positive, since they are all above three points on average (cf. Graph 19). Students consider that tasks (item 15) and projects (item 16) are developed in class, that they learn a lot of vocabulary in the bilingual classroom (item 17), and that they work in groups during the bilingual class (item 18), although they have agreed slightly less with this statement, and 4.9% of students have expressed total disagreement. These results depart from previous studies which showed deficiencies on the part of teachers with regards the methodology employed in class (Fernández Fernández *et al.*, 2005; Pena Díaz & Porto Requejo, 2008; Pérez Cañado, 2016a, 2016d). In addition, they consider that they regularly use English in class, although more in written exercises than in oral communication, with the exception of oral presentations (as one student said in the interviews, "*oral, poco. Escrito, más, pero oral...*").

Therefore, it can be concluded that they are satisfied with the methodology followed in the CLIL class. However, it seems that these methodological advances are, in some cases, more marked in the English class than in the NLA subjects. As one student says in the interviews, "*en [la asignatura de] inglés, sí, porque cada año hacemos nuevas cosas, y no se parece a lo que habíamos hecho antes, pero, en las demás asignaturas, es más o menos lo que hemos estado haciendo siempre*".



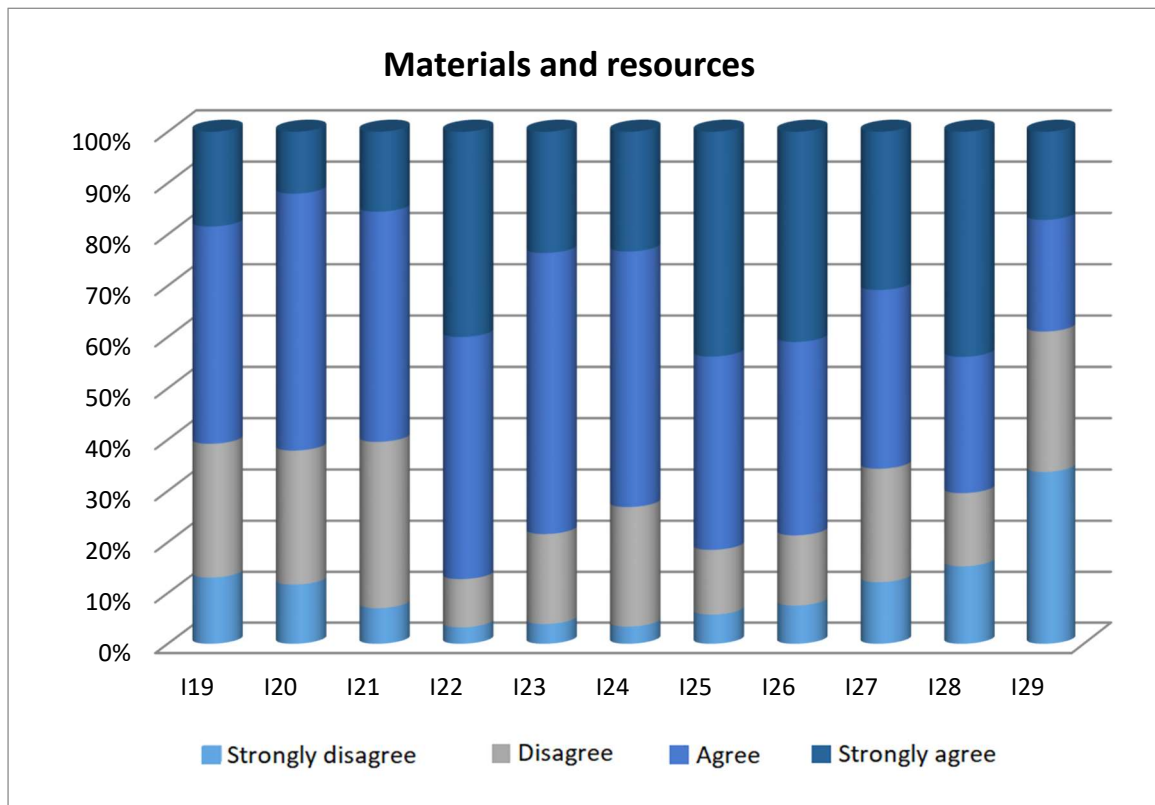
Graph 19. Students' perceptions concerning methodology

As far as our third block, *materials and resources*, is concerned, the results obtained, although positive, evince that there are some aspects that according to students, require some improvement (cf. Graph 20). The general picture for this thematic block is that, although the materials used are not necessarily authentic or adapted from authentic sources (items 19 and 20), 87.3% of students consider that their bilingual teachers work hard to prepare and teach the materials used in class (item 22). Software, online reference materials and Web 2.0 materials are used (items 25, 26, and 27), and Interactive Whiteboards are a key element in

bilingual classrooms (43.9% of students strongly agree with item 28, which focuses on the use of Interactive Whiteboards in class)³².

Nevertheless, computer-mediated interaction is not a widely-used resource (item 29), with 60.1% of students disagreeing with the statement that this type of communication is employed. This finding falls in line with previous studies (Lancaster, 2016), which means that we need to keep working towards the integration of computer-mediated communication tools in CLIL lessons. The guidelines provided by O'Dowd (2018) could be a very adequate point of departure in order to exploit fully the possibilities at hand. Therefore, virtual interaction should be implemented gradually in class and in the syllabus and it should aim higher than mere superficial cultural exchanges. Additionally, teachers need to take on an active role, and communication breakdown cases, rather than a setback, are an excellent opportunity for learning.

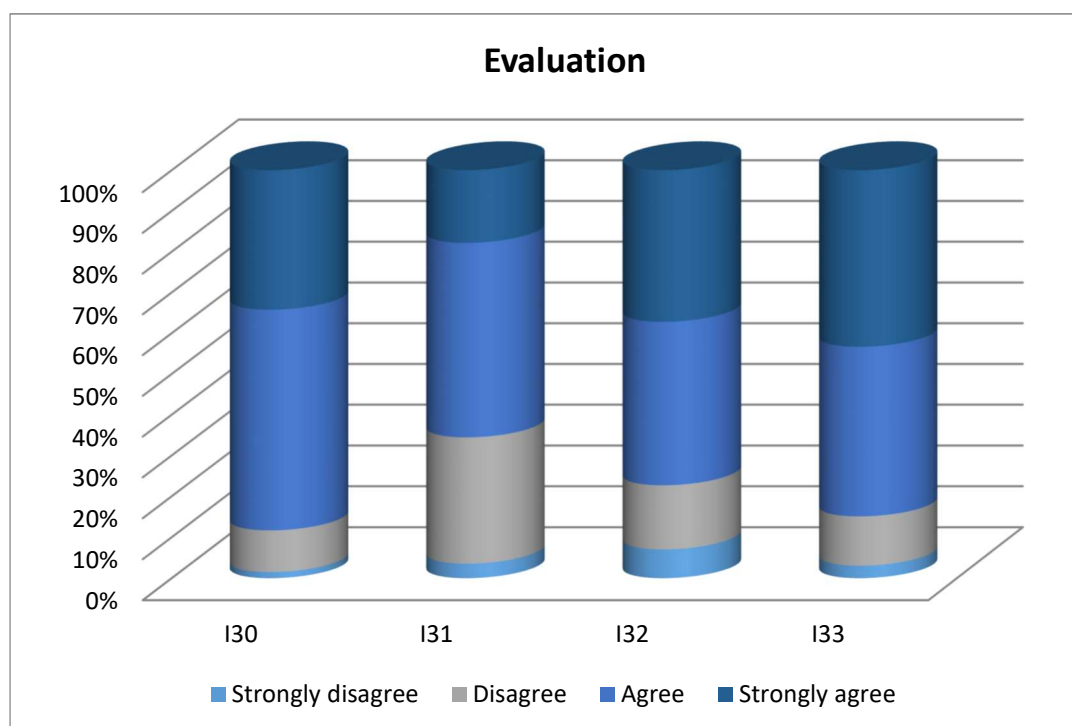
³² In fact, CLIL lessons have been proved more conducive to the development of digital competence than traditional EFL lessons (cf. Nieto Moreno de Diezmas, in press for 2019).



Graph 20. Students' perceptions concerning materials and resources.

The fourth block, *Evaluation*, is another one that sheds positive results on the part of students (cf. Graph 21). 87.4% of students agree or strongly agree that all contents taught in the bilingual programme are evaluated (item 30), although there is more confusion with respect to whether contents are given priority over their linguistic competence, since only 34.4% of students disagree or strongly disagree with item 31 ("When it comes to evaluation, contents are taken more into account than linguistic expression"), although almost two thirds of students agree that content is given more importance in evaluation (in line with Lancaster, 2016, and Pascual Bajo's 2018 results, the latter in the Valencian community).

This is corroborated in the interviews: when students are asked what is given more priority in exams, language or content, they reply "*en realidad, el contenido. Y en inglés, pues las dos*". Students also consider that their oral skills are also being assessed (item 32), although the number of students who strongly disagree with this item is higher than for the previous statement. Nevertheless, the picture that these results draw is that students consider they are being appropriately evaluated, and that both final and ongoing assessment are put into practice by their teachers (item 33, on which 84.9% of students agree). English is used throughout the course, and exams and other evaluation methods are also, at least partially, in the FL, as students stated in the interviews: "*hacemos trabajos en inglés*".

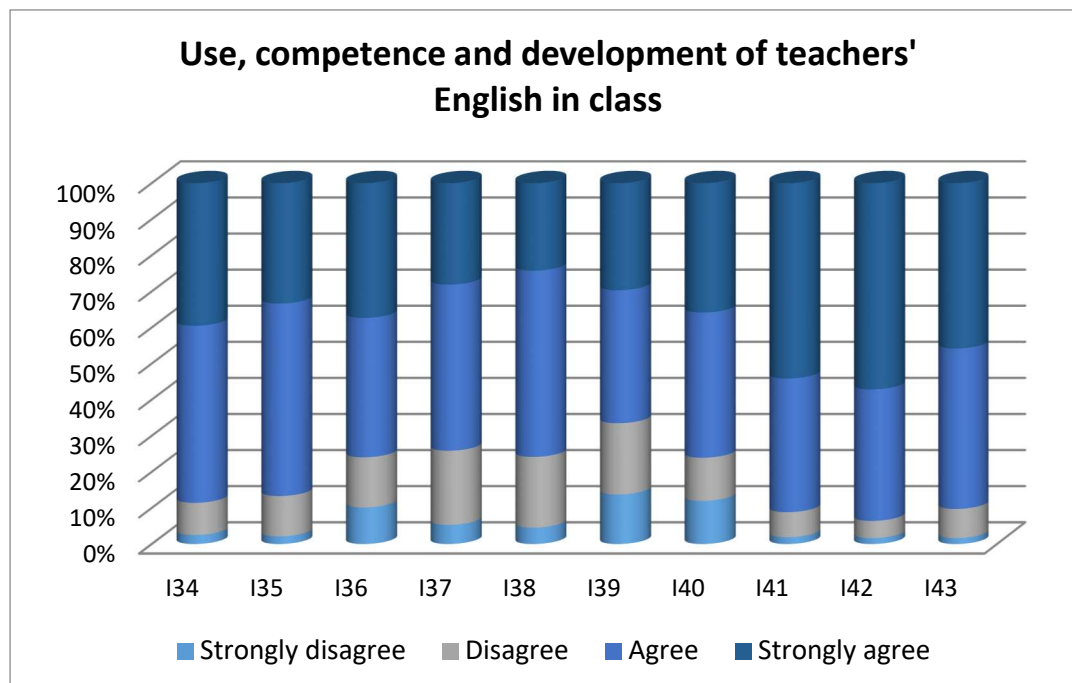


Graph 21. Students' perceptions concerning evaluation

With regard to our fifth block, *teachers' use of English, development, and linguistic competence in the L2*, students are satisfied overall. Most results are very positive, with only a small percentage of disagreements (cf. Graph 22). A vast majority of students consider that their teachers have an adequate proficiency in oral and written skills (items 41 and 42, on which the percentage of students who agreed was 91.2% and 93.6%, respectively), as well as an appropriate knowledge of socio-cultural aspects in the English language (90.2% agreed on item 43). Moreover, students consider that teachers make a conscious effort to improve their language skills. As one student said in the interview, "*en Sociales, por ejemplo, tanto el [profesor] que tuvimos el año pasado como este, sí es verdad que puede haber cosas que las tenga mal, pero las corrige, las intenta mejorar la siguiente vez*". In addition, they consider that the bilingual teachers, in general, are more motivated to go the extra mile, especially concerning their own language competence: "*Los profesores que se meten en el [programa] bilingüe, es porque también quieren hacer más esfuerzo en inglés*".

Students also consider that all their teachers successfully implement their lessons (items 34, 35, and 36), although out of content teachers, language teachers, and teaching assistants, the latter group is the least positively evaluated (24% of students consider that they do not succeed in delivering their lessons appropriately). This is in line with items 39 and 40 (which also evaluate the figure of the language assistant, who obtain the lowest results in the block, below language and content teachers). Previous studies have also suggested that the performance of the language assistant needs to be stepped up (Sánchez Torres, 2014), which highlights the need to continue investigating how we can maximise the potential of native language assistants in the CLIL lessons. Items 37 and 38 are also slightly worrying, since 25.8%

and 24.25% of students disagree that their language and content teachers (respectively) motivate them.

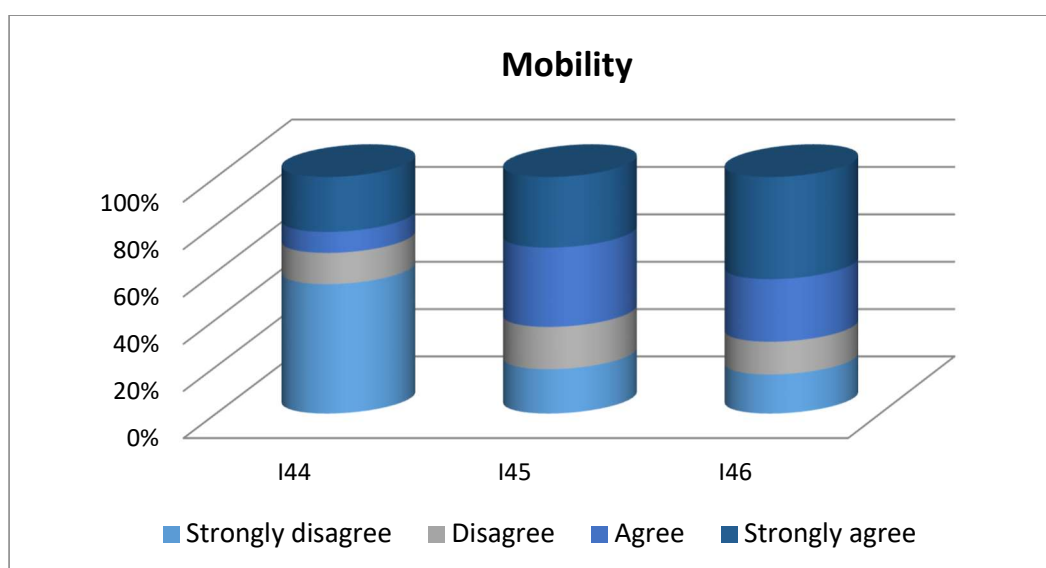


Graph 22. Students' perceptions concerning use, competence and development of teachers' English in class

Vis-à-vis *mobility*, our sixth block, most students (68%) have not yet taken part in a language exchange within the bilingual programme (item 44), although they almost unanimously express their interest in doing so in the interviews (cf. Graph 23 below for questionnaire results on mobility). As one student stated, "*hay que aprovechar los años de inglés que hemos dado, ¿no?*". Most students consider that their teachers encourage them to participate in these initiatives, although the number of students who claim that their teachers do not foster participation in these programmes is surprisingly high (36.7%), given the benefits that mobility has on students' motivation and linguistic competence (item 45). Students' families are slightly

more supporting than their teachers in terms of participating in exchange programmes (item 46), and 69.5% of the students state that their family encourages them to take part in these enterprises (43.1% of students totally agree with this statement).

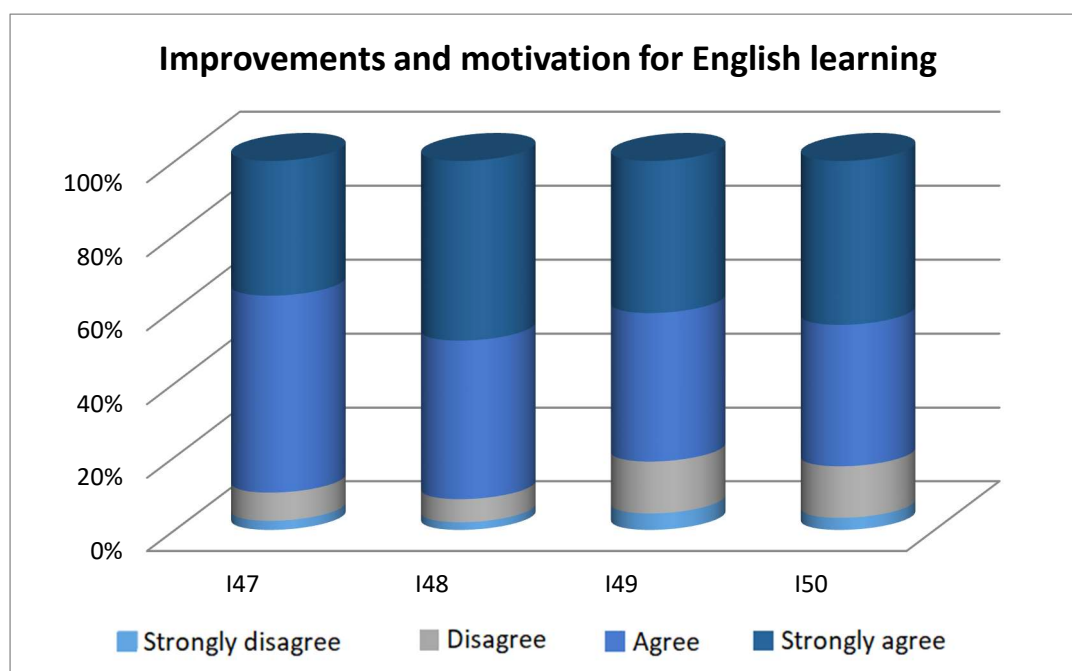
These results depart from those found by Gálvez Gómez (2013), where students did not feel supported concerning their participation in mobility programmes by either teachers or family. However, Ráez (2018), who canvassed parents' opinions concerning their children's mobility, found that, when asked directly, most parents admitted to encouraging their offspring to participate in such programmes. These results led the researcher to conclude that the gap between the encouragement by parents and the actual mobility carried out must be further considered at the Andalusian level in order to pinpoint the origins of such inconsistency.



Graph 23. Students' perceptions concerning mobility

Finally, the seventh block, *Improvements and motivation for English learning*, yields shockingly positive results in all four items (cf. Graph 24). The one that obtains the highest degree of

agreement on the part of students is item 48, which states the following: "There has been an overall improvement on my learning of English as a result of my participation in a bilingual programme". An outstanding 91.5% of students agree with this statement, out of which 48.5% totally agree. In addition, 89.8% of students consider that, in spite of the extra work, being part of a bilingual programme is worth it (item 47), 81.3% agree that their motivation levels have increased due to the programme (item 49), coinciding with previous studies (Marsh, 2000; Coyle, 2006; Merisuo-Storm, 2007; Seikkula-Leino, 2007; Lorenzo *et al.*, 2009a; Lasagabaster, 2011; García Sánchez & Rodríguez Collado, 2015; Heras & Lasagabaster, 2015; Lancaster, 2016), and 82.6% affirm that they have an adequate access to materials in English outside school (item 50).



Graph 24. Students' perceptions concerning improvements and motivation for English learning

All in all, the results show that, in general, students feel fairly positive about the bilingual programme in which they are enrolled. They report that it improves their English, it increases their motivation to learn the language, that their teachers work hard and are well prepared, and that they are well evaluated, amongst other points. They believe that the programme is definitely worth it, despite the extra work that it entails (as one student puts it in the interview, "*sobre todo, nos exigen mucho más*"). CLIL students also consider that they put in extra work and effort when compared against the non-CLIL students: "*Nosotros no solamente estudiamos más, sino que también nos esforzamos más*". As another student states, "*se nos exige más: al exigirnos más, quizás damos más de nosotros*".

5.1.2 Teachers' perceptions

After the review of students' perspectives concerning the CLIL programme, we will now proceed to examine the second cohort under examination: teachers. This cohort is more varied than the student one, due to the fact that different types of teachers form part of the study, with different backgrounds and administrative situations (cf. section 4.3.2.2.2).

Vis-à-vis block I, (*students' use, competence and development of English in class*), teachers express their agreement with all items they were asked about (cf. Graph 25). The item that is the most positively evaluated was item 2 ("My students' English has improved due to their participation in a bilingual programme"). Absolutely none of the teachers express their total disagreement with this statement, 0.7% of teachers disagree with it, 33.8% of teachers voice their agreement with the statement, and an outstanding 65.5% of the teachers totally agree

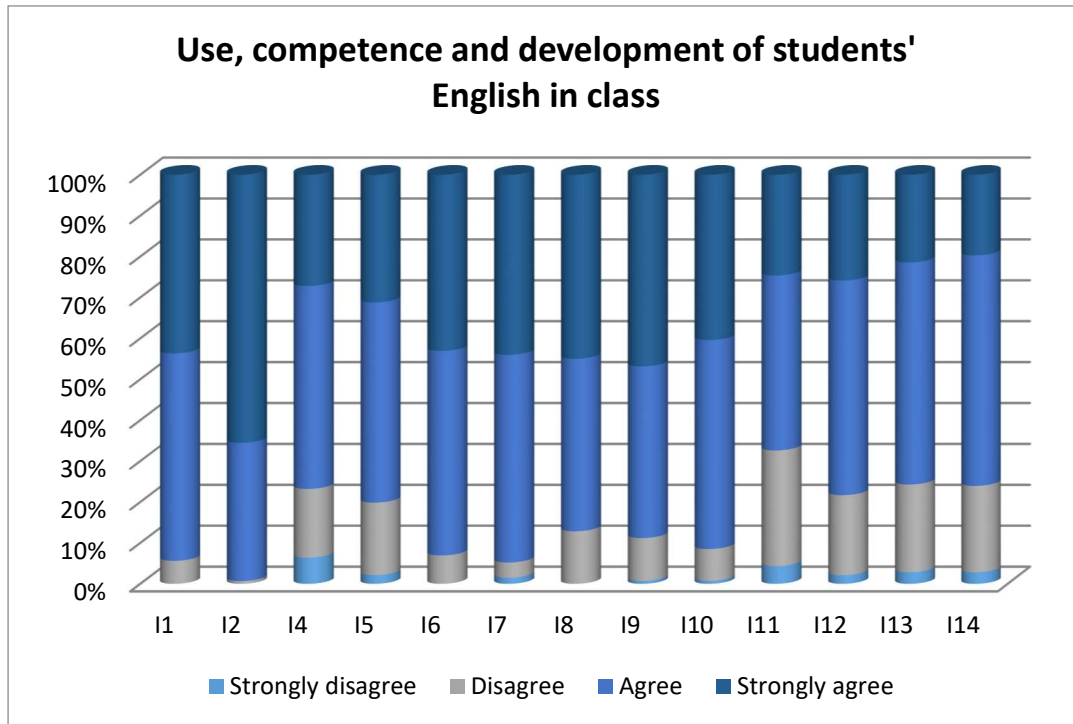
with it. The overall percentage of teachers who believe the statement to be true is, therefore, 99.3%. Teachers also consider that their students' Spanish has improved as a result of the bilingual programme, although to a lesser extent (76.8% of participants agree with item 4), as well as their knowledge in the NLA subject (item 5, 80.1% of agreement among teachers).

The cohort's opinions on underlying linguistic proficiency acquired in the programme were also gauged in items 6 and 7, with excellent results: a vast majority of teachers believe that their students' understanding of the inner workings of a language has improved (98.1% agree with item 6) and that students increase their understanding of the connection between English and Spanish (item 7, 94.7%) due to the bilingual programme. With respect to other areas evaluated under this block, teachers consider that key competences are worked in class (94.4% agree with item 1), and that students' motivation, interest, and participation are enhanced due to the programme (items 8, 9, and 10).

The item that has a lesser degree of agreement in this block is item 11: "My students would like English to be used more in the bilingual class". 32.6 % of teachers either disagree or strongly disagree with this statement, although, as we have seen above, the students themselves had a stronger disagreement with this item (46.7% either partially or strongly disagreed with it).

Lastly, considering the teachers' perceptions of their students' skills in the foreign language and its socio-cultural aspects, these seem to be adequate (items 12, 13, and 14), since less than 25% of teachers disagree with any of the statements expressed on these items. Previous studies have already shed light on the fact that CLIL teachers tend to have positive views concerning their students' L2 competence (Lancaster, 2015; Milla Lara & Casas Pedrosa, 2018).

Teachers' opinions of their students' oral competences are slightly more positive than those concerning their written ones.



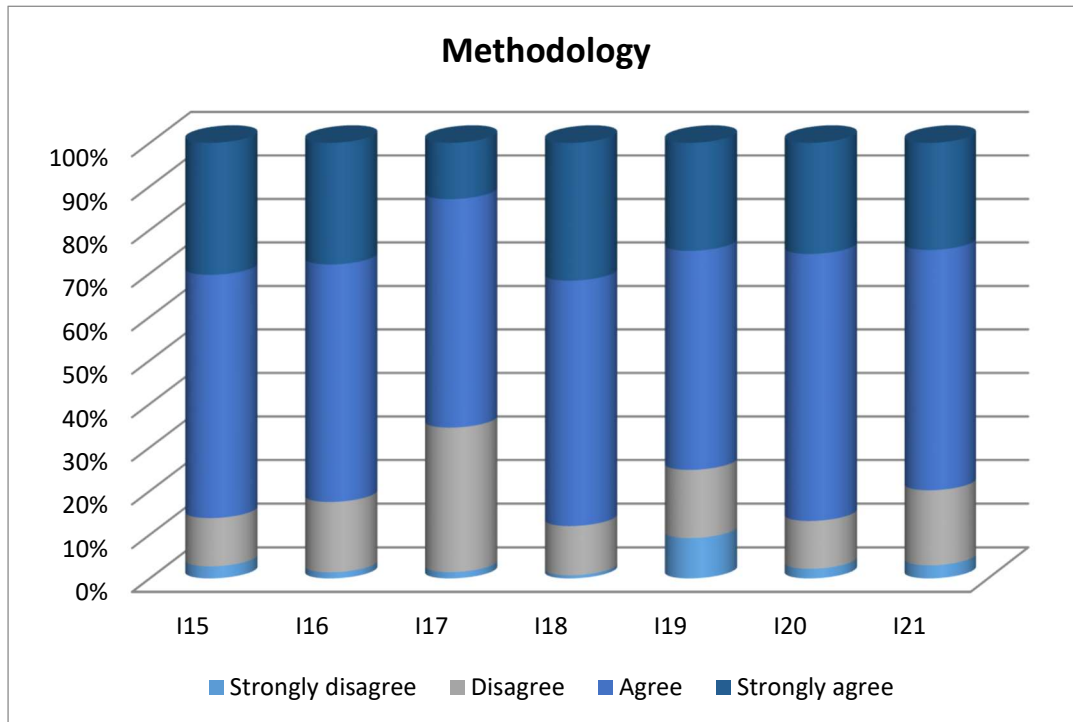
Graph 25. Teachers' perceptions concerning use, competence and development of students' English in class

Block II, *methodology*, reveals positive opinions from this cohort on all items, to a greater or lesser degree (cf. Graph 26). Therefore, teachers believe that Task-Based and Project-Based teaching approaches are used in class (items 15 and 16, with 86.2% and 82.5% agreement, respectively), that the lexical dimension has its place in the bilingual classroom (item 17, with a 65.4% of agreement among teachers, in line with Lancaster's 2016 results), and that Cooperative Learning is employed (item 18, with 88% of teachers agreeing with this

statement). Item 19, which states "[t]he connection between the L1 and the L2 is emphasised", even though evincing a wide percentage of agreement (50.4% of teachers agree with it, and 24.8% of teachers strongly agree with it), also has the highest percentage of total disagreement in the block (9.2% of teachers totally disagree with it).

Given that the connection between the L2 and the L1 is one of the aspects of CLIL that is most positively considered in the literature (Marsh, 2000; Coyle, 2006; Merisuo-Storm, 2007; Seikkula-Leino, 2007; Marsh, 2008; Lorenzo *et al.*, 2009a; Lasagabaster, 2011; García Sánchez & Rodríguez Collado, 2015; Heras & Lasagabaster, 2015; Lancaster, 2016), there could still be room for development on this front in the Andalusian bilingual programme by exploiting the links between the L2 and the L1 via a comparative linguistics approach in class.

A majority of teachers also believe that the recommendations of both the CEFRL and the ELP are followed in their lessons (items 20 and 21, with 86.8% and 79.8% agreement on them, respectively). Teachers also believe that the methodology followed in class is student-centred (in line with previous studies such as Lancaster, 2016, Pérez Cañado, 2016a, 2016d, or Barrios Espinosa and Milla Lara, 2018). In the teacher interview, in one teacher's own words, "*estamos intentando centrarnos todo lo que podemos en el alumno*". This methodological shift, in addition, has a positive effect on students' motivation, as one teacher expressed in the interview: "*el alumnado está mucho más motivado, porque además, la intención es que no vean el área como un área en sí, que tengo que estudiar y ya está, sino que realmente vean la utilidad del área de inglés, y ahí es donde está realmente el gran cambio metodológico que se ha producido*".



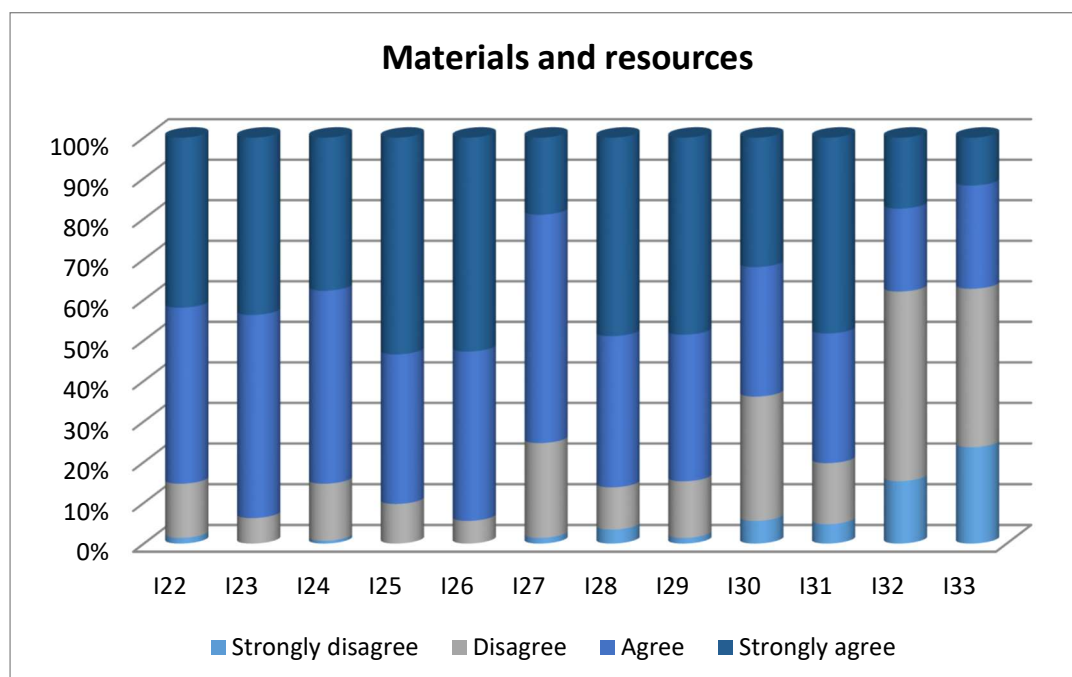
Graph 26. Teachers' perceptions concerning methodology

Materials and resources presents a more heterogeneous picture with regards to the opinions of the participants (cf. Graph 27). On the one hand, teachers widely agree with items 22, 23, 24, 25, 26, 28, and 29, concerning the authenticity of the materials (items 22 and 23), their level of interest and innovation (item 24), collaboration among teachers for materials development (item 25), the communicative approach that they have (item 26), and the use of online and software referencing materials (items 28 and 29).

On the other hand, there is a lesser degree of agreement concerning materials adaptation to different educational needs (item 27), to the use of blogs, wikis, and webquests in class (item 30, with which 36.2% of teachers either partially or totally disagree), to the use of Interactive

Whiteboards (19.8% of disagreement), and, to a much greater degree, with items 32 and 33, even though ICTs have been identified in other studies as one of the strengths of the CLIL programme (Cabezas Cabello, 2010). This arises as a weakness in Andalusian CLIL, where access to ICT resources is widely available.

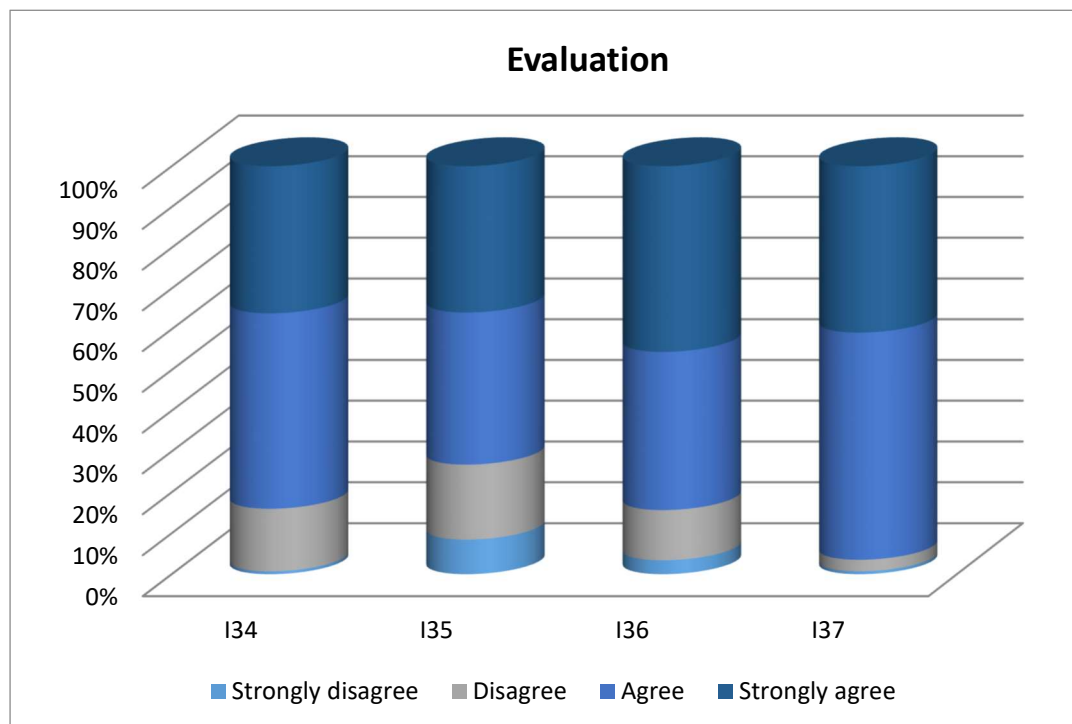
Item 32 evaluates whether computer-mediated communication is used in class, including e-Twinning, and 62% of teachers disagree that this resource is used. Item 33, with which 23.6% of teachers strongly disagree and 39.1% partially disagree, assesses whether materials include any instructions in Spanish so that parents can help their children with their homework, which has already been pinpointed (Cabezas Cabello, 2010; Pérez Cañado, 2011; Gálvez Gómez, 2013; Lancaster, 2016; Ráez Padilla, 2018) as one of the main drawbacks to overcome (cf. section 5.1.3 for parents' own perceptions about this issue).



Graph 27. Teachers' perceptions concerning materials and resources

As far as *Evaluation* is concerned (cf. Graph 28), most teachers consider that all contents taught in the bilingual programme are evaluated (item 34, 84% of agreement within this cohort). As for whether, during evaluation, contents are given priority over linguistic competence, there is a higher degree of disagreement, given that 8.5% of teachers totally disagree with item 35, and 18.3% partially disagree with it. A vast majority of teachers (84.4%) agree with item 36, which assesses whether oral skills are taken into account in evaluation. In fact, in some schools, oral skills are given priority over written skills. In one teacher's words, *"en el primer y en el segundo ciclo, nosotros hemos establecido que van a primar las destrezas orales, tanto la expresión oral como la comprensión oral, por encima de las destrezas escritas [...]"*. Therefore, oral evaluation, an aspect that had been identified in previous studies as one of the pitfalls of CLIL implementation (as Lancaster, 2016: 160, put it, "an oral component is not always incorporated into assessment"), seems to be improving.

Lastly, disagreement is almost non-existent for item 37, which focuses on the use of formative, summative, and holistic evaluation, and with which the percentage of agreement is 96.4% among teachers (tallying with previous studies, such as Milla Lara & Casas Pedrosa, 2018, or Barrios Espinosa and Milla Lara, 2018). The use of different methods of evaluation on the part of teachers, therefore, emerges as one of the strengths in Andalusian CLIL).



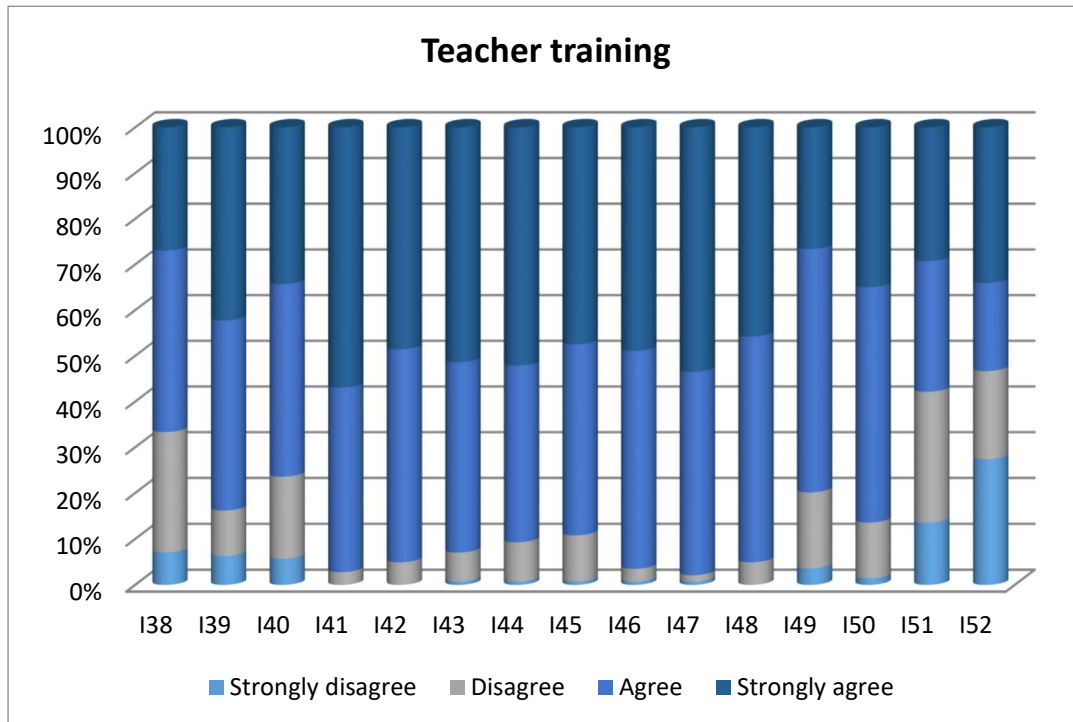
Graph 28. Teachers' perceptions concerning evaluation

Teacher training is one of the areas which has received most attention from researchers (Navés, 2009; Rubio Mostacero, 2009; Cabezas Cabello, 2010; Pérez Cañado, 2012, 2013, 2015, 2016d; Gálvez Gómez, 2013; De la Maya Retamar & Luengo González, 2015; Pérez Cañado and Ráez Padilla, 2015), given that it is a vital point for the correct implementation of a CLIL programme. In fact, items 38, 39, and 40 directly asked teachers whether L2, NLA teachers, and TAs needed more training, and the answers are positive concerning these statements: out of the three different types of teachers, L2 teachers are seen as the ones that need the least training, followed by teaching assistants, and NLA teachers are considered the group that requires the most training (as was previously found by Pérez Cañado, 2018b) (cf.

Graph 29). However, the fact that teachers need to upgrade their language skills has boosted their own search for improvement in this area: as one teacher stated during the interview, "*[el programa bilingüe] ha impulsado el reciclaje y la formación del profesorado en lengua extranjera*". Likewise, the educational authorities have also stepped up their teacher training programmes over the last few years, with promising results so far (Pérez Cañado, 2017, 2018b). It is not entirely impossible, therefore, that teacher training deficiencies will be drastically overcome over the next few years.

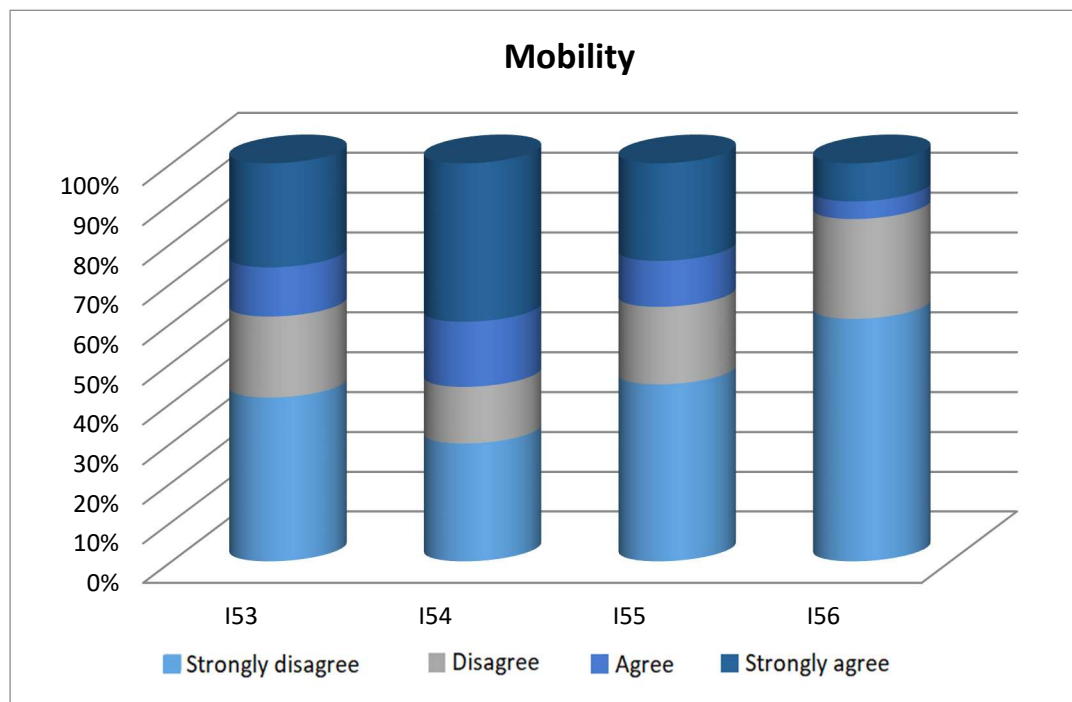
When asked about whether they motivate the students to learn English (items 41, 42, and 43) all types of teachers view themselves and others in a very positive light, considering that they effectively motivate the students (less than 7% disagreed with the statements put forward in these items for any type of teacher). Student perceptions were not as positive with regard to the degree to which they feel motivated by their content and language teachers: over 24% disagree that their content teacher motivates them, and over 25% do not feel motivated by their language teacher (cf. section 5.1.1). Teachers also evaluate the figure of the language assistant positively (as Tobin & Abello Contesse, 2013, point out), since they are considered to collaborate successfully with students (item 44) and with other teachers in the bilingual streams (item 45). Nonetheless, this perception also conflicts with that of students, who evaluated language teaching assistants the least positively out of all three types of teachers considered. Moreover, 24% of students expressed in their questionnaires that language teaching assistants did not succeed in teaching their lessons in an appropriate manner), and other studies (Sánchez Torres, 2014) suggest that the figure of the language assistant needs to be honed.

With regards to their own level of competence in the target language, the teacher cohort is extremely self-complacent, stating that they have adequate oral, written, and socio-cultural skills in the L2 (items 46, 47, and 48, with 96.6%, 97.9%, and 95.1% of agreement, respectively). These results mimic those from previous studies (Milla Lara & Casas Pedrosa, 2018). Nonetheless, when asked about their knowledge of the APPP and CLIL principles (items 49 and 50), they are less confident, supporting the idea that they consider themselves to be more prepared in the linguistic arena than in the theoretical one concerning the bilingual programme as a whole and in their region (in line with results in the previous studies of Pérez Cañado, 2016d, and Ruiz Gómez, 2015). Nevertheless, very few have actually participated in CLIL theoretical courses or Language Actualization Courses, as assessed in items 51 (42.2% of disagreement) and 52 (46.7% of disagreement), which is surprising, especially when teacher training has consistently been one of the major lacunae of CLIL programmes. Therefore, as Lancaster (2016: 161) stated, teachers are "visibly not taking advantage of these initiatives".



Graph 29. Teachers' perceptions concerning teacher training

Mobility is still the great pending matter for teachers, according to our outcomes (cf. Graph 30), which mirror those of previous studies, such as Lancaster (2015, 2016), Pérez Cañado (2017), or Milla Lara and Casas Pedrosa (2018). Most teachers (61.4%) have not participated in exchange programmes within the bilingual programme (item 53), and only 56% claim to have participated in language courses abroad (item 54). An even smaller percentage have taken part in methodological courses abroad (item 55, 36%), and a very small amount (14%) admit to having obtained study or research licenses (item 55). These results contradict, nonetheless, teachers' calls for further training, as was the case in the previous block analysed.

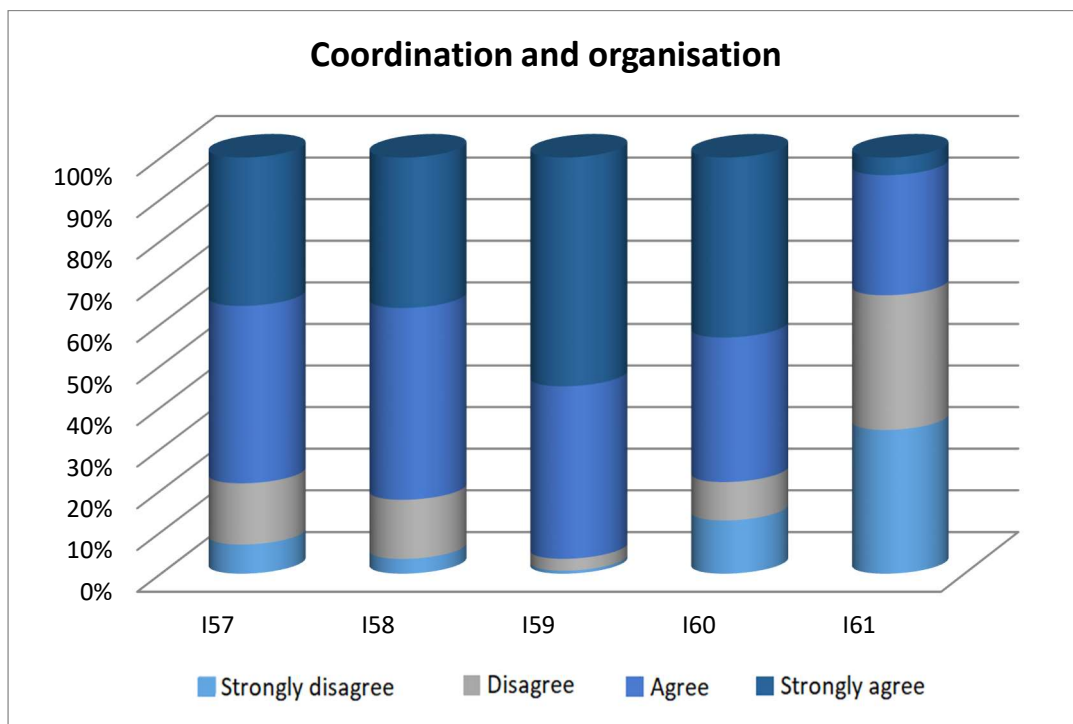


Graph 30. Teachers' perceptions concerning mobility

In contrast with the dim light that questionnaires throw on teacher mobility, *coordination and organization* obtain better results in the questionnaires in general (cf. Graph 31). Most teachers (78.4%) agree that being part of the bilingual programme makes up for the extra work that it entails (item 57), and that they collaborate in the development, adaptation, and implementation of the ILC (item 58, 82.3% of agreement). Moreover, 96.4% among them believe that the coordinator of the bilingual area fulfills all of his/her functions (item 59), and 78.1% proclaim that the school coordinator communicates with his/her counterparts in other schools and with the provincial coordinator (item 60). In the interviews, teachers state that there is an adequate level of communication and coordination with other teachers. As one teacher says, "*Yo ahora mismo sé lo que están haciendo mis compañeras, cómo van a evaluar,*

qué tipo de recursos están usando...". Milla Lara and Casas Pedrosa (2018) and Barrios Espinosa and Milla Lara (2018) also found positive views on the part of teachers concerning coordination and organisation within the bilingual programme.

However, the same positive assertions cannot be stated concerning the support received from the educational authorities (item 61): 66.9% of all respondents disagree that their support is adequate, and only 4.2% totally agree with the support received (as reported by Lancaster, 2016, and Pérez Cañado, 2016a).



Graph 31. Teachers' perceptions concerning coordination and organisation

To sum up, teachers hold the bilingual programme in high esteem. They believe in the positive effects that it has on their students' language skills and motivation, and they consider their lessons to display an array of methodologies, following recommendations from language

authorities. They work on their materials, which are, overall, considered appropriate, although they admit to the scarce use of certain resources (especially, ICT resources). They are satisfied with the evaluation methods used, and especially, with their own language and teaching skills and those of the other types of teachers.

However, they were less confident about their knowledge of the theoretical aspects of bilingualism, and make little use of the resources available to them (such as language and theoretical courses, and mobility experiences). Last but not least, they consider coordination and organisation among teachers to be appropriate, but hold a very negative viewpoint of the support provided to them by the educational authorities. All in all, they believe that the bilingual programme, in spite of the extra work that it entails, is worth the effort. As one teacher puts it, *"sí ha incrementado la carga de trabajo, porque [el programa bilingüe] nos exige una mayor coordinación con el resto del profesorado, organización de centro, planificación del proyecto educativo, actualización,... Todo eso significa una mayor carga de trabajo [...] Y ha merecido la pena 100%, desde luego. Yo llevo en este colegio desde el año 99 hasta ahora, que son muchos años como para poder ver la evolución del nivel del alumnado del centro, y la evolución, desde luego, ha sido impresionante³³".*

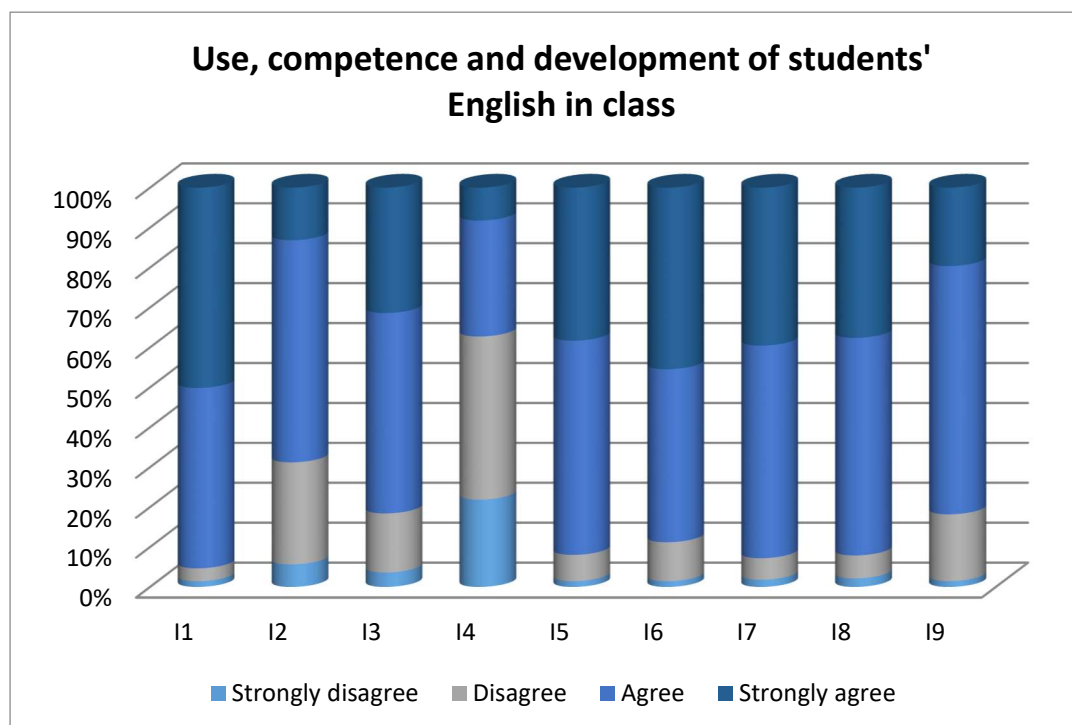
³³ In contrast with the data-gathering process of students' and teachers' perceptions, no interviews were conducted with parents. That is the reason why these data have not been complemented with ones that are more open.

5.1.3 Parents' perceptions

Parents' attitudes towards the bilingual programme also show a high degree of satisfaction with it. Concerning *students' use, competence and development of English in class*, this cohort absolutely agrees with the notion that their children's English has improved due to the bilingual programme (cf. Graph 32). In fact, half of all parents (50.18%) totally agree with item 1, and 45.16% partially agree with it. That is, 95.34% of the parents who completed the questionnaires believe that the English competence of their children has improved due to the bilingual programme. This finding tallies with previous studies that found that parental satisfaction concerning their children's improvement in English was high, such as Barrios Espinosa and Milla Lara (2018).

Concerning their children's improvement of the Spanish language (item 2), though, their opinions are not as positive, although a majority of them (68.80%) still believe that bilingualism has a positive impact on their Spanish. In addition, 81.59% of parents think that the students' knowledge of content has also improved because of the programme (item 3). Moreover, they believe (62.72%) that it is not more difficult for their children to learn content matter in a foreign language, as evinced by the results in item 4. With regards to the connection between English and Spanish, a vast majority of parents believe that it has improved (item 5, 91.97%). They also consider their children to be more confident about their language competence (item 6, 88.81%). Items 7 and 8 evaluated parents' opinions on their children's oral and written competences, and the results are also incredibly positive in this regard: 92.81% of parents believe that their children have an adequate competence in oral

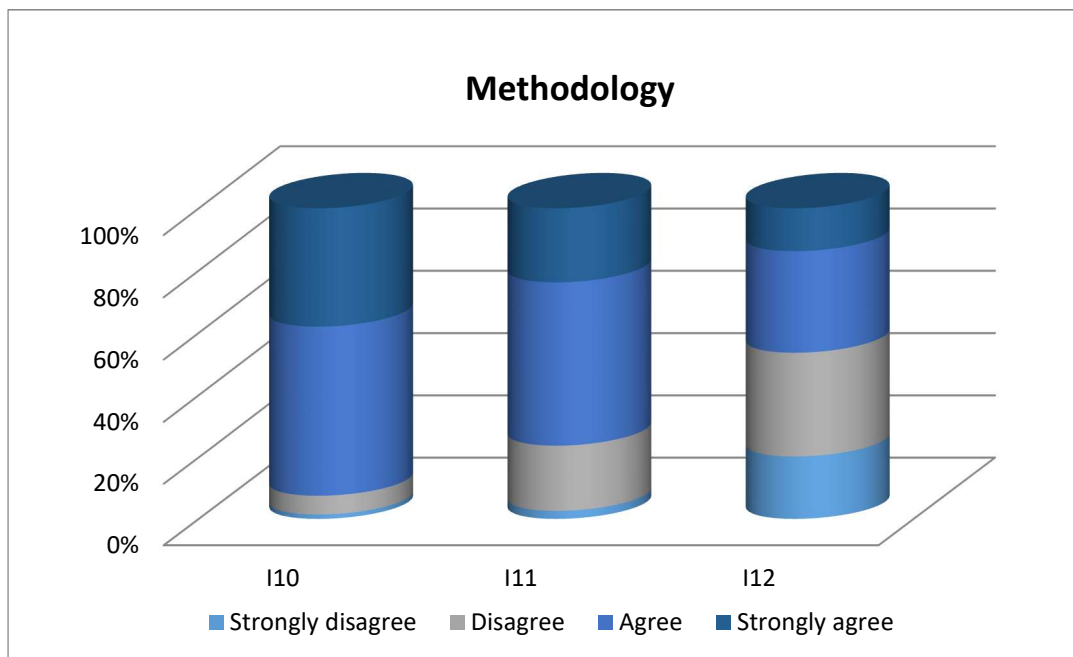
skills in English (item 7), and 92.11% also consider this is the case with their written competence (item 8). Their opinion on socio-cultural and intercultural competences (item 9) is also evaluated in a positive light, although with a slightly lower degree of agreement (81.82%).



Graph 32. Parents' perceptions concerning use, competence and development of students' English in class

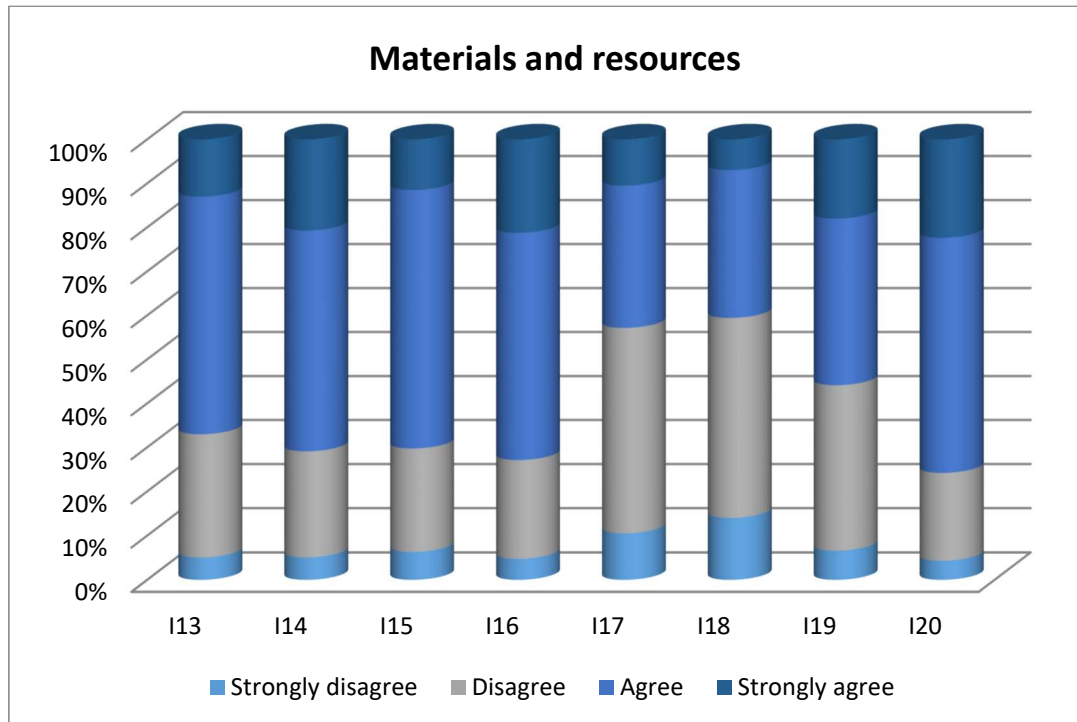
With regards to the *methodology* employed in class, there is slightly more heterogeneity in parents' opinions (cf. Graph 33). Most believe that their children learn a lot of vocabulary in the bilingual class (item 10, 92.47% agreement). They are slightly more cautious in agreeing with item 11 ("In the bilingual class, more innovative and student-centred methodologies are used"), although over two thirds of parents (76.21%) believe this to be true.

Nevertheless, most parents declare themselves unable to help their children with homework, as it transpires in item 12: 20.29% completely disagree and 33.33% partially disagree with the statement "I am able to help my child with their bilingual homework", which seems one of the main aspects to improve in the bilingual programme from the point of view of parents. These results tally with previous studies, and the fact that many parents feel that they cannot help their children with their bilingual homework is recurrent in the literature (Cabezas Cabello, 2010; Pérez Cañado, 2011; Gálvez Gómez, 2013; Lancaster, 2016; Ráez Padilla, 2018, Barrios Espinosa and Milla Lara, 2018).



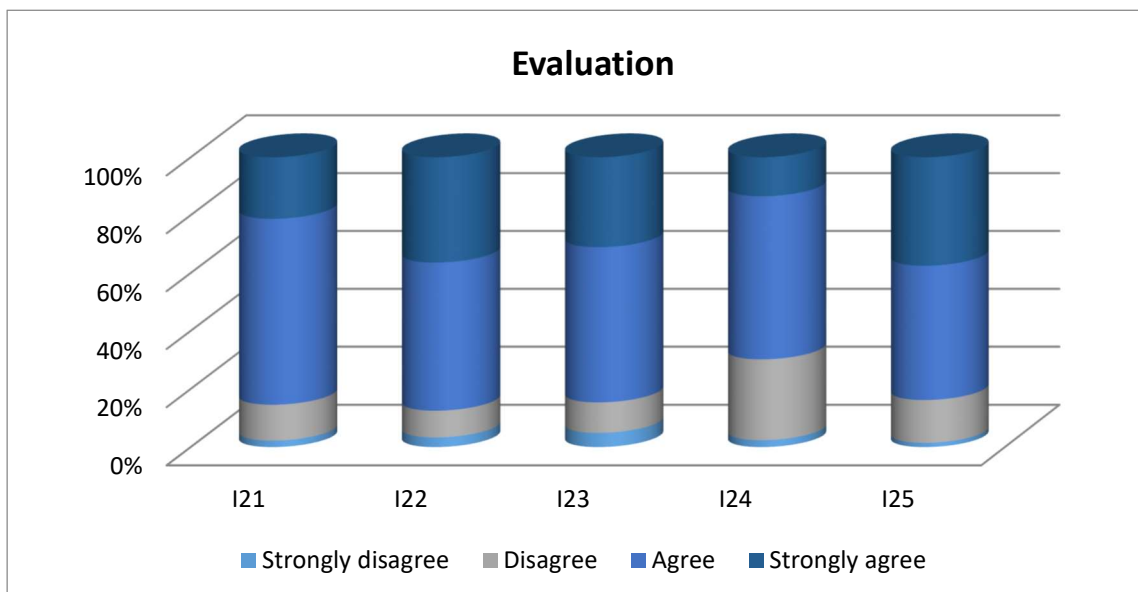
Graph 33. Parents' perceptions concerning methodology

With regard to *materials*, parents are, in general, satisfied with them, but are more neutral in their opinions as compared with other blocks (cf. Graph 34). They agree that bilingual materials are interesting and innovative (item 13, 67.03% agree), that they foster communication both inside and outside the class (item 14, 70.91% agree), that they are adapted to satisfy the needs of all students (item 15, 70.26% agree), and that ICTs are used in bilingual teaching (item 16, 72.9% agree). In contrast, 42.86% think that bilingual materials are more costly than non-bilingual ones (item 17), and only 40.59% consider that the materials include instructions in Spanish so that they can help their children at home (item 18). This, in fact, arises as parents' main concern about materials (as found in the abovementioned studies). In addition, 44.12% do not think that their children are exposed to English outside school (item 19), and 24.19% consider that their child does not have an adequate access to materials in English outside school, which coincides with the parents' lukewarm answers concerning extramural exposure found by Ráez Padilla (2018) and by Barrios Espinosa and Milla Lara (2018). These findings come as a surprising result, given the availability and variety of quality English materials for learners on the internet.



Graph 34. Parents' perceptions concerning materials and resources

In relation to *Evaluation* (cf. Graph 35), most parents (85.45%) believe that it is carried out adequately in bilingual programmes (item 21), and that exams are taken periodically in order to evaluate all contents taught in class (item 22, 87.50% agree). A great majority of parents (84.65%) also think that oral assessment forms part of overall evaluation (item 23). They are slightly more reluctant in agreeing with item 24, which asks them that the possible priority given to content over language in assessment (30.16% disagreed over item 24), in line with Ráez Padilla (2018), but they are confident overall that their child has improved his/her results while in the bilingual programme (83.82% partially or totally agree with item 25).



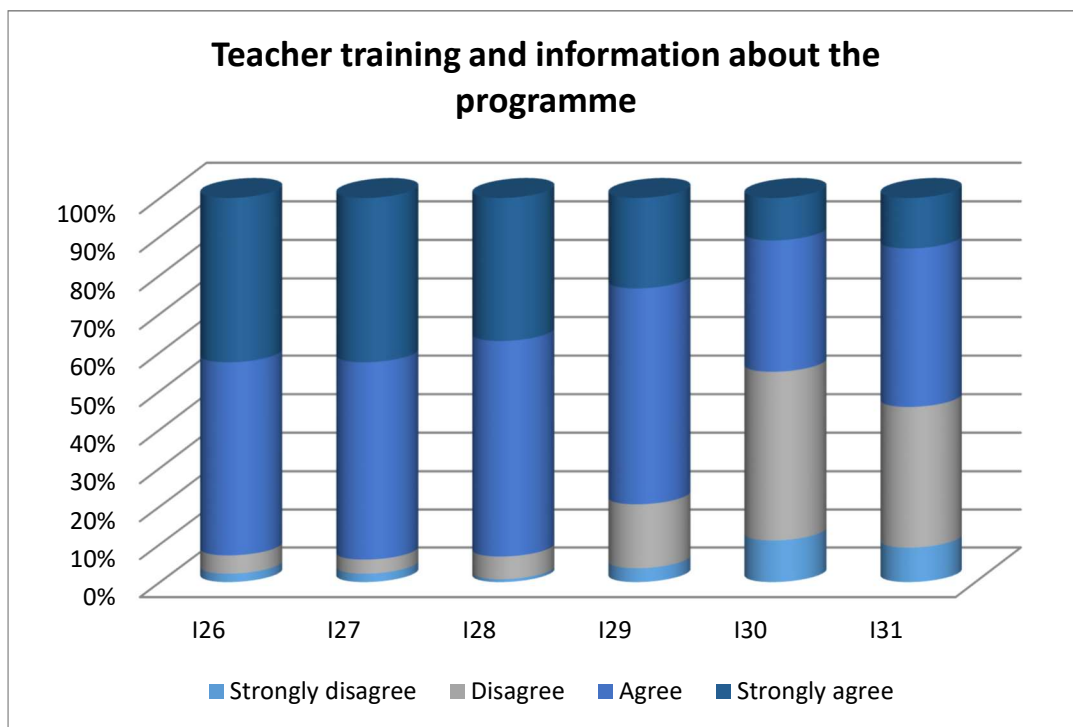
Graph 35. Parents' perceptions concerning evaluation

Concerning *teacher training and information about the programme*, interesting results arise. On the one hand, parents are very confident about their children's teachers and their competence (cf. Graph 36). They believe that they have adequate oral (item 26) and written (item 27) skills, as well as an adequate knowledge of socio-cultural aspects and an intercultural awareness in the foreign language (item 28). Disagreement does not exceed 8% for any of these items.

On the other hand, they are less confident about their own knowledge of the inner workings of the bilingual programme in their children's school (item 29: 20.51% admit to not knowing how it worked). Furthermore, most disagree about being well informed about the APPP: its objectives, actions, pillars and legislation (item 30: 54.95% disagree, out of which 10.99% strongly disagree with this item), and almost half of them (45.82%) consider that they are not

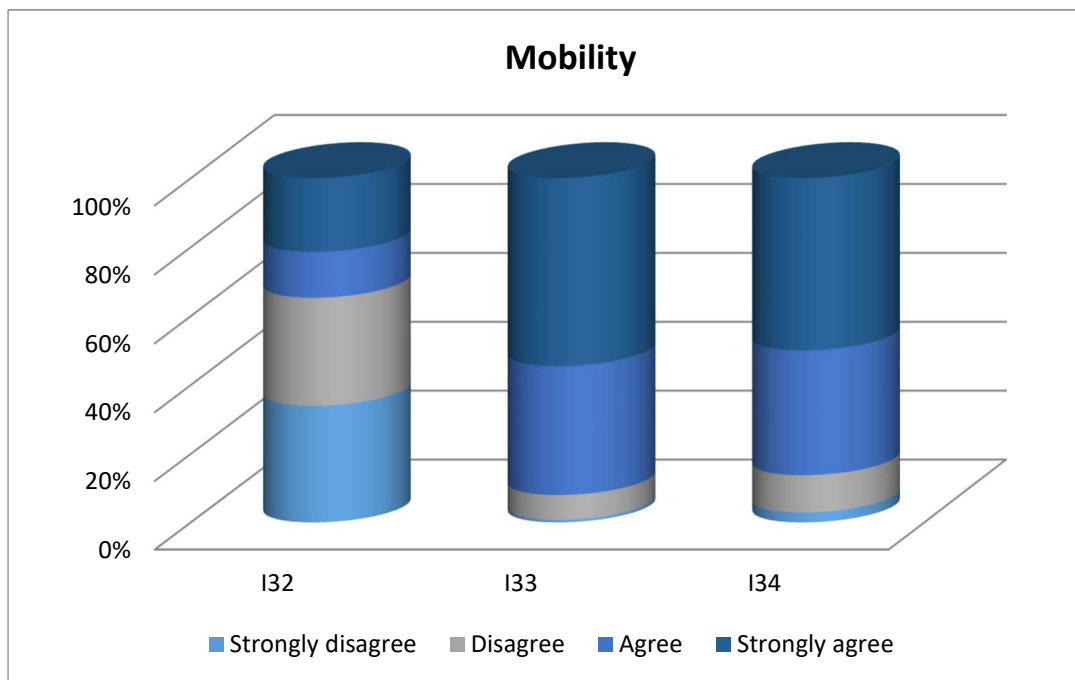
well informed about the basic principles behind Content and Language Integrated Learning in bilingual programmes (item 31).

It can be inferred, therefore, that parents trust their children’s teachers concerning the implementation of the programme, given that they mostly admit to not knowing its underlining principles (in line with Gálvez Gómez, 2013, and Ráez Padilla, 2018). This area, therefore, needs some improvement: the information provided to the parents should be stepped up. Parents should be made aware of the programme their children are following and what its main underlying principles are.



Graph 36. Parents’ perceptions concerning teacher training and information about the programme

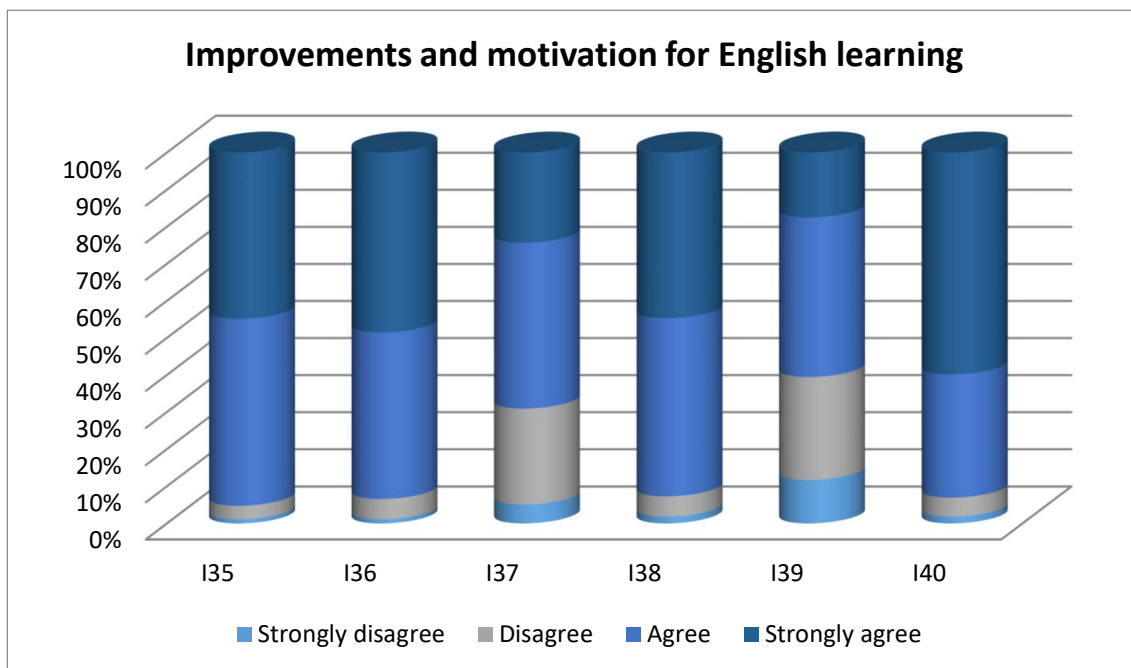
With regard to *student mobility* (cf. Graph 37), only 34.68% of parents report that their children have participated in any language exchange programmes (item 32), although a large majority believe that these programmes are beneficial to their child (92% agree with item 33). Moreover, 50% of parents strongly agree that they encourage their child to participate in such programmes, and a further 36.23% partially agree with it (item 34). These findings coincide with Raéz Padilla (2018), who found that most parents encouraged their offspring to participate in mobility programmes. However, the gap between the positive stakeholders' opinions concerning these programmes and the actual number of students who participate in them must be further reviewed in order to pinpoint the main factors why this occurs.



Graph 37. Parents' perceptions concerning mobility

As regards the last block, *Improvements and motivation for English learning* (cf. Graph 38), it is widely held by parents that being part of the bilingual programme compensates for the extra work that it implies (95.25% agree or strongly agree with item 35), that their child's English has improved overall thanks to the programme (93.43% agree –out of which 48.54% strongly agree– with item 36), and that the motivation levels have increased in their child (item 38, 92.73% of parents agree). Parents even report in 69.03% of the cases that their own motivation towards English learning has improved as a result of their children being part of the bilingual programme (item 37). 60.59% of them state that they communicate regularly with their children's teachers in order to monitor their evolution (item 39).

Last but not least, an overwhelming majority of parents appreciate the programme their children are in, in line with Gálvez Gómez (2013) and Ráez Padilla (2018): 59.85% absolutely agree with the statement on item 40 ("I value the bilingual programme positively"), and a further 33.21% partially agree with it, leaving only a 6.93% of parents who do not hold a positive view.



Graph 38. Parents' perceptions concerning improvements and motivation for English learning

To put it in a nutshell, parents' acknowledge the positive impact that the bilingual programme has on their children. They believe that it has improved their English competence, confidence, and motivation towards the language, they agree with the methodology and materials used (with the caveat that they do not feel able to help them at home due to the lack of instructions in Spanish in the materials), and they trust their teachers' training and competence in the foreign language. Most parents, in addition, agree with the evaluation methods used, think that all aspects are assessed, and believe that content is given priority over language. The main weakness seems to be their lack of knowledge about the inner workings of the bilingual programme in the region. Furthermore, parents encourage their children to engage in mobility programmes, and are even more motivated themselves to learn English as a result of their

children's participation in a bilingual programme, as studies by Gálvez Gómez (2013) and Ráez Padilla (2018) have already put forward. To sum up, they view the bilingual programme in a very positive light and believe that it is worth the extra work that it entails.

5.2 Within-cohort comparison

5.2.1 Intra-group differences: Student perceptions

Taking a deeper look into the intervening variables, we can discern that some of these have a clear impact on the global qualitative outcomes that are mentioned above. In order to compare each cohort's outcomes by taking into account these variables, the ttest was employed.

Within the student cohort, the greatest number of statistically significant differences have been found on three variables: *grade*, *number of subjects taught in English*, and *number of years studying English*. The other three variables (i.e., gender, area, and type of school) did not cause as many statistically significant differences when all the items were considered.

Concerning the first variable here discussed the *grade* the students are in, there are clear differences between those studying their sixth grade of primary education and those in their fourth grade of secondary education (cf. Table 4). With regards to their opinion on their own language competence, primary education students are far more complacent about their own skills and the positive effects that the bilingual programme has on them than students in secondary education (items 1, 2, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 12, and 14). Similar results have been

reported in other studies (Oxbrow, 2018), where primary students considered to a significantly higher degree than their secondary education peers that their development of key competences and content knowledge was positive.

	Grade	Mean	Standard deviation	Cohen's d	p value
Item 1	6th Primary Education	3.59	0.649	0.981	< 0.001
	4th Secondary Education	2.99	0.599		
Item 2	6th Primary Education	3.65	0.577	0.398	< 0.001
	4th Secondary Education	3.37	0.739		
Item 4	6th Primary Education	2.95	1.033	0.627	< 0.001
	4th Secondary Education	2.40	0.823		
Item 5	6th Primary Education	3.45	0.709	0.692	< 0.001
	4th Secondary Education	2.92	0.783		
Item 6	6th Primary Education	3.47	0.647	0.474	< 0.001
	4th Secondary Education	3.15	0.683		
Item 7	6th Primary Education	3.48	0.641	0.462	< 0.001
	4th Secondary Education	3.16	0.708		
Item 8	6th Primary Education	3.02	0.931	0.282	0.001
	4th Secondary Education	2.76	0.918		
Item 9	6th Primary Education	3.36	0.695	0.679	< 0.001

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	4th Secondary Education	2.82	0.824		
Item 10	6th Primary Education	3.57	0.636	0.635	< 0.001
	4th Secondary Education	3.13	0.710		
Item 11	6th Primary Education	2.54	1.037	-0.111	0.221
	4th Secondary Education	2.64	0.858		
Item 12	6th Primary Education	3.29	0.669	0.195	0.019
	4th Secondary Education	3.15	0.734		
Item 13	6th Primary Education	3.33	0.721	0.159	0.051
	4th Secondary Education	3.22	0.682		
Item 14	6th Primary Education	3.36	0.828	0.738	< 0.001
	4th Secondary Education	2.80	0.735		

Table 4. Statistically significant differences within the student cohort for use, competence and development of students' English in class in terms of grade.

They are also more satisfied with the methodology and the materials used (cf. Table 5), with the exception of item 20, in which secondary education students valued more than their primary education counterparts the adaptation of authentic materials in the bilingual classroom. In addition, they are happier with the evaluation methods (items 30, 32, and 33), and consider their teachers' competence is higher than secondary education students for all

items (cf. Table 6). In turn, secondary education students have a more active participation in mobility programmes (items 44, 45, and 46).

	Grade	Mean	Standard Deviation	Cohen's d	p value
Item 15	6th Primary Education	3.82	0.422	0.830	< 0.001
	4th Secondary Education	3.36	0.590		
Item 16	6th Primary Education	3.76	0.557	0.861	< 0.001
	4th Secondary Education	3.15	0.750		
Item 17	6th Primary Education	3.61	0.615	0.372	< 0.001
	4th Secondary Education	3.36	0.688		
Item 18	6th Primary Education	3.59	0.719	0.668	< 0.001
	4th Secondary Education	3.06	0.815		

Table 5. Statistically significant differences within the student cohort for methodology in terms of grade.

	Grade	Mean	Standard Deviation	Cohen's d	p value
Item 34	6th Primary Education	3.51	0.724	0.467	< 0.001
	4th Secondary Education	3.18	0.702		
Item 35	6th Primary Education	3.57	0.659	0.775	< 0.001
	4th Secondary Education	3.05	0.675		

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Item 36	6th Primary Education	3.29	1.136	0.336	0.003
	4th Secondary Education	2.97	0.905		
Item 37	6th Primary Education	3.16	0.928	0.301	0.001
	4th Secondary Education	2.91	0.797		
Item 38	6th Primary Education	3.24	0.813	0.480	< 0.001
	4th Secondary Education	2.87	0.758		
Item 39	6th Primary Education	3.10	1.100	0.340	0.001
	4th Secondary Education	2.76	0.975		
Item 40	6th Primary Education	3.30	1.111	0.382	0.001
	4th Secondary Education	2.93	0.934		
Item 41	6th Primary Education	3.73	0.598	0.568	< 0.001
	4th Secondary Education	3.34	0.712		
Item 42	6th Primary Education	3.80	0.518	0.621	< 0.001
	4th Secondary Education	3.40	0.679		
Item 43	6th Primary Education	3.65	0.670	0.592	< 0.001
	4th Secondary Education	3.25	0.678		

Table 6. Statistically significant differences within the student cohort for use, competence and development of teachers' English in class in terms of grade.

The *number of subjects that students study in English* is another source of statistically significant differences between two subgroups: students who are taught more than three subjects in the target language have significantly more positive views about their competence in English and in Spanish (items 2 and 4), as well as how languages work (items 6 and 7), and evince a greater interest in the bilingual lesson (item 10) than those who are taught three or fewer subjects in the target language (cf. Table 7). However, when both groups were asked whether they would like more English to be used in class, the group that was exposed to a greater number of subjects in English expressed less enthusiasm with that option (item 11).

	Number of subjects in English	Mean	Standard Deviation	Cohen's d	p value
Item 1	<= 3 subjects	3.06	0.657	-0.716	< 0.001
	> 3 subjects	3.52	0.561		
Item 2	<= 3 subjects	3.37	0.737	-0.603	< 0.001
	> 3 subjects	3.79	0.427		
Item 4	<= 3 subjects	2.43	0.875	-0.705	< 0.001
	> 3 subjects	3.05	0.904		
Item 5	<= 3 subjects	2.98	0.805	-0.510	< 0.001
	> 3 subjects	3.38	0.665		
Item 6	<= 3 subjects	3.16	0.687	-0.579	< 0.001
	> 3 subjects	3.55	0.600		
Item 7	<= 3 subjects	3.18	0.714	-0.520	< 0.001
	> 3 subjects	3.54	0.560		
Item 8	<= 3 subjects	2.79	0.923	-0.238	0.015
	> 3 subjects	3.01	0.921		
Item 9	<= 3 subjects	2.87	0.830	-0.633	< 0.001

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	> 3 subjects	3.38	0.664		
Item 10	<= 3 subjects	3.19	0.722	-0.394	< 0.001
	> 3 subjects	3.47	0.651		
Item 11	<= 3 subjects	2.66	0.881	0.323	0.001
	> 3 subjects	2.37	0.977		
Item 12	<= 3 subjects	3.15	0.740	-0.293	0.002
	> 3 subjects	3.36	0.585		
Item 13	<= 3 subjects	3.21	0.698	-0.261	0.007
	> 3 subjects	3.39	0.644		
Item 14	<= 3 subjects	2.85	0.787	-0.592	< 0.001
	> 3 subjects	3.31	0.727		

Table 7. Statistically significant differences within the student cohort for use, competence and development of students' English in class in terms of number of subjects.

Concerning methodology, those who had more CLIL lessons evaluated the programme more positively (all items), as is the case of materials and resources (cf. Table 8). It therefore seems that those who are more immersed in the bilingual programme view it in a more positive light. The only statistically significant difference concerning materials and resources in which those less exposed to CLIL evaluated it more positively is item 20, concerning the adaptation of authentic materials to the CLIL class: the group with fewer subjects in CLIL considered, generally, that authentic materials were more adapted to the CLIL lessons.

	Number of subjects in English	Mean	Standard Deviation	Cohen's d	p value
Item 19	<= 3 subjects	2.63	0.891	-0.228	0.039

	> 3 subjects	2.84	1.074		
Item 20	<= 3 subjects	2.67	0.809	0.322	0.004
	> 3 subjects	2.40	0.970		
Item 21	<= 3 subjects	2.64	0.808	-0.371	< 0.001
	> 3 subjects	2.94	0.808		
Item 22	<= 3 subjects	3.21	0.737	-0.240	0.024
	> 3 subjects	3.39	0.823		
Item 23	<= 3 subjects	2.95	0.746	-0.226	0.018
	> 3 subjects	3.12	0.781		
Item 24	<= 3 subjects	2.83	0.765	-0.824	< 0.001
	> 3 subjects	3.44	0.598		
Item 25	<= 3 subjects	3.12	0.880	-0.526	< 0.001
	> 3 subjects	3.57	0.716		
Item 26	<= 3 subjects	3.04	0.915	-0.547	< 0.001
	> 3 subjects	3.53	0.791		
Item 27	<= 3 subjects	2.73	1.007	-0.694	< 0.001
	> 3 subjects	3.40	0.713		
Item 28	<= 3 subjects	2.93	1.110	-0.350	< 0.001
	> 3 subjects	3.31	0.942		
Item 29	<= 3 subjects	2.07	1.015	-0.887	< 0.001
	> 3 subjects	2.99	1.147		

Table 8. Statistically significant differences within the student cohort for materials and resources in terms of number of subjects.

Regarding evaluation, the group that had more hours of CLIL also regarded it more positively, except for item 31: they considered to a lesser extent that contents were given priority over linguistic accuracy than those who received fewer hours of CLIL instruction (cf. Table 9). The

group with more subjects in CLIL also assessed their teachers more positively (items 34, 35, 38, 41, 42, and 43). However, surprisingly, they participated less in mobility programmes (items 44 and 45).

Number of subjects in English		Mean	Standard Deviation	Cohen's d	p value
Item 44	<= 3 subjects	2.15	1.285	0.719	< 0.001
	> 3 subjects	1.28	0.707		
Item 45	<= 3 subjects	2.85	1.030	0.617	< 0.001
	> 3 subjects	2.20	1.164		
Item 46	<= 3 subjects	2.98	1.095	0.099	0.309
	> 3 subjects	2.87	1.188		

Table 9. Statistically significant differences within the student cohort for mobility in terms of number of subjects.

Lastly, those who had more subjects in the target language were also significantly more motivated about the programme in general, considered that they had learnt more English, and believed that being part of CLIL was worth the extra work that it entails (item 47), as shown in Table 10 below.

Number of subjects in English		Mean	Standard Deviation	Cohen's d	p value
Item 47	<= 3 subjects	3.20	0.719	-0.317	0.001
	> 3 subjects	3.42	0.541		
Item 48	<= 3 subjects	3.32	0.720	-0.493	< 0.001
	> 3 subjects	3.66	0.508		

Item 49	<= 3 subjects	3.12	0.852	-0.422	< 0.001
	> 3 subjects	3.47	0.697		
Item 50	<= 3 subjects	3.19	0.832	-0.309	0.002
	> 3 subjects	3.44	0.672		

Table 10. Statistically significant differences within the student cohort for improvements and motivation for English learning in terms of number of subjects.

The last variable that gives rise to a high number of statistically significant differences for the student cohort, the *number of years that the students have been studying English*, has a similar effect as the above-discussed variable (the number of subjects students are taught in the target language), as displayed in Table 11. That is to say, the longer the students have studied English, the better opinions they have concerning the programme, as was the case with the previous variable (and tallying with previous studies, such as Oxbrow, 2018). They even coincide in those items in which their counterpart with fewer hours of English instruction rated the programme more positively: item 11 (that is, they would not like more English in class), and item 44 (that is, those who have studied English for a shorter period participate more in mobility programmes). To put it in other words, the more involved they have been with the programme, the better their opinion towards it, which is an effect that has already been observed in previous research (Pérez Cañado, 2018c).

Years studying English		Mean	Standard deviation	Cohen's d	p value
Item 1	<= 4	2.99	0.583	-0.510	< 0.001
	> 4	3.32	0.719		

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Item 2	<= 4	3.33	0.739	-0.342	< 0.001
	> 4	3.57	0.652		
Item 4	<= 4	2.40	0.846	-0.313	< 0.001
	> 4	2.68	0.955		
Item 5	<= 4	2.92	0.790	-0.357	< 0.001
	> 4	3.20	0.779		
Item 6	<= 4	3.16	0.683	-0.219	0.002
	> 4	3.31	0.688		
Item 7	<= 4	3.18	0.718	-0.186	0.011
	> 4	3.31	0.678		
Item 8	<= 4	2.74	0.920	-0.217	0.002
	> 4	2.94	0.920		
Item 9	<= 4	2.79	0.842	-0.444	< 0.001
	> 4	3.15	0.771		
Item 10	<= 4	3.15	0.729	-0.280	< 0.001
	> 4	3.35	0.694		
Item 11	<= 4	2.68	0.862	0.155	0.036
	> 4	2.54	0.948		
Item 12	<= 4	3.13	0.727	-0.153	0.034
	> 4	3.24	0.714		
Item 13	<= 4	3.20	0.677	-0.145	0.050
	> 4	3.30	0.707		
Item 14	<= 4	2.81	0.754	-0.357	< 0.001
	> 4	3.09	0.821		

Table 11. Statistically significant differences within the student cohort for use, competence and development of students' English in class in terms of number of years studying English.

5.2.2 Intra-group differences: Teachers' perceptions

Turning now to teachers, the variables that give rise to a greater number of statistically significant differences within the cohort are their *level of English*, followed by *type of teacher*, and whether or not they are a *bilingual coordinator*.

Teachers with a higher *level of competence in the target language* (that is, those who have a C1 or C2) hold the bilingual programme in a higher regard, which is a trend that has already been pointed out in the literature (Milla Lara and Casas Pedrosa, 2018), as can be seen in Table 12. That is, they consider their students' English level to have improved more due to taking part in bilingual lessons, together with their inner understanding of the connections between those two languages (items 2, 6, and 7). They also believe to a higher degree than teachers with a lower English level that their students are motivated, have self-confidence and interest in the class (items 8, 9, and 10), and they consider that both their students' oral and written skills are adequate (items 13 and 14).

	English level	Mean	Standard deviation	Cohen's d	p value
Item 1	A1-A2-B1-B2	3.29	0.592	-0.288	0.095
	C1-C2	3.46	0.588		
Item 2	A1-A2-B1-B2	3.53	0.528	-0.546	0.001
	C1-C2	3.79	0.410		
Item 4	A1-A2-B1-B2	2.93	0.798	-0.157	0.392
	C1-C2	3.06	0.864		
Item 5	A1-A2-B1-B2	3.01	0.741	-0.223	0.198
	C1-C2	3.18	0.783		
Item 6	A1-A2-B1-B2	3.24	0.615	-0.447	0.011

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	C1-C2	3.51	0.590		
Item 7	A1-A2-B1-B2	3.28	0.673	-0.364	0.047
	C1-C2	3.51	0.573		
Item 8	A1-A2-B1-B2	3.19	0.705	-0.466	0.008
	C1-C2	3.50	0.617		
Item 9	A1-A2-B1-B2	3.15	0.730	-0.671	< 0.001
	C1-C2	3.59	0.555		
Item 10	A1-A2-B1-B2	3.20	0.682	-0.414	0.017
	C1-C2	3.46	0.561		
Item 11	A1-A2-B1-B2	2.60	0.705	-0.843	< 0.001
	C1-C2	3.24	0.817		
Item 12	A1-A2-B1-B2	2.81	0.672	-0.738	< 0.001
	C1-C2	3.31	0.683		
Item 13	A1-A2-B1-B2	2.77	0.698	-0.571	0.001
	C1-C2	3.17	0.703		
Item 14	A1-A2-B1-B2	2.86	0.689	-0.194	0.274
	C1-C2	3.00	0.756		

Table 12. Statistically significant differences within the teacher cohort for use, competence and development of students' English in class in terms of level of English.

Teachers with a C1 or C2 in English also consider to a greater extent that Project-Based Learning and Cooperative Learning are used in class (items 16 and 18), that the lexical dimension is given priority (item 17), and that the recommendations from the European Language Portfolio are taken into account (item 21), as Table 13 shows. However, there were no statistically significant differences between teachers with various levels of competence in the L2 with regards to the use of Task-Based Learning (item 15), on emphasis being placed on

the connection between the L1 and the L2 (item 19), or on whether or not the recommendations put forward by the CEFRL are followed (item 20).

	English level	Mean	Standard deviation	Cohen's d	p value
Item 15	A1-A2-B1-B2	3.18	0.668	0.124	0.454
	C1-C2	3.09	0.785		
Item 16	A1-A2-B1-B2	2.92	0.736	-0.523	0.002
	C1-C2	3.28	0.629		
Item 17	A1-A2-B1-B2	2.61	0.643	-0.465	0.006
	C1-C2	2.92	0.692		
Item 18	A1-A2-B1-B2	3.04	0.696	-0.500	0.004
	C1-C2	3.36	0.572		
Item 19	A1-A2-B1-B2	2.95	0.743	0.124	0.509
	C1-C2	2.84	1.035		
Item 20	A1-A2-B1-B2	3.07	0.617	-0.089	0.608
	C1-C2	3.13	0.741		
Item 21	A1-A2-B1-B2	2.90	0.679	-0.411	0.023
	C1-C2	3.19	0.736		

Table 13. Statistically significant differences within the teacher cohort for methodology in terms of level of English.

As shown in Table 14, regarding materials and resources, more proficient teachers are more inclined to consider that the bilingual materials are interesting and innovative (item 24) and that they follow communicative principles (item 26). Moreover, they are also more likely to use the Interactive Whiteboard (item 31) as well as computer-mediated communication (such

as e-Twinning) in their lessons. (item 32). Concerning evaluation, more proficient teachers affirm that they give more priority to contents over linguistic competence, and that they use oral assessment to a higher degree (items 35 and 36).

	English level	Mean	Standard deviation	Cohen's d	p value
Item 34	A1-A2-B1-B2	3.22	0.624	0.112	0.490
	C1-C2	3.14	0.808		
Item 35	A1-A2-B1-B2	3.25	0.733	0.571	0.002
	C1-C2	2.73	1.089		
Item 36	A1-A2-B1-B2	3.04	0.886	-0.615	< 0.001
	C1-C2	3.52	0.638		
Item 37	A1-A2-B1-B2	3.33	0.502	-0.202	0.250
	C1-C2	3.44	0.588		

Table 14. Statistically significant differences within the teacher cohort for evaluation in terms of level of English.

Turning now to teacher training (cf. Table 15), teachers who have a C1 or C2 do not consider as much as those who have a lower level that either L2 or NLA teachers need more training (items 38 and 39). Moreover, they believe (more than their less proficient colleagues) that language assistants collaborate to a satisfactory level with other teachers in the bilingual section (item 45), in line with Tobin and Abello Contesse's (2013) findings. In addition, as it is to be expected, these teachers report that their language competence and their knowledge

of socio-cultural aspects in the L2 are higher than those who have a B2 or lower (items 46, 47, and 48), in spite of having completed fewer Language Actualization Courses (item 52).

More proficient teachers are also more convinced that the bilingual programme is worth the extra effort that it entails (item 57), and are more prone to collaborate on the Language Integrated Curriculum of their centres (item 58). Nevertheless, they consider to a lesser extent that the school coordinator communicates with the provincial coordinator (item 60).

Differences among teachers in terms of level of competence in the L2 have also yielded statistically significant results in previous studies (Pérez Cañado, 2016d, 2017). In these studies, teachers with a higher level of competence in the FL considered to a greater degree than their less proficient peers that they mastered linguistic and intercultural aspects of the target language and that they were more aware of the pivotal European documents for language teaching (such as the CEFR or the ELP). They also knew more about evaluation techniques and material development than the less proficient teachers did.

	English level	Mean	Standard deviation	Cohen's d	p value
Item 57	A1-A2-B1-B2	2.91	0.894	-0.433	0.011
	C1-C2	3.28	0.806		
Item 58	A1-A2-B1-B2	3.03	0.758	-0.364	0.037
	C1-C2	3.31	0.781		
Item 59	A1-A2-B1-B2	3.45	0.555	-0.308	0.085
	C1-C2	3.62	0.550		
Item 60	A1-A2-B1-B2	3.41	0.709	0.660	< 0.001
	C1-C2	2.78	1.166		

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Item 61	A1-A2-B1-B2	1.92	0.783	-0.262	0.121
	C1-C2	2.15	0.972		

Table 15. Statistically significant differences within the teacher cohort for coordination and organisation in terms of level of English.

As far as the *type of teacher* is concerned, this variable affects certain results in the following ways (cf. Table 16): first of all, FL teachers consider to a higher degree that their students' English has improved (item 2), and that they have achieved higher levels of participation in class, interest in the bilingual class, and self-confidence (items 8, 9, and 10). They also rate their students' instrumental competences in the FL higher than NLA teachers (items 12 and 13), in line with previous findings (Pérez Cañado, 2017; Milla Lara & Casas Pedrosa, 2018).

	Type of teacher	Mean	Standard deviation	Cohen's d	p value
Item 1	FL teachers	3.37	0.579	-0.050	0.795
	NLA teachers	3.40	0.610		
Item 2	FL teachers	3.75	0.439	0.349	0.035
	NLA teachers	3.58	0.522		
Item 4	FL teachers	3.10	0.763	0.239	0.205
	NLA teachers	2.90	0.885		
Item 5	FL teachers	3.13	0.695	0.092	0.608
	NLA teachers	3.06	0.811		
Item 6	FL teachers	3.40	0.639	0.098	0.528
	NLA teachers	3.34	0.594		

Item 7	FL teachers	3.51	0.543	0.333	0.060
	NLA teachers	3.30	0.679		
Item 8	FL teachers	3.45	0.675	0.351	0.039
	NLA teachers	3.21	0.691		
Item 9	FL teachers	3.63	0.520	0.801	< 0.001
	NLA teachers	3.11	0.734		
Item 10	FL teachers	3.48	0.536	0.456	0.010
	NLA teachers	3.19	0.704		
Item 11	FL teachers	3.26	0.745	0.856	< 0.001
	NLA teachers	2.60	0.789		
Item 12	FL teachers	3.42	0.560	1.062	< 0.001
	NLA teachers	2.73	0.711		
Item 13	FL teachers	3.30	0.587	0.924	< 0.001
	NLA teachers	2.68	0.730		
Item 14	FL teachers	3.05	0.693	0.280	0.103
	NLA teachers	2.85	0.731		

Table 16. Statistically significant differences within the teacher cohort for students' use, competence and development of English in class in terms of type of teacher.

NLA teachers, in turn, use TBL more in class, as evinced by item 15. FL teachers, in addition, collaborate to a higher degree in preparing the bilingual materials (item 25), which, moreover, are considered more communicative (item 26), as Table 17 shows. FL teachers also use the Interactive Whiteboard more than NLA teachers (item 31).

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	Type of teacher	Mean	Standard deviation	Cohen's d	p value
Item 22	FL teachers	3.39	0.686	0.327	0.061
	NLA teachers	3.15	0.769		
Item 23	FL teachers	3.38	0.633	< 0.001	0.991
	NLA teachers	3.38	0.584		
Item 24	FL teachers	3.35	0.600	0.313	0.063
	NLA teachers	3.13	0.774		
Item 25	FL teachers	3.61	0.523	0.476	0.004
	NLA teachers	3.30	0.736		
Item 26	FL teachers	3.63	0.549	0.457	0.009
	NLA teachers	3.36	0.624		
Item 27	FL teachers	2.95	0.711	0.057	0.728
	NLA teachers	2.91	0.687		
Item 28	FL teachers	3.38	0.728	0.137	0.417
	NLA teachers	3.27	0.852		
Item 29	FL teachers	3.30	0.770	-0.052	0.729
	NLA teachers	3.34	0.766		
Item 30	FL teachers	2.91	0.886	0.011	0.962
	NLA teachers	2.90	0.955		
Item 31	FL teachers	3.42	0.832	0.381	0.021
	NLA teachers	3.09	0.892		
Item 32	FL teachers	2.48	0.965	0.170	0.306
	NLA teachers	2.32	0.927		
Item 33	FL teachers	2.20	0.966	-0.084	0.692
	NLA teachers	2.28	0.953		

Table 17. Statistically significant differences within the teacher cohort for materials and resources in terms of type of teacher.

With regards to evaluation (cf. Table 18), FL teachers report using more diversified, formative, summative and holistic evaluation than NLA teachers (item 37), as well as including an oral component in the assessment (item 36). In addition, as it is expected due to the nature of their subject, they are more likely to give less priority to contents than linguistic competence (item 35).

	Type of teacher	Mean	Standard deviation	Cohen's d	p value
Item 34	FL teachers	3.19	0.759	< 0.001	0.980
	NLA teachers	3.19	0.677		
Item 35	FL teachers	2.51	0.994	-1.046	< 0.001
	NLA teachers	3.39	0.703		
Item 36	FL teachers	3.67	0.473	1.009	< 0.001
	NLA teachers	2.94	0.871		
Item 37	FL teachers	3.50	0.504	0.404	0.019
	NLA teachers	3.27	0.617		

Table 18. Statistically significant differences within the teacher cohort for evaluation in terms of type of teacher.

There are some discrepancies between FL and NLA teachers with regard to teacher training (cf. Table 19). NLA teachers consider that they need more training than FL teachers think (item 39), which coincides with Pérez Cañado's (2017) findings. FL teachers are also more self-complacent concerning how motivating their lessons (and the participation of the language

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assistant) are (items 41 and 43). They also believe that the language assistants are more collaborative with other bilingual teachers than NLA (item 45), and hold their own competences in the FL in higher regard (items 46, 47, and 48). Nevertheless, NLA teachers have completed more Language Actualization Courses (item 52).

	Type of teacher	Mean	Standard deviation	Cohen's d	p value
Item 38	FL teachers	2.83	0.846	-0.089	0.602
	NLA teachers	2.91	0.941		
Item 39	FL teachers	2.95	0.884	-0.524	0.003
	NLA teachers	3.39	0.803		
Item 40	FL teachers	3.00	0.837	-0.140	0.431
	NLA teachers	3.12	0.868		
Item 41	FL teachers	3.68	0.502	0.443	0.009
	NLA teachers	3.44	0.572		
Item 42	FL teachers	3.53	0.564	0.272	0.111
	NLA teachers	3.37	0.605		
Item 43	FL teachers	3.62	0.610	0.507	0.004
	NLA teachers	3.30	0.648		
Item 44	FL teachers	3.52	0.622	0.250	0.137
	NLA teachers	3.35	0.721		
Item 45	FL teachers	3.50	0.567	0.350	0.033
	NLA teachers	3.26	0.763		
Item 46	FL teachers	3.66	0.510	0.657	< 0.001
	NLA teachers	3.29	0.602		
Item 47	FL teachers	3.74	0.441	0.769	< 0.001
	NLA teachers	3.33	0.596		
Item 48	FL teachers	3.55	0.563	0.416	0.015

	NLA teachers	3.31	0.588		
Item 49	FL teachers	3.15	0.703	0.277	0.105
	NLA teachers	2.94	0.800		
Item 50	FL teachers	3.31	0.692	0.271	0.115
	NLA teachers	3.12	0.707		
Item 51	FL teachers	2.76	1.019	0.048	0.805
	NLA teachers	2.71	1.050		
Item 52	FL teachers	2.30	1.183	-0.461	0.009
	NLA teachers	2.85	1.201		

Table 19. Statistically significant differences within the teacher cohort for teacher training in terms of type of teacher.

Type of teacher (FL or NLA) yields similar results for many items as those we have seen when discussing the previous variable (*level of English*), as can be seen in Table 20 below. FL teachers are also more likely to think that the bilingual programme is worth it despite the effort (item 57), as was the case with the most proficient teachers in the FL. They also participate more in the elaboration of the Language Integrated Curriculum (item 58), and believe to a lesser degree that the school bilingual coordinator is in contact with the provincial coordinator (item 60).

	Type of teacher	Mean	Standard deviation	Cohen's d	p value
Item 57	FL teachers	3.32	0.742	0.508	0.003
	NLA teachers	2.89	0.920		
Item 58	FL teachers	3.36	0.731	0.477	0.005
	NLA teachers	2.99	0.809		
Item 59	FL teachers	3.62	0.582	0.323	0.056

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	NLA teachers	3.43	0.594		
Item 60	FL teachers	2.85	1.157	-0.418	0.021
	NLA teachers	3.27	0.863		
Item 61	FL teachers	2.15	0.833	0.256	0.146
	NLA teachers	1.92	0.944		

Table 20. Statistically significant differences within the teacher cohort for coordination and organisation in terms of type of teacher.

Being or not a bilingual *coordinator* in the centre also affects the outcomes giving rise to a number of statistically significant differences, as is confirmed by the analysis of the opinions of the teacher cohort. Following a trend established by the previously mentioned variables for this cohort (*level of English* and *type of teacher*), coordinators, in general, view the bilingual programme in a more positive light than non-coordinators (cf. Table 21). They believe that key competences are worked in class (item 1), that students' FL levels increase due to CLIL (item 2), that they have achieved greater comprehension of how languages work as well as the connection between English and Spanish (items 6 and 7), and that the students have increased their self-confidence, participation, and interest levels in the bilingual class (items 8, 9, and 10). They also think more than their non-coordinator colleagues that students would like English to be used more in the bilingual class (item 11), and believe that their students have an adequate knowledge of socio-cultural aspects as well as an intercultural awareness to a greater degree than non-coordinators (item 14).

Bilingual coordinator		Mean	Standard deviation	Cohen's d	p value
Item 15	No	3.07	0.741	-0.577	0.018
	Yes	3.48	0.512		
Item 16	No	3.05	0.724	-0.285	0.252
	Yes	3.25	0.550		
Item 17	No	2.74	0.702	-0.450	0.050
	Yes	3.05	0.605		
Item 18	No	3.14	0.670	-0.586	0.013
	Yes	3.52	0.512		
Item 19	No	2.85	0.880	-0.387	0.110
	Yes	3.19	0.873		
Item 20	No	3.07	0.654	-0.541	0.034
	Yes	3.42	0.607		
Item 21	No	3.04	0.733	0.053	0.842
	Yes	3.00	0.840		

Table 21. Statistically significant differences within the teacher cohort for methodology in terms of whether or not they are bilingual coordinators.

Coordinators also have positive views concerning the methodology used in class, since they believe to a greater extent than non-coordinators that TBLT and Cooperative Learning are used, and that the lexical dimension is given prominence in the bilingual programme (items 15, 18, and 17, respectively). In addition, they believe more than their peers that the CEFR recommendations are followed (item 20). Moreover, they use online reference materials to a greater extent (item 29), and give more prominence to oral skills during examination (item 36).

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With respect to teacher training (cf. Table 22), an interesting pattern emerges: coordinators are more assertive than their non-coordinator peers that their knowledge of the APPP and of the underlining principles of CLIL is appropriate (items 49 and 50), and they report more than other teachers having taken part in courses concerning CLIL (item 51).

	Bilingual coordinator	Mean	Standard deviation	Cohen's d	p value
Item 38	No	2.87	0.924	0.120	0.617
	Yes	2.76	0.889		
Item 39	No	3.22	0.868	-0.023	0.916
	Yes	3.24	0.889		
Item 40	No	3.01	0.883	-0.368	0.120
	Yes	3.33	0.796		
Item 41	No	3.52	0.568	-0.343	0.102
	Yes	3.71	0.463		
Item 42	No	3.40	0.592	-0.287	0.231
	Yes	3.57	0.598		
Item 43	No	3.39	0.633	-0.245	0.312
	Yes	3.55	0.759		
Item 44	No	3.37	0.673	-0.262	0.281
	Yes	3.55	0.759		
Item 45	No	3.31	0.701	-0.272	0.263
	Yes	3.50	0.688		
Item 46	No	3.38	0.602	-0.914	< 0.001
	Yes	3.90	0.308		
Item 47	No	3.44	0.567	-0.860	< 0.001
	Yes	3.90	0.301		
Item 48	No	3.36	0.569	-0.709	0.004
	Yes	3.76	0.539		
Item 49	No	2.94	0.771	-0.723	0.003

	Yes	3.48	0.602		
Item 50	No	3.16	0.683	-0.612	0.010
	Yes	3.57	0.598		
Item 51	No	2.61	1.041	-0.776	< 0.001
	Yes	3.38	0.669		
Item 52	No	2.63	1.186	0.082	0.742
	Yes	2.53	1.389		

Table 22. Statistically significant differences within the teacher cohort for teacher training in terms of whether or not they are bilingual coordinators.

Coordinators have also taken part in more mobility programmes than other teachers (items 53, 54, and 55), as Table 23 shows, and they consider that they communicate with the provincial coordinator more than what other teachers believe they do (item 61). To put it in a nutshell, coordinators are more optimistic about the overall development of the programme and rate their own language competence and understanding of the principles of CLIL higher than their non-coordinator colleagues (which falls in line with the findings of Milla Lara and Casas Pedrosa, 2018). While being competent in the FL and familiar with the CLIL methodology might be some of the reasons why they became bilingual coordinators in the first place, having extremely optimistic views about a programme might hinder its potential for improvement, since deficiencies that go unnoticed are not tackled. It is therefore of utmost importance that coordinators are well aware of the research on CLIL so that they can identify where to step up their coordination and organisation.

Bilingual coordinator		Mean	Standard deviation	Cohen's d	p value
Item 53	No	2.07	1.184	-0.691	0.005
	Yes	2.90	1.294		
Item 54	No	2.53	1.278	-0.741	0.001
	Yes	3.45	0.999		
Item 55	No	1.97	1.158	-0.923	< 0.001
	Yes	3.05	1.234		
Item 56	No	1.58	0.901	-0.222	0.469
	Yes	1.79	1.182		

Table 23. Statistically significant differences within the teacher cohort for mobility in terms of whether or not they are bilingual coordinators.

5.2.3 Intra-group differences: Parents' perceptions

The parents' questionnaires were analysed bearing in mind the following variables: *grade their children are studying in, age, gender, and level of studies*. Out of these four variables, none of them has a very large effect on the questionnaires' outcomes, which points to the fact that the opinions harboured by parents on the bilingual programme are more homogenous than those of the prior two cohorts. Nevertheless, we have chosen here for analysis the two that yield the greatest number of statistically significant differences in the results: *grade their children are in and level of studies*.

Parents whose children are in fourth grade of CSE consider that their children are learning much more vocabulary than those whose children are finishing primary education (item 10),

which can be seen in Table 24 below. However, parents whose children are studying at secondary education level are also more likely to state that they find it difficult to help their children with their homework (item 12).

	Grade	Mean	Standard deviation	Cohen's d	p value
Item 10	6th Primary Education	3.19	0.547	-0.234	0.044
	4th Secondary Education	3.34	0.688		
Item 11	6th Primary Education	3.08	0.630	0.215	0.082
	4th Secondary Education	2.92	0.796		
Item 12	6th Primary Education	2.76	0.839	0.606	< 0.001
	4th Secondary Education	2.20	0.968		

Table 24. Statistically significant differences within the parent cohort for methodology in terms of grade their children are studying in.

Parents with children in primary school are more likely to think that bilingual materials are most costly (item 17), and those whose children are in secondary education believe that their children have adequate access to English materials outside school more (item 20). In addition, those parents whose children are in fourth grade of CSE consider that their children have participated more in mobility programmes (item 32). In addition, those who have children in fourth grade of CSE believe to a greater extent that their children's English and their

motivation towards English learning have improved as a result of the bilingual programme (items 36 and 38, respectively, displayed in Table 25).

	Grade	Mean	Standard deviation	Cohen's d	p value
Item 35	6th Primary Education	3.36	0.613	-0.081	0.504
	4th Secondary Education	3.41	0.617		
Item 36	6th Primary Education	3.28	0.641	-0.312	0.013
	4th Secondary Education	3.48	0.640		
Item 37	6th Primary Education	3.00	0.777	0.217	0.079
	4th Secondary Education	2.82	0.858		
Item 38	6th Primary Education	3.20	0.625	-0.363	0.004
	4th Secondary Education	3.44	0.681		
Item 39	6th Primary Education	2.74	0.877	0.133	0.269
	4th Secondary Education	2.62	0.912		
Item 40	6th Primary Education	3.42	0.626	-0.206	0.112
	4th Secondary Education	3.56	0.706		

Table 25. Statistically significant differences within the parent cohort for improvements and motivation for English learning in terms of grade their children are studying in.

The other variable which produces statistically significant differences amongst the parent cohort is their *level of studies* (cf. Table 26). The ANOVA test revealed that statistically

significant differences are always found between lower and higher levels of studies. Therefore, those who have a lower degree of academic studies find it harder to help their children with their homework than those who have graduated from university (item 12), a finding which is in line with other studies (Ráez Padilla, 2018). Similarly, the higher the level of academic studies, the more likely the parent is to regard exchange programmes as beneficial for the child (item 33) and to encourage his/her child to participate in them (item 34).

	No studies	School graduate	NCSE	Vocational Training	Short-cycle university degree	Long-cycle university degree	PhD
No studies	x	1.000	1.000	1.000	0.127	0.007	1.000
School graduate	1.000	X	1.000	0.101	< 0.001	< 0.001	0.828
NCSE	1.000	1.000	x	1.000	1.000	0.296	1.000
Vocational Training	1.000	0.101	1.000	x	0.65	0.017	1.000
Short-cycle university degree	0.127	< 0.001	1.000	0.650	x	1.000	1.000
Long-cycle university degree	0.007	< 0.001	0.296	0.017	1.000	x	1.000
PhD	1.000	0.828	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	x

Table 26. Statistically significant differences within the parent cohort for ability to help their children with bilingual homework in terms of level of studies.

Moreover, statistically significant differences caused by the variable *level of studies* have been found for items 37 and 38, which measure the impact of the bilingual programme on parents'

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and students' motivation to learn English (cf. Table 27). The higher the level of studies that they have completed, the higher their personal motivation to learn English, a pattern already described by Ráez Padilla (2018). Once again, these statistically significant differences arise between lower and higher levels of studies among parents, as can be seen in Table 27 below:

	No studies	School graduate	NCSE	Vocational Training	Short-cycle university degree	Long-cycle university degree	PhD
No studies	x	1.000	1.000	0.031	0.003	0.006	1.000
School graduate	1.000	X	1.000	1.000	0.015	0.015	1.000
NCSE	1.000	1.000	x	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000
Vocational Training	0.031	1.000	1.000	x	1.000	1.000	1.000
Short-cycle university degree	0.003	0.015	1.000	1.000	x	1.000	1.000
Long-cycle university degree	0.006	0.015	1.000	1.000	1.000	x	1.000
PhD	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	x

Table 27. Statistically significant differences within the parent cohort for own motivation to study English as a results of their children's participation in a bilingual programme in terms of level of studies.

5.3 Across-cohort comparison

We will now compare certain items across the cohorts which are parallel to each other, in order to determine whether there are statistically significant differences amongst the different stakeholders with respect to their opinions on the bilingual programme. Out of 16 comparable items across the three questionnaires, 11 present statistically significant differences, which points to the heterogeneous outlook which the three cohorts harbour on them (cf. Table 28).

Overall, teachers, out of the three groups polled, consider to a greater extent that their students' English has improved due to CLIL (item 2s, 2t, 1p³⁴). Teachers are also especially positive concerning their students' improvement of Spanish (item 4s, 4t, 2p). Concerning students' self-confidence, pupils are precisely the group who scores lowest on this particular item (8s, 8t, 6p), whereas parents and teachers alike consider that the bilingual programme has a higher impact on this area.

Vis-à-vis linguistic competence (items 12s, 12t, 7p and 13s, 13t, and 8p), teachers are, out of the three stakeholders, significantly less positive about their students' oral and written abilities in the foreign language than parents and students. That is, they consider to a lesser extent that the students' linguistic competence is adequate for their class.

³⁴ 's' stands for students, 't' for teachers, and 'p' for parents. That is, in this case, item 2 of the students' questionnaire is comparable to item 2 in the teachers' questionnaire and to item 1 in the parents' questionnaire.

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With respect to materials, teachers believe more than the other two groups that they are interesting and innovative (item 21s, 24t, 13p), and students consider to a lesser extent than the other two groups that these materials are suited to all students' needs (item 24s, 27t, 15p).

Regarding evaluation, both parents and teachers believe that content is given more prominence than linguistic accuracy. However, students disagree in general with this statement (item 31s, 35t, 23p). In addition, teachers consider that the oral competence is also evaluated more than students, and parents disagree with this statement (32s, 36t, 24p).

All three groups have a positive view on teachers' competence in English. However, surprisingly enough, parents are the cohort who evaluate their written competence in a less favourable light (although the overall score is still very positive), as evinced in item 42s, 47t, 27p.

Finally, all three stakeholders consider that the bilingual programme is worth the extra effort that it entails (item 41s, 57t, 35p). However, statistically significant differences have been found among them. While parents are the most positive group concerning this aspect, students are more reluctant about it, and teachers score lower than the other groups, barely agreeing with this statement, which may imply that the CLIL programme is especially hard for teachers, who need to work much harder to ensure that it runs smoothly.

	Cohort	Mean	Standard deviation	p value
Facet 2	Students	3.44	0.713	0.002
	Teachers	3.65	0.493	

	Parents	3.44	0.631	
Facet 4	Students	2.53	0.909	< 0.001
	Teachers	2.98	0.837	
	Parents	2.76	0.748	
Facet 5	Students	3.04	0.798	0.584
	Teachers	3.09	0.755	
	Parents	3.09	0.775	
Facet 7	Students	3.24	0.705	0.090
	Teachers	3.37	0.633	
	Parents	3.29	0.652	
Facet 8	Students	2.82	0.927	< 0.001
	Teachers	3.32	0.692	
	Parents	3.33	0.710	
Facet 12	Students	3.18	0.721	< 0.001
	Teachers	3.02	0.736	
	Parents	3.31	0.655	
Facet 13	Students	3.24	0.693	< 0.001
	Teachers	2.94	0.737	
	Parents	3.28	0.667	
Facet 14	Students	2.93	0.795	0.406
	Teachers	2.93	0.721	
	Parents	3.00	0.651	
Facet 21	Students	2.69	0.817	< 0.001
	Teachers	3.22	0.706	
	Parents	2.75	0.743	
Facet 24	Students	2.93	0.775	0.004
	Teachers	2.93	0.691	
	Parents	2.75	0.738	
Facet 31	Students	2.80	0.768	< 0.001
	Teachers	3.01	0.942	

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	Parents	3.11	0.775	
Facet 32	Students	3.08	0.897	< 0.001
	Teachers	3.27	0.805	
	Parents	2.81	0.688	
Facet 41	Students	3.43	0.706	0.092
	Teachers	3.45	0.590	
	Parents	3.33	0.673	
Facet 42	Students	3.49	0.666	0.004
	Teachers	3.51	0.568	
	Parents	3.34	0.659	
Facet 43	Students	3.34	0.698	0.260
	Teachers	3.41	0.585	
	Parents	3.30	0.612	
Facet 47	Students	3.24	0.697	< 0.001
	Teachers	3.07	0.885	
	Parents	3.39	0.615	

Table 28. Statistically significant differences across cohorts on comparable items.

5.4 SWOT analysis: Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities and Threats of CLIL

Having reviewed the opinions of students, parents, and teachers concerning the CLIL programme, we are now in a position to carry out a SWOT analysis on CLIL and its implementation in Andalusia. With that aim, we will proceed to highlight the main Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities and Threats found by all three stakeholders.

5.4.1 Strengths

1. L2 competence development: students, teachers, and parents perceive to an outstanding degree that following the Andalusian CLIL programme has had beneficial effects on the students' L2 competence.
2. Methodological advances: students and teachers hold positive views on the methodology followed. A variety of approaches is followed in the CLIL lessons (Task and Project-Based Learning, the Lexical Approach, and Cooperative Learning, among others), the lessons are student-centred, and, as a result, students' motivation increases.
3. Teacher competence: students and parents believe that teachers are well prepared, have an adequate proficiency in the target language as well as in socio-cultural aspects, and trust them to know the principles of the CLIL approach. Teachers also hold positive views about their degree of coordination with other colleagues, about the bilingual coordinator, and about their own skills. Additionally, they report that the CLIL programme is worth the extra effort that it entails.
4. Evaluation: teachers almost unanimously report that different methods of evaluation are followed, that oral skills are given priority and evaluated, and that content receives primacy over language competence in the NLA subjects.

5.4.2 Weaknesses

1. Lack of appropriate materials: materials are not always authentic or adapted from authentic sources, even though, according to students, teachers work hard in order to overcome this setback. Moreover, computer-mediated communication is not widely used in CLIL classrooms, and the materials are not adapted to all educational needs. Additionally, parents consider that the fact that their children's materials are in English prevents them from being able to help them with their homework, which is a finding that is recurrent in the literature. They also consider that their children do not have adequate access to English learning materials at home.
2. Language assistants: results show that, out of the three types of teachers analysed (language teachers, content teachers and teaching assistants), the figure of the teaching assistant is the least positively evaluated. Students consider that in 24% of the cases, their teaching assistant does not succeed in delivering the class appropriately.
3. Authorities' support: while positive views are held by teachers with regards to their own coordination and communication with other teachers, the picture is considerably gloomier when they report on their perceived support from educational authorities, which they clearly consider insufficient. Parents' views coincide with teachers, given that they report knowing very little about the bilingual programme. The educational authorities should therefore step up the information that they provide to the families about the CLIL approach and its inner workings.

5.4.3 Opportunities

1. Links between the L1 and the L2: taking into account that stakeholders consider that the students' understanding of the connections between Spanish and English has improved as a result of the bilingual programme, and that this learning has taken place mainly subconsciously, there is an opportunity for better understanding of the inner workings of the two languages by stepping up explicit comparisons between the L1 and the L2 on the part of teachers.
2. Mobility: despite the amount of mobility programmes for students and teachers and the positive views that these cohorts hold about participating in them, most of them have not yet taken part in any of them. There are many opportunities for growth in this front, and the gap between the stakeholders' opinions on mobility and their actions should be minimised.
3. Teacher training (1): this area, which has traditionally been listed as a deficiency of CLIL programmes, is beginning to take off, and teachers have boosted their participation in methodological and language upgrade courses with promising results so far. There are still many training opportunities for teachers which will likely diminish deficiencies in the implementation of CLIL over the next few years.

5.4.4 Threats

1. Use of English in class: while most teachers consider that their students would like English to be used to a greater extent in class, students do not feel so positive about this statement. It is therefore vital to maintain the balance between the L1 and the L2 so that students do not lose motivation towards the target language.
2. Student motivation: whereas teachers believe to a large extent that they effectively motivate their students, there is a large percentage of students (over 24%) who consider that their language or content teachers do not motivate them enough. It is important for teachers to be alert to this fact and to be more attuned to their students' perceptions, since there is a large gap between the two stakeholders' opinions on this matter.
3. Teacher training (2): when asked about their level of knowledge about the APPP and CLIL principles, teachers are not very confident. However, the degree of participation in methodological update courses is still low, which means that teachers are not taking advantage of the opportunities that are provided for them. It is therefore a threat that teachers become chronically misinformed about the CLIL approach while the potential solution is available to them. The reasons why teachers do not participate as much as they should in these courses should thus be investigated so that training deficiencies can be eradicated.

6. QUANTITATIVE RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

After having reviewed the stakeholders' opinions on several aspects related to the CLIL programme and its implementation, we will now turn to quantitative results, which will provide a clear overview of the way in which CLIL is affecting students' L2 competence, L1 competence, and the acquisition of NLA knowledge (comparing these results with those of our control group), and the differential effects of the intervening variables (gender, area, setting, socio-economic status, type of school, and extramural exposure to English). We will also examine whether the CLIL effects pervade in time and determine which are the intragroup differences between the post-tests (after the CLIL intervention) and the delayed post-tests. Finally, the discriminant analysis will reveal which are the variables that best explain the differences between the groups.

6.1 Effects of CLIL on L2 competence

As exposed in section 4.3.4, concerning the instruments used in this study, tests were employed in order to gather information on the linguistic competence in English of both CLIL and non-CLIL students. These tests were designed and informed by experts, and five dimensions of L2 competence were measured: use of English, vocabulary, reading, listening, and speaking. For the data-gathering process of the latter, audio recordings were used and later analysed using the CAF technique, taking into account the following assessment criteria: grammatical range and accuracy; lexical range and accuracy; fluency and interaction;

pronunciation, stress and intonation; and task fulfilment / appropriacy of response / communicative effectiveness.

6.1.1 L2 competence: cohort comparison

At first glance, we can discern a clear pattern concerning L2 competence in CLIL and non-CLIL students. CLIL students outstrip their non-CLIL counterpart in all the skills tested, and the differences between the two groups are, except for the listening skill, statistically significant in favour of those who follow a CLIL programme (cf. Table 29). Some effect sizes are quite large, the difference between the two means being larger than one standard deviation (Cohen's $d > \pm 1$). Such is the case of use of English and speaking (total), and, within the latter, grammar, lexical range, pronunciation, and task fulfilment. These are outstanding results in favour of the CLIL students, who are undoubtedly more competent in the L2 than their non-CLIL counterparts are. Similar results have been found in the majority of the previous studies found in the literature, such as Admiraal *et al.* (2006), Lorenzo *et al.* (2009a), San Isidro (2010), Villoria *et al.* (2011), Madrid and Barrios (2018), or, more recently, Lorenzo (2019).

Skills	Group	Mean	Standard Deviation	Cohen's d	p value
Use of English	Non-CLIL	16.74	10.67	-1.027	< 0.001
	CLIL	27.94	11.19		
Vocabulary	Non-CLIL	8.13	3.89	-0.852	< 0.001
	CLIL	11.16	3.09		
Reading	Non-CLIL	3.57	2.93	-0.500	< 0.001

Listening	CLIL	4.99	2.74		
	Non-CLIL	6.75	4.33	-0.077	0.210
Total Speaking	CLIL	7.05	3.33		
	Non-CLIL	6.14	2.37	-1.065	< 0.001
Grammar Speaking	CLIL	8.57	2.15		
	Non-CLIL	1.18	0.53	-1.127	< 0.001
Lexical Range Speaking	CLIL	1.74	0.44		
	Non-CLIL	1.19	0.54	-1.201	< 0.001
Fluency and Interaction Speaking	CLIL	1.77	0.37		
	Non-CLIL	1.23	0.55	-0.992	< 0.001
Pronunciation Speaking	CLIL	1.73	0.42		
	Non-CLIL	1.33	0.44	-1.105	< 0.001
Task Fulfilment Speaking	CLIL	1.77	0.33		
	Non-CLIL	1.21	0.48	-1.228	< 0.001
	CLIL	1.75	0.38		

Table 29. Foreign language competence: post-test cohort comparison.

In primary education, a similar pattern emerges between CLIL and non-CLIL students, except for the fact that, at this educational stage, all differences are statistically significant in favour of CLIL students (including the listening skill), as Table 30 shows. The effect size is large for the speaking skill, as well as for some of its subskills (grammar, lexical range, pronunciation, and task fulfilment).

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Skills	Group	Mean	Standard Deviation	Cohen's d	p value
Use of English	Non-CLIL	11.12	6.49	-0.451	< 0.001
	CLIL	14.01	6.24		
Vocabulary	Non-CLIL	8.53	3.89	-0.450	< 0.001
	CLIL	10.23	3.60		
Reading	Non-CLIL	4.72	3.70	-0.673	< 0.001
	CLIL	7.29	4.06		
Listening	Non-CLIL	11.34	2.52	-0.380	0.001
	CLIL	12.23	1.92		
Total Speaking	Non-CLIL	5.54	2.40	-0.898	< 0.001
	CLIL	7.73	2.53		
Grammar Speaking	Non-CLIL	1.02	0.54	-0.927	< 0.001
	CLIL	1.56	0.65		
Lexical Range Speaking	Non-CLIL	1.10	0.56	-0.750	0.003
	CLIL	1.50	0.49		
Fluency and Interaction Speaking	Non-CLIL	1.09	0.51	-0.676	0.006
	CLIL	1.44	0.55		
Pronunciation Speaking	Non-CLIL	1.29	0.48	-0.861	0.001
	CLIL	1.69	0.45		
Task Fulfilment Speaking	Non-CLIL	1.05	0.46	-1.034	< 0.001
	CLIL	1.54	0.51		

Table 30. Foreign language competence: post-test cohort comparison at primary education level.

At the secondary education level, similarly, CLIL students' results are significantly higher than those of non-CLIL students in all skills tested (cf. Table 31). P values are extremely low (< 0.001 in all skills), leaving little room for error. Effect sizes, in turn, are very large: the differences in the means of the two groups are larger than one standard deviation for all skills except for reading (-0.838). These results imply that, at secondary education level, CLIL students in four provinces in Andalusia significantly outperform their non-CLIL peers in the L2, for all skills tested. The fact that the CLIL programme is particularly beneficial for the speaking skill (Cohen's $d = -1.109$) has been pointed out previously in the literature (Madrid and Barrios, 2018; Lorenzo, 2019).

Skills	Group	Mean	Standard Deviation	Cohen's d	p value
Use of English	Non-CLIL	20.48	11.26	-1.222	< 0.001
	CLIL	32.52	8.30		
Vocabulary	Non-CLIL	7.87	3.88	-1.061	< 0.001
	CLIL	11.47	2.85		
Reading	Non-CLIL	2.80	1.91	-0.838	< 0.001
	CLIL	4.23	1.51		
Listening	Non-CLIL	3.69	1.89	-1.012	< 0.001
	CLIL	5.35	1.35		
Total Speaking	Non-CLIL	6.52	2.28	-1.109	< 0.001
	CLIL	8.88	1.92		
Grammar Speaking	Non-CLIL	1.28	0.50	-1.237	< 0.001

Lexical Range Speaking	CLIL	1.80	0.31	-1.453	< 0.001
	Non-CLIL	1.25	0.53		
Fluency and Interaction Speaking	CLIL	1.87	0.25	-1.126	< 0.001
	Non-CLIL	1.33	0.55		
Pronunciation Speaking	CLIL	1.83	0.29	-1.241	< 0.001
	Non-CLIL	1.35	0.42		
Task Fulfilment Speaking	CLIL	1.80	0.28	-1.324	< 0.001
	Non-CLIL	1.32	0.46		
	CLIL	1.83	0.28		

Table 31. Foreign language competence: post-test cohort comparison at secondary education level.

6.1.2 L2 competence: differential effect of intervening variables on L2 competence

After having reviewed the results in L2 competence for CLIL and non-CLIL students as a whole, we will now proceed to look into L2 test outcomes by variable, in order to discern which of the following intervening variables give rise to statistically significant differences between the cohorts: gender (male or female), area (eastern or western Andalusia), socio-economic status (low, medium, or high), type of school (public non-CLIL, public CLIL, private CLIL, or charter non-CLIL), number of hours of extramural exposure to English (above or below nine hours).

6.1.2.1 Gender

On average, females score higher than males on all aggregated skills (cf. Table 32). However, the differences between male and female students are statistically significant on three of them: vocabulary, reading, and listening. The effect sizes are small in those three cases, which indicates that even though females outperform their male counterparts, the differences between the averages of the two cohorts are quite moderate, as can be appreciated below:

Group	Skills	Gender	Mean	Standard Deviation	Cohen's d	p value
General	Use of English	Male	21.11	12.31	-0.108	0.076
		Female	22.44	12.18		
	Vocabulary	Male	9.07	4.06	-0.211	0.001
		Female	9.88	3.63		
	Reading	Male	3.89	2.79	-0.212	0.001
		Female	4.50	3.02		
	Listening	Male	6.57	3.89	-0.149	0.015
		Female	7.15	3.91		
	Total Speaking	Male	7.11	2.55	-0.037	0.780
		Female	7.21	2.61		
	Grammar Speaking	Male	1.40	0.55	-0.040	0.760
		Female	1.42	0.59		
	Lexical Range Speaking	Male	1.44	0.54	0.036	0.788
		Female	1.42	0.58		

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Fluency and Interaction Speaking	Male	1.45	0.53	0.059	0.655
	Female	1.42	0.57		
Pronunciation	Male	1.50	0.44	-0.039	0.769
	Female	1.52	0.47		
Task Fulfilment	Male	1.44	0.49	0.030	0.822
	Female	1.43	0.53		

Table 32. Foreign language competence: comparison by gender.

Analysing the results for only non-CLIL students, the statistically significant differences between the two genders are reduced to only the lexical dimension: female students, even if not following a CLIL programme, still score higher on vocabulary than males, with a small effect size (cf. Table 33). Males, however, score higher than females on speaking and most of its tested subskills, though this advantage is not statistically significant.

Group	Skills	Gender	Mean	Standard Deviation	Cohen's d	p value
Non-CLIL	Use of English	Male	15.93	10.28	-0.151	0.068
		Female	17.54	11.01		
	Vocabulary	Male	7.70	3.98	-0.224	0.007
		Female	8.57	3.76		
	Reading	Male	3.42	2.86	-0.102	0.219
		Female	3.72	2.99		
	Listening	Male	6.51	4.39	-0.108	0.193
		Female	6.98	4.26		

	Total Speaking	Male	6.19	2.14	0.036	0.836
		Female	6.10	2.61		
	Grammar Speaking	Male	1.18	0.49	0.003	0.986
		Female	1.18	0.58		
	Lexical Range Speaking	Male	1.21	0.50	0.055	0.749
		Female	1.18	0.59		
	Fluency and Interaction Speaking	Male	1.26	0.52	0.090	0.601
		Female	1.21	0.58		
	Pronunciation	Male	1.32	0.41	-0.021	0.903
		Female	1.33	0.48		
	Task Fulfilment	Male	1.22	0.43	0.029	0.868
		Female	1.21	0.52		

Table 33. Foreign language competence: comparison by gender. Non-CLIL only.

Analysing now only the results of CLIL students, females score higher than males in use of English, vocabulary, reading, listening and speaking (total), although statistically significant differences arise only in vocabulary and reading, with small effect sizes (cf. Table 34). It can be inferred, therefore, that female students are, if only to a small degree, more proficient than their male peers in the L2, whether or not they follow a bilingual programme. These results depart from those found by Heras and Lasagabaster (2015), who proposed the notion that CLIL programmes could help close the gender gap between male and female students. However, in our study, there is a wider gap in CLIL than in non-CLIL groups, which discards the abovementioned hypothesis.

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Group	Skills	Gender	Mean	Standard Deviation	Cohen's d	p value
CLIL	Use of English	Male	27.87	11.40	-0.012	0.098
		Female	28.00	11.03		
	Vocabulary	Male	10.89	3.37	-0.163	0.074
		Female	11.40	2.81		
	Reading	Male	4.50	2.59	-0.339	< 0.001
		Female	5.42	2.80		
	Listening	Male	6.67	3.14	-0.217	0.017
		Female	7.39	3.46		
	Total Speaking	Male	8.44	2.51	-0.125	0.539
		Female	8.71	1.72		
	Grammar Speaking	Male	1.72	0.46	-0.060	0.771
		Female	1.75	0.43		
	Lexical Range Speaking	Male	1.79	0.39	0.100	0.627
		Female	1.75	0.36		
	Fluency and Interaction Speaking	Male	1.74	0.42	0.087	0.674
		Female	1.71	0.42		
	Pronunciation	Male	1.77	0.34	-0.015	0.944
		Female	1.77	0.33		
	Task Fulfilment	Male	1.78	0.37	0.125	0.544
		Female	1.73	0.39		

Table 34. Foreign language competence: comparison by gender. CLIL only.

6.1.2.2 Area

The intervening variable of area does not originate many statistically significant differences in L2 competence between students in the eastern (Granada and Almería) and western (Cádiz and Málaga) provinces in the region (cf. Table 35). When both CLIL and non-CLIL students are considered, those in the western provinces obtain better results in the listening skill (with a very small effect size of -0.154). When only non-CLIL students are considered (cf. Table 36), it is non-CLIL students in Granada and Almería who, on average, outperform their non-CLIL counterparts in Málaga and Cádiz on use of English.

This picture is reverted, however, when the comparison between eastern and western students is carried out only taking CLIL students into account: in this case, eastern students lag behind western ones in use of English, and the difference is statistically significant. Nonetheless, in most skills analysed, most differences between the two areas in Andalusia are statistically insignificant with small effect sizes (cf. Table 37), which may imply that CLIL programmes are being implemented in a homogeneous way and with similar outcomes concerning L2 acquisition across Andalusia.

Group	Skills	Area	Mean	Standard Deviation	Cohen's d	p value
General	Use of English	Eastern Andalusia	21.21	12.26	-0.071	0.274
		Western Andalusia	22.08	12.25		
	Vocabulary	Eastern Andalusia	9.23	3.95	-0.101	0.122
		Western Andalusia	9.62	3.82		
	Reading	Eastern Andalusia	4.14	3.32	-0.034	0.622
		Western Andalusia				

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		Western Andalusia	4.24	2.71		
	Listening	Eastern Andalusia	6.47	3.84	-0.154	0.018
		Western Andalusia	7.07	3.93		
	Total Speaking	Eastern Andalusia	7.19	2.78	0.019	0.890
		Western Andalusia	7.14	2.48		
	Grammar Speaking	Eastern Andalusia	1.43	0.63	0.064	0.667
		Western Andalusia	1.40	0.53		
	Lexical Range Speaking	Eastern Andalusia	1.40	0.61	-0.081	0.584
		Western Andalusia	1.45	0.53		
	Fluency and Interaction Speaking	Eastern Andalusia	1.44	0.59	0.008	0.954
		Western Andalusia	1.44	0.53		
	Pronunciation	Eastern Andalusia	1.47	0.51	-0.115	0.414
		Western Andalusia	1.53	0.43		
	Task Fulfilment	Eastern Andalusia	1.45	0.57	0.028	0.851
		Western Andalusia	1.43	0.48		

Table 35. Foreign language competence: comparison by area.

Group	Skills	Area	Mean	Standard Deviation	Cohen's d	p value
Non-CLIL	Use of English	Eastern Andalusia	18.57	11.50	0.277	0.001
		Western Andalusia	15.64	9.99		
	Vocabulary	Eastern Andalusia	8.35	3.89	0.090	0.293

		Western Andalusia	8.00	3.89		
	Reading	Eastern Andalusia	3.69	3.36	0.064	0.455
		Western Andalusia	3.50	2.64		
	Listening	Eastern Andalusia	6.09	4.21	-0.246	0.004
		Western Andalusia	7.14	4.36		
	Total Speaking	Eastern Andalusia	6.38	2.72	0.144	0.434
		Western Andalusia	6.03	2.19		
	Grammar Speaking	Eastern Andalusia	1.25	0.58	0.202	0.273
		Western Andalusia	1.14	0.51		
	Lexical Range Speaking	Eastern Andalusia	1.20	0.60	0.033	0.860
		Western Andalusia	1.19	0.51		
	Fluency and Interaction Speaking	Eastern Andalusia	1.32	0.59	0.231	0.210
		Western Andalusia	1.19	0.52		
	Pronunciation	Eastern Andalusia	1.33	0.52	0.012	0.948
		Western Andalusia	1.32	0.40		
	Task Fulfilment	Eastern Andalusia	1.27	0.57	0.181	0.375
		Western Andalusia	1.19	0.43		

Table 36. Foreign language competence: comparison by area. Non-CLIL only.

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Group	Skills	Area	Mean	Standard Deviation	Cohen's d	p value
CLIL	Use of English	Eastern Andalusia	25.93	12.13	-0.246	0.025
		Western Andalusia	28.67	10.76		
	Vocabulary	Eastern Andalusia	10.86	3.49	-0.132	0.198
		Western Andalusia	11.27	2.93		
	Reading	Eastern Andalusia	4.98	3.14	-0.006	0.950
		Western Andalusia	4.99	2.58		
	Listening	Eastern Andalusia	7.21	3.01	0.066	0.520
		Western Andalusia	6.99	3.44		
	Total Speaking	Eastern Andalusia	8.35	2.47	-0.148	0.498
		Western Andalusia	8.67	1.99		
	Grammar Speaking	Eastern Andalusia	1.69	0.63	-0.145	0.565
		Western Andalusia	1.76	0.32		
	Lexical Range Speaking	Eastern Andalusia	1.68	0.51	-0.368	0.175
		Western Andalusia	1.81	0.27		
	Fluency and Interaction Speaking	Eastern Andalusia	1.61	0.56	-0.409	0.127
		Western Andalusia	1.78	0.32		
	Pronunciation	Eastern Andalusia	1.68	0.42	-0.411	0.110
		Western Andalusia	1.81	0.27		
	Task Fulfilment	Eastern Andalusia	1.69	0.49	-0.232	0.370
		Western Andalusia	1.78	0.31		

Table 37. Foreign language competence: comparison by area. CLIL only.

6.1.2.3 Setting

Turning now to setting, we analyse the effect that living in a rural or urban area exerts on L2 competence for CLIL and non-CLIL students. Firstly, the results evince superior competence in the L2 of students who live in an urban area to that of those who live in a rural environment (tallying with Alejo and Piquer, 2016, who found that urban students had better conditions for L2 learning than rural students), as shown in Table 38. The effect sizes range from low to medium. The largest effect size is found in the lexical range and the aggregate results for speaking (-0.639 in the former and -0.609 in the latter), in favour of urban students.

Group	Skills	Setting	Mean	Standard Deviation	Cohen's d	p value
General	Use of English	Rural	20.14	11.58	-0.189	0.006
		Urban	22.44	12.45		
	Vocabulary	Rural	8.58	3.87	-0.330	< 0.001
		Urban	9.84	3.80		
	Reading	Rural	3.41	2.81	-0.381	< 0.001
		Urban	4.51	2.91		
	Listening	Rural	5.32	3.30	-0.568	< 0.001
		Urban	7.47	3.97		
	Total Speaking	Rural	6.19	2.63	-0.609	0.001
		Urban	7.70	2.38		
	Grammar Speaking	Rural	1.25	0.59	-0.450	0.006
		Urban	1.50	0.54		
	Lexical Range Speaking	Rural	1.21	0.53	-0.639	< 0.001
		Urban	1.55	0.54		

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Fluency and Interaction Speaking	Rural	1.27	0.55	-0.492	< 0.001
	Urban	1.53	0.53		
Pronunciation	Rural	1.36	0.44	-0.526	< 0.001
	Urban	1.59	0.44		
Task Fulfilment	Rural	1.27	0.51	-0.533	< 0.001
	Urban	1.53	0.49		

Table 38. Foreign language competence: comparison by setting.

An analysis of the results of only non-CLIL students reveals that setting yields the same effects for both urban and rural students than it did for all students altogether (CLIL and non-CLIL): in non-CLIL contexts, urban students continue to outperform significantly rural students, and they do so on all skills tested (cf. Table 39). Some effect sizes are, nonetheless, larger than they were when both CLIL and non-CLIL students were considered in the analysis: such is the case of listening, where Cohen's *d* between rural and urban students is close to one (-0.939), which means that non-CLIL urban students are far more competent in this skill than their rural peers. The effect size is also significant for reading (-0.699), always in favour of urban students.

Group	Skills	Setting	Mean	Standard Deviation	Cohen's <i>d</i>	p value
Non-CLIL	Use of English	Rural	14.81	8.96	-0.238	0.006
		Urban	17.35	11.10		
	Vocabulary	Rural	6.60	3.31	-0.532	< 0.001
		Urban	8.62	3.94		

Reading	Rural	2.07	1.88	-0.699	< 0.001
	Urban	4.03	3.04		
Listening	Rural	3.88	2.97	-0.939	< 0.001
	Urban	7.65	4.30		
Total Speaking	Rural	5.31	2.09	-0.543	0.004
	Urban	6.56	2.40		
Grammar Speaking	Rural	1.04	0.50	-0.382	0.039
	Urban	1.24	0.54		
Lexical Range Speaking	Rural	0.96	0.44	-0.686	< 0.001
	Urban	1.31	0.55		
Fluency and Interaction Speaking	Rural	1.08	0.50	-0.435	0.019
	Urban	1.31	0.55		
Pronunciation	Rural	1.20	0.42	-0.435	0.019
	Urban	1.39	0.44		
Task Fulfilment	Rural	1.03	0.42	-0.593	0.001
	Urban	1.31	0.48		

Table 39. Foreign language competence: comparison by setting. Non-CLIL only.

Turning now to setting for only CLIL students (cf. Table 40), the differences between rural and urban students are no longer statistically significant for the skills of reading and listening (which had the largest effect sizes among the non-CLIL student population). These results confirm a tendency that was proposed by Pavón Vázquez (2018): the CLIL programme may act

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as a levelling factor between students from different settings, which would reduce the inequalities that arise from living in a rural area.

Nonetheless, in our study, this fact is only true for receptive skills (reading and listening). In fact, the differences between CLIL students in rural and urban areas concerning use of English, vocabulary, and speaking (as well as all of its subskills) remain statistically significant in favour of urban students. Even more, some effect sizes are larger than they were when the analysis was carried out with only non-CLIL students, or when CLIL was not a considered variable for the analysis: the effect sizes in speaking and its subskills are particularly large (-1.175 for the aggregate results of speaking, -1.209 for lexical range in speaking, -1.185 for pronunciation). Urban students, in all cases, outperform rural students in a statistically significant manner.

Group	Skills	Setting	Mean	Standard Deviation	Cohen's d	p value
CLIL	Use of English	Rural	25.15	11.49	-0.375	< 0.001
		Urban	29.28	10.81		
	Vocabulary	Rural	10.44	3.39	-0.349	0.001
		Urban	11.51	2.88		
	Reading	Rural	4.64	2.96	-0.187	0.054
		Urban	5.16	2.62		
	Listening	Rural	6.64	3.00	-0.183	0.061
		Urban	7.24	3.47		
	Total Speaking	Rural	7.24	2.85	-1.175	< 0.001
		Urban	9.43	0.74		
Grammar Speaking	Rural	1.50	0.60	-0.944	0.001	

		Urban	1.88	0.21		
	Lexical Range Speaking	Rural	1.53	0.46	-1.209	< 0.001
		Urban	1.92	0.19		
	Fluency and Interaction Speaking	Rural	1.50	0.53	-0.959	< 0.001
		Urban	1.86	0.24		
	Pronunciation	Rural	1.56	0.39	-1.185	< 0.001
		Urban	1.90	0.20		
	Task Fulfilment	Rural	1.56	0.47	-0.915	0.001
		Urban	1.87	0.24		

Table 40. Foreign language competence: comparison by setting. CLIL only.

6.1.2.4 Socio-economic status

As explained in section 4.3.4, socio-economic status was measured by means of an initial questionnaire delivered to students during the first phase of the study whereby information concerning their parents' educational level was gathered. Therefore, parents' educational attainment served as a proxy for SES.

It emerges that SES status is significantly linked to academic performance in the L2, as shown in Table 41. The higher the SES, the higher the mean obtained, for all skills and subskills tested, with statistically significant differences (p value < 0.001). There are, undoubtedly, differences between students in low, medium, and high SES in favour of the latter, when both CLIL and non-CLIL students are considered.

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Group	Skills	SES	Mean	Standard Deviation	Eta Squared	p value
General	Use of English	Low	16.98	10.58	0.084	< 0.001
		Medium	21.79	11.78		
		High	25.90	12.59		
	Vocabulary	Low	7.91	3.59	0.083	< 0.001
		Medium	9.22	3.94		
		High	10.66	3.56		
	Listening	Low	5.78	3.90	0.035	< 0.001
		Medium	6.30	3.73		
		High	7.48	3.70		
	Reading	Low	3.17	2.54	0.061	< 0.001
		Medium	3.85	2.51		
		High	4.85	2.92		
	Total Speaking	Low	5.73	2.58	0.107	< 0.001
		Medium	7.16	2.41		
		High	7.87	2.43		
	Grammar Speaking	Low	1.11	0.58	0.100	< 0.001
		Medium	1.40	0.55		
		High	1.56	0.52		
	Lexical Range Speaking	Low	1.14	0.52	0.105	< 0.001
		Medium	1.39	0.55		
		High	1.59	0.54		
	Fluency and Interaction Speaking	Low	1.16	0.59	0.100	< 0.001
		Medium	1.42	0.53		
		High	1.60	0.50		
Pronunciation	Low	1.26	0.46	0.093	< 0.001	
	Medium	1.51	0.44			

	Task Fulfilment	High	1.62	0.43	0.093	< 0.001
		Low	1.18	0.50		
		Medium	1.44	0.49		
		High	1.57	0.49		

Table 41. Foreign language competence: comparison by SES.

As far as the SES effect on only non-CLIL student population is concerned, similar results arise: students who come from higher SES contexts outperform those from lower rungs, in a statistically significant manner, on all L2 skills tested (cf. Table 42 below).

Group	Skills	SES	Mean	Standard Deviation	Eta Squared	p value
Non-CLIL	Use of English	Low	13.16	8.33	0.087	< 0.001
		Medium	16.51	9.67		
		High	20.94	12.53		
	Vocabulary	Low	6.67	3.25	0.102	< 0.001
		Medium	7.66	3.92		
		High	9.61	3.73		
	Listening	Low	5.49	4.17	0.060	< 0.001
		Medium	5.84	4.00		
		High	7.83	4.22		
	Reading	Low	2.38	1.96	0.112	< 0.001
		Medium	3.06	2.35		
		High	4.52	3.11		
	Total Speaking	Low	4.97	2.01	0.088	0.003
		Medium	6.38	2.24		
		High	6.66	2.49		
	Grammar Speaking	Low	0.94	0.47	0.071	0.010
Medium		1.25	0.52			

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		High	1.27	0.54		
	Lexical Range Speaking	Low	0.94	0.42	0.078	0.006
		Medium	1.20	0.52		
		High	1.31	0.59		
	Fluency and Interaction Speaking	Low	0.99	0.51	0.079	0.006
		Medium	1.28	0.52		
		High	1.36	0.55		
	Pronunciation	Low	1.12	0.41	0.074	0.008
		Medium	1.38	0.42		
		High	1.40	0.45		
	Task Fulfilment	Low	0.99	0.40	0.086	0.004
		Medium	1.28	0.44		
		High	1.31	0.51		

Table 42. Foreign language competence: comparison by SES. Non-CLIL only.

Turning now to only CLIL students and the effects that SES have on their L2 competence, a different picture emerges: although those students from higher SES contexts still score higher than students from lower socio-economic status on all skills, the differences for the skills of listening and reading are no longer statistically significant (cf. Table 43 below).

These findings tally with a trend that has already been pointed out in the literature: as was the case for setting (the CLIL programme had a levelling effect on second language proficiency for students from urban or rural contexts), CLIL may reduce the effects of socio-economic factors on L2 competence (as pointed out already by Pérez Cañado, 2018d; Pavón Vázquez, 2018; and Rascón Moreno & Bretones Callejas, 2018). Therefore, CLIL students from lower

socio-economic rungs are able to catch up with their higher SES peers on the receptive skills of listening and reading, possibly cancelling out differences arising from socio-economic status towards the end of secondary education, if CLIL instruction is continued.

Group	Skills	SES	Mean	Standard Deviation	Eta Squared	p value
CLIL	Use of English	Low	24.34	10.68	0.037	< 0.001
		Medium	28.06	10.86		
		High	30.11	11.07		
	Vocabulary	Low	10.34	2.92	0.022	0.005
		Medium	11.06	3.05		
		High	11.57	3.14		
	Listening	Low	6.44	3.26	0.008	0.150
		Medium	6.81	3.32		
		High	7.20	3.19		
	Reading	Low	4.70	2.83	0.005	0.316
		Medium	4.79	2.36		
		High	5.13	2.74		
	Total Speaking	Low	7.17	2.97	0.115	0.004
		Medium	8.52	2.12		
		High	9.10	1.64		
	Grammar Speaking	Low	1.44	0.63	0.138	0.001
		Medium	1.65	0.53		
		High	1.87	0.24		
	Lexical Range Speaking	Low	1.53	0.48	0.136	0.001
		Medium	1.72	0.45		
		High	1.88	0.23		
Fluency and Interaction Speaking	Low	1.50	0.59	0.106	0.007	
	Medium	1.67	0.47			
	High	1.85	0.27			
Pronunciation	Low	1.56	0.43	0.106	0.007	

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		Medium	1.74	0.37		
		High	1.85	0.25		
	Task Fulfilment	Low	1.56	0.46	0.079	0.026
		Medium	1.74	0.45		
		High	1.84	0.28		

Table 43. Foreign language competence: comparison by SES. CLIL only.

In order to provide a more in-depth analysis of the impact of socio-economic factors on L2 competence, Tukey HSD post hoc test was carried out. Results show that statistically significant differences typically arise in the comparison between low and medium and low and high SES in the combined CLIL and non-CLIL group (cf. Table 44). In the non-CLIL group, statistically significant differences arise between the three SES levels for some skills (use of English, vocabulary, reading), although differences decline for the speaking skill as well as its subskills. Nonetheless, in the CLIL group only, statistically significant differences among the three SES levels are relegated to only appear in the comparison between low and high SES for the practical totality of cases (all except for use of English and fluency in speaking interaction). The CLIL programme, as put forward before, cancels out socio-economic differences in L2 acquisition.

Group	Skills	SES	Low	Medium	High
General	Use of English	Low		< 0.001	< 0.001
		Medium	< 0.001		< 0.001
		High	< 0.001	< 0.001	
	Vocabulary	Low		< 0.001	< 0.001
		Medium	< 0.001		< 0.001

Non-CLIL	Listening	High	< 0.001	< 0.001	
		Low		0.213	< 0.001
		Medium	0.213		< 0.001
	Reading	High	< 0.001	< 0.001	
		Low		0.006	< 0.001
		Medium	0.006		< 0.001
	Total Speaking	High	< 0.001	< 0.001	
		Low		0.006	< 0.001
		Medium	0.006		0.167
	Grammar Speaking	High	< 0.001	0.167	
		Low		0.014	< 0.001
		Medium	0.014		0.138
	Lexical Range Speaking	High	< 0.001	0.138	
		Low		0.036	< 0.001
		Medium	0.036		0.044
	Fluency and Interaction Speaking	High	< 0.001	0.044	
		Low		0.024	< 0.001
		Medium	0.024		0.089
	Pronunciation	High	< 0.001	0.089	
		Low		0.010	< 0.001
		Medium	0.010		0.258
	Task Fulfilment	High	< 0.001	0.258	
		Low		0.011	< 0.001
		Medium	0.011		0.240
	Use of English	High	< 0.001	0.240	
		Low		0.008	< 0.001
		Medium	0.008		< 0.001
	Vocabulary	High	< 0.001	< 0.001	
		Low		0.031	< 0.001
		Medium	< 0.001		< 0.001
	Listening	High	< 0.001	< 0.001	
		Low		0.714	< 0.001
		Medium	0.714		< 0.001
	Reading	High	< 0.001	< 0.001	
		Low		0.032	< 0.001
		Medium	0.032		< 0.001
Total Speaking	High	< 0.001	< 0.001		
	Low		0.026	0.003	
	Medium	0.026		0.826	
Grammar Speaking	High	0.003	0.826		
	Low		0.030	0.012	
	Medium	0.030		0.984	
Lexical Range Speaking	High	0.012	0.984		
	Low		0.094	0.005	
	Medium	0.094		0.552	

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CLIL	Fluency and Interaction	High	0.005	0.552	
		Low		0.055	0.719
	Speaking	Medium	0.055		0.005
		High	0.719	0.005	
	Pronunciation	Low		0.031	0.010
		Medium	0.031		0.964
	Task Fulfilment	High	0.010	0.964	
		Low		0.021	0.004
	Use of English	Medium	0.021		0.909
		High	0.004	0.909	
	Vocabulary	Low		0.028	< 0.001
		Medium	0.028		0.171
	Total Speaking	High	< 0.001	0.171	
		Low		0.175	0.004
	Grammar Speaking	Medium	0.175		0.255
		High	0.004	0.255	
	Lexical Range	Low		0.098	0.003
		Medium	0.098		0.499
	Speaking	High	0.003	0.499	
		Low		0.264	0.001
	Fluency and Interaction	Medium	0.264		0.112
		High	0.001	0.112	
	Speaking	Low		0.220	0.001
		Medium	0.220		0.144
	Pronunciation	High	0.001	0.144	
		Low		0.362	0.007
	Task Fulfilment	Medium	0.362		0.007
High		0.007	0.200		
Use of English	Low		0.190	0.005	
	Medium	0.190		0.381	
Vocabulary	High	0.005	0.381		
	Low		0.272	0.020	
Total Speaking	Medium	0.272		0.534	
	High	0.020	0.534		

Table 44. Foreign language competence: post-hoc test.

6.1.2.5 Type of school

The ANOVA test allows us to compare public non-CLIL, public CLIL, private CLIL and charter non-CLIL schools via the results that students obtained in the L2 competence tests. At first glance, we can discern that statistically significant differences arise between these types of school on all the skills tested (with p values of < 0.001). A look at the means obtained in each type of school reveals that private CLIL schools outperforms the other types of school, followed by public CLIL schools, by charter non-CLIL schools, and lastly by non-CLIL public schools (cf. Table 45). These results fall in line with those obtained by Madrid and Hughes, 2011, and by Madrid and Barrios, 2018. Nevertheless, in the skills of reading and listening, public CLIL school students score higher than private CLIL students, which shows the strength of the public bilingual programme on the development of all skills, especially receptive ones. However, in the listening skill, charter schools obtain the highest score, which is statistically significant, and which does not tally with previous studies (Pérez Cañado, 2018a).

Tukey HSD post-hoc analysis, as seen in Table 46 below, confirms that statistically significant differences arise between all types of schools for the skills of use of English and vocabulary, but not between public CLIL and private CLIL schools for either reading, listening, speaking, or any of the subskills tested in speaking, suggesting that public and private CLIL schools are actually very close in terms of L2 language development.

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Skills	Type and Group	Mean	Standard Deviation	Eta Squared	p value
Use of English	Public Non-CLIL	14.65	9.38	0.251	< 0.001
	Public CLIL	27.15	11.30		
	Private CLIL	36.29	4.83		
	Charter Non-CLIL	19.82	11.68		
Vocabulary	Public Non-CLIL	7.12	3.91	0.222	< 0.001
	Public CLIL	10.95	3.08		
	Private CLIL	13.33	2.28		
	Charter Non-CLIL	9.62	3.35		
Listening	Public Non-CLIL	5.96	4.37	0.037	< 0.001
	Public CLIL	7.15	3.46		
	Private CLIL	5.95	0.85		
	Charter Non-CLIL	7.90	4.01		
Reading	Public Non-CLIL	2.81	2.54	0.111	< 0.001
	Public CLIL	5.01	2.84		
	Private CLIL	4.76	1.27		
	Charter Non-CLIL	4.67	3.11		
Total Speaking	Public Non-CLIL	5.308	2.0660	0.298	< 0.001
	Public CLIL	8.448	2.2453		
	Private CLIL	9.545	0.5222		
	Charter Non-CLIL	7.129	2.3398		
Grammar Speaking	Public Non-CLIL	1.000	0.4787	0.308	< 0.001
	Public CLIL	1.720	0.4615		
	Private CLIL	1.864	0.2335		
	Charter Non-CLIL	1.387	0.5155		

Lexical Range Speaking	Public Non-CLIL	1.027	0.4706	0.328	< 0.001
	Public CLIL	1.744	0.3841		
	Private CLIL	1.955	0.1508		
	Charter Non-CLIL	1.387	0.5612		
Fluency and Interaction Speaking	Public Non-CLIL	1.034	0.4811	0.290	< 0.001
	Public CLIL	1.702	0.4330		
	Private CLIL	1.909	0.2023		
	Charter Non-CLIL	1.468	0.5269		
Pronunciation	Public Non-CLIL	1.185	0.4371	0.302	< 0.001
	Public CLIL	1.750	0.3427		
	Private CLIL	1.909	0.2023		
	Charter Non-CLIL	1.492	0.3893		
Task Fulfilment	Public Non-CLIL	1.062	0.3992	0.337	< 0.001
	Public CLIL	1.732	0.3915		
	Private CLIL	1.909	0.2023		
	Charter Non-CLIL	1.395	0.4970		

Table 45. Foreign language competence: comparison by type of school.

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Skills	Type and Group	Public Non-CLIL	Public CLIL	Private CLIL	Charter Non-CLIL
Use of English	Public Non-CLIL		< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001
	Public CLIL	< 0.001		< 0.001	< 0.001
	Private CLIL	< 0.001	< 0.001		< 0.001
	Charter Non-CLIL	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001	
Vocabulary	Public Non-CLIL		< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001
	Public CLIL	< 0.001		< 0.001	< 0.001
	Private CLIL	< 0.001	< 0.001		< 0.001
	Charter Non-CLIL	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001	
Listening	Public Non-CLIL		< 0.001	more than 0.999	< 0.001
	Public CLIL	< 0.001		0.215	< 0.001
	Private CLIL	more than 0.999	0.215		0.014
	Charter Non-CLIL	< 0.001	< 0.001	0.014	
Reading	Public Non-CLIL		< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001
	Public CLIL	< 0.001		0.944	0.406
	Private CLIL	< 0.001	0.944		0.997
	Charter Non-CLIL	< 0.001	0.406	0.997	
Total Speaking	Public Non-CLIL		< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001
	Public CLIL	< 0.001		0.392	0.002
	Private CLIL	< 0.001	0.392		0.004
	Charter Non-CLIL	< 0.001	0.002	0.004	
Grammar Speaking	Public Non-CLIL		< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001
	Public CLIL	< 0.001		0.782	< 0.001
	Private CLIL	< 0.001	0.782		0.013

Lexical Range Speaking	Charter Non-CLIL	< 0.001	< 0.001	0.013	
	Public Non-CLIL		< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001
	Public CLIL	< 0.001		0.482	< 0.001
	Private CLIL	< 0.001	0.482		0.001
Fluency and Interaction Speaking	Charter Non-CLIL	< 0.001	< 0.001	0.001	
	Public Non-CLIL		< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001
	Public CLIL	< 0.001		0.515	0.016
	Private CLIL	< 0.001	0.516		0.022
Pronunciation	Charter Non-CLIL	< 0.001	0.016	0.022	
	Public Non-CLIL		< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001
	Public CLIL	< 0.001		0.567	< 0.001
	Private CLIL	< 0.001	0.567		0.006
Task Fulfilment	Charter Non-CLIL	< 0.001	< 0.001	0.006	
	Public Non-CLIL		< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001
	Public CLIL	< 0.001		0.553	< 0.001
	Private CLIL	< 0.001	0.553		0.001
	Charter Non-CLIL	< 0.001	< 0.001	0.001	

Table 46. Foreign language competence: comparison by type of school. Post-hoc test.

6.1.2.6 Exposure to English

The variable of extramural exposure to English was measured in the initial phase of our study. It gauged the effects that doing activities in English after school hours (such as reading, listening to music, watching films, or receiving extra FL instruction) had on the L2 competence of both CLIL and non-CLIL students. The data were compared and analysed by means of the t test, where students were divided into two groups: those who were exposed to English after school hours for more than nine hours a week, and those who were exposed to English less than nine hours a week.

The results show that exposure to English has a positive impact on L2 proficiency: those students with more weekly extramural exposure outstrip those with less exposure in all but one skill with small to medium effect sizes (cf. Table 47). The only skill in which students with less exposure overtake their peers is listening, where they obtain statistically better results, though with a small effect size (Cohen's $d = 0.159$).

Group	Skills	Exposure	Mean	Standard Deviation	Cohen's d	p value
General	Use of English	Less than 9 hours	17.46	10.83	-0.720	< 0.001
		More than 9 hours	25.76	12.14		
	Vocabulary	Less than 9 hours	8.51	3.86	-0.499	< 0.001
		More than 9 hours	10.38	3.65		
	Reading	Less than 9 hours	3.96	3.22	-0.160	0.009
		More than 9 hours	4.43	2.62		

	Listening	Less than 9 hours	7.19	4.40	0.159	0.009
		More than 9 hours	6.57	3.38		
	Total Speaking	Less than 9 hours	6.43	2.53	-0.525	< 0.001
		More than 9 hours	7.73	2.46		
	Grammar Speaking	Less than 9 hours	1.24	0.57	-0.570	< 0.001
		More than 9 hours	1.55	0.52		
	Lexical Range Speaking	Less than 9 hours	1.26	0.57	-0.554	< 0.001
		More than 9 hours	1.56	0.51		
	Fluency and Interaction Speaking	Less than 9 hours	1.25	0.57	-0.619	< 0.001
		More than 9 hours	1.58	0.49		
	Pronunciation	Less than 9 hours	1.39	0.44	-0.492	< 0.001
		More than 9 hours	1.61	0.45		
	Task Fulfilment	Less than 9 hours	1.28	0.52	-0.556	< 0.001
		More than 9 hours	1.56	0.47		

Table 47. Foreign language competence: comparison by exposure to English.

Taking now only non-CLIL students for our analysis, the results simulate those of the general group: students with more exposure to English outperform those with fewer hours of extramural exposure, with statistically significant differences (cf. Table 48). For the listening

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skill, however, as was the case with the general group, students with more exposure scored lower than those who dedicate less time to English outside school. The difference between the two groups, nonetheless, is not statistically significant. In pronunciation, the superiority of the group with extra hours of exposure was not statistically significant either.

Group	Skills	Exposure	Mean	Standard Deviation	Cohen's d	p value
Non-CLIL	Use of English	Less than 9 hours	14.61	9.57	-0.493	< 0.001
		More than 9 hours	19.72	11.41		
	Vocabulary	Less than 9 hours	7.67	3.90	-0.290	0.001
		More than 9 hours	8.79	3.79		
	Reading	Less than 9 hours	3.36	2.93	-0.167	0.048
		More than 9 hours	3.85	2.91		
	Listening	Less than 9 hours	6.80	4.55	0.031	0.708
		More than 9 hours	6.67	4.01		
	Total Speaking	Less than 9 hours	5.61	2.19	-0.495	0.005
		More than 9 hours	6.75	2.43		
	Grammar Speaking	Less than 9 hours	1.06	0.49	-0.507	0.004
		More than 9 hours	1.32	0.55		
	Lexical Range Speaking	Less than 9 hours	1.08	0.52	-0.440	0.012
		More than 9 hours	1.32	0.55		
		Less than 9 hours	1.11	0.54		

	Fluency and Interaction Speaking	More than 9 hours	1.37	0.52		
	Pronunciation	Less than 9 hours	1.26	0.39	-0.303	0.081
		More than 9 hours	1.40	0.48		
	Task Fulfilment	Less than 9 hours	1.10	0.42	-0.548	0.002
		More than 9 hours	1.35	0.50		

Table 48. Foreign language competence: comparison by exposure to English. Non-CLIL only.

Turning now to the CLIL only group, the effect of more than nine hours per week of extramural exposure is not as clear as it was with the non-CLIL and with the general groups: in this case, only the skills of use of English and vocabulary, as well as the subskill of fluency in speaking interaction are positively affected by it (cf. Table 49). Students with fewer hours of exposure outstripped those with more extramural time on reading (although the results are not statistically significant) and listening (this time, in a statistically significant manner and with an effect size of 0.460). The differences between the two groups do not reach statistical significance for speaking and most of the subskills included within.

The fact that the effect of extra hours of English outside school hours is larger on non-CLIL than on CLIL groups suggests that CLIL itself puts students in an advantaged language learning position and is, for some skills, as effective for language acquisition as spending nine or more hours per week outside school doing activities in the target language. CLIL therefore closes

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the gap between those students who have access to extramural exposure and those who do not. These results fall in line with a previous study by Lancaster (2018), where the CLIL programme on its own had greater positive effects on language proficiency than extramural exposure (specifically, foreign instruction) did on non-CLIL students. Furthermore, in Lancaster's study, when the CLIL and non-CLIL groups were compared in terms of number of hours of extramural exposure to the target language, it emerged that CLIL students dedicated more time to English outside of school than their monolingual peers.

Group	Skills	Exposure	Mean	Standard Deviation	Cohen's d	p value
CLIL	Use of English	Less than 9 hours	23.21	10.87	-0.681	< 0.001
		More than 9 hours	30.47	10.54		
	Vocabulary	Less than 9 hours	10.27	3.08	-0.451	< 0.001
		More than 9 hours	11.64	3.00		
	Reading	Less than 9 hours	5.18	3.45	0.109	0.314
		More than 9 hours	4.89	2.27		
	Listening	Less than 9 hours	8.02	3.99	0.460	< 0.001
		More than 9 hours	6.53	2.79		
	Total Speaking	Less than 9 hours	8.38	2.22	-0.127	0.565
		More than 9 hours	8.66	2.13		
	Grammar Speaking	Less than 9 hours	1.67	0.55	-0.232	0.296
		More than 9 hours	1.77	0.39		
	Lexical Range Speaking	Less than 9 hours	1.70	0.43	-0.271	0.233
		More than 9 hours	1.80	0.34		

Fluency and Interaction Speaking	Less than 9 hours	1.60	0.52	-0.450	0.045
	More than 9 hours	1.78	0.35		
Pronunciation	Less than 9 hours	1.68	0.40	-0.378	0.090
	More than 9 hours	1.81	0.29		
Task Fulfilment	Less than 9 hours	1.73	0.47	-0.074	0.737
	More than 9 hours	1.76	0.33		

Table 49. Foreign language competence: comparison by exposure to English. CLIL only.

6.1.3 Durability of effects after programme intervention

6.1.3.1 Delayed post-test results per cohort

Six months after the initial tests, secondary education students, now in their first grade of NCSE, were tested again. The results from this second battery of tests allow us to determine whether the effects of CLIL linger after the programme is discontinued.

The results (cf. Table 50) confirm that the effects of CLIL not only pervade after six months: differences between the experimental and control groups actually increase, always in favour of the CLIL students. Bilingual students outperform their monolingual counterparts in all skills and subskills tested ($p < 0.001$ in all cases) and the effect sizes are very large, especially in speaking (Cohen's $d = -2.950$) and its subskills (Cohen's d between -1.944 and 3.063), which implies that the means between the two groups are as far as three standard deviations apart

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from one another. The effects of CLIL are therefore felt even after students are no longer in a bilingual classroom.

These results fall in line with Pérez Cañado and Lancaster (2017) insofar as productive skills (the researchers found that these skills were most positively affected by the experimental programme), but contradict their results concerning receptive skills. Whereas no statistically significant differences were found in the abovementioned study, results here indicate that CLIL students in four provinces of Andalusia outperform non-CLIL students to a large extent also in the receptive skills of listening and reading (Cohen's *d* of -1.241 and -0.855 respectively).

Skills	Group	Mean	Standard Deviation	Cohen's <i>d</i>	p value
Use of English	Non-CLIL	20.38	10.19	-1.378	< 0.001
	CLIL	32.50	7.98		
Vocabulary	Non-CLIL	7.85	3.09	-1.271	< 0.001
	CLIL	11.56	2.82		
Listening	Non-CLIL	3.69	1.70	-1.241	< 0.001
	CLIL	5.58	1.42		
Reading	Non-CLIL	2.59	1.75	-0.855	< 0.001
	CLIL	4.03	1.64		
Total	Non-CLIL	34.51	14.26	-1.515	< 0.001
	CLIL	53.68	11.72		
Total Speaking	Non-CLIL	6.31	1.53	-2.950	< 0.001
	CLIL	9.41	0.79		
Grammar Speaking	Non-CLIL	1.13	0.45	-2.563	< 0.001
	CLIL	1.89	0.20		
Lexical Range Speaking	Non-CLIL	1.18	0.40	-3.063	< 0.001
	CLIL	1.94	0.15		

Fluency and Interaction Speaking	Non-CLIL	1.31	0.33	-2.047	< 0.001
	CLIL	1.85	0.23		
Pronunciation	Non-CLIL	1.31	0.25	-1.944	< 0.001
	CLIL	1.80	0.24		
Task Fulfilment	Non-CLIL	1.36	0.32	-2.312	< 0.001
	CLIL	1.91	0.19		

Table 50. Foreign language competence: delayed post-test cohort comparison.

6.1.3.2 Delayed post-test results: comparison of intervening variables

6.1.3.2.1 Area

Congruent with the results analysed in section 6.1.2.2, the differences between eastern (Granada and Almería) and western (Cádiz and Málaga) regions regarding L2 competence are not statistically significant in the delayed post-test phase of the study (cf. Table 51). In fact, the few statistically relevant differences between the two areas have disappeared, suggesting that students have levelled out over time. In this phase, the aggregate results of eastern and western CLIL and non-CLIL students, as well as the results of non-CLIL students alone, show no statistically significant differences in any skill or subskill. In the CLIL group, however, there are three exceptions: use of English, and the speaking subskills of grammatical accuracy and task fulfillment, where eastern students obtain better results than those in the western part of the region.

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Group	Skills	Area	Mean	Standard Deviation	Cohen's d	p value
General	Use of English	Eastern Andalusia	28.36	11.23	0.139	0.238
		Western Andalusia	26.86	10.61		
	Vocabulary	Eastern Andalusia	9.73	3.98	-0.063	0.619
		Western Andalusia	9.95	3.31		
	Listening	Eastern Andalusia	4.60	1.97	-0.149	0.206
		Western Andalusia	4.86	1.69		
	Reading	Eastern Andalusia	3.24	1.91	-0.109	0.356
		Western Andalusia	3.44	1.81		
	Total Speaking	Eastern Andalusia	9.00	1.65	0.398	0.249
		Western Andalusia	8.31	1.78		
	Grammar Speaking	Eastern Andalusia	1.81	0.48	0.429	0.214
		Western Andalusia	1.62	0.43		
	Lexical Range Speaking	Eastern Andalusia	1.85	0.38	0.408	0.238
		Western Andalusia	1.67	0.45		
	Fluency and Interaction Speaking	Eastern Andalusia	1.81	0.33	0.434	0.210
		Western Andalusia	1.65	0.37		
	Pronunciation	Eastern Andalusia	1.65	0.32	-0.057	0.867
		Western Andalusia	1.67	0.34		
	Task Fulfilment	Eastern Andalusia	1.88	0.30	0.577	0.098

Non-CLIL	Use of English	Western Andalusia	1.69	0.35			
		Eastern Andalusia	19.78	11.96	-0.075	0.752	
	Vocabulary	Western Andalusia	20.55	9.70			
		Eastern Andalusia	7.48	3.70	-0.156	0.513	
	Listening	Western Andalusia	7.96	2.90			
		Eastern Andalusia	3.30	2.16	-0.297	0.214	
	Reading	Western Andalusia	3.81	1.54			
		Eastern Andalusia	2.61	1.90	0.011	0.964	
	Total Speaking	Western Andalusia	2.59	1.72			
		Eastern Andalusia	5.50	1.41	-0.640	0.434	
	Grammar Speaking	Western Andalusia	6.50	1.58			
		Eastern Andalusia	0.75	0.35	-1.093	0.196	
	Lexical Range Speaking	Western Andalusia	1.22	0.44			
		Eastern Andalusia	1.00	0.00	-0.535	0.511	
	Fluency and Interaction Speaking	Western Andalusia	1.22	0.44			
		Eastern Andalusia	1.25	0.35	-0.236	0.770	
	Pronunciation	Western Andalusia	1.33	0.35			
		Eastern Andalusia	1.25	0.35	-0.316	0.695	
			Western Andalusia	1.33	0.25		

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CLIL	Task Fulfilment	Eastern Andalusia	1.25	0.35	-0.414	0.609
		Western Andalusia	1.39	0.33		
	Use of English	Eastern Andalusia	34.73	6.99	0.374	0.026
		Western Andalusia	31.78	8.17		
	Vocabulary	Eastern Andalusia	12.15	2.90	0.277	0.097
		Western Andalusia	11.37	2.78		
	Listening	Eastern Andalusia	5.56	1.50	-0.021	0.908
		Western Andalusia	5.59	1.40		
	Reading	Eastern Andalusia	3.83	1.94	-0.159	0.339
		Western Andalusia	4.10	1.54		
	Total Speaking	Eastern Andalusia	9.64	0.39	0.472	0.233
		Western Andalusia	9.26	0.95		
	Grammar Speaking	Eastern Andalusia	2.00	0.00	0.913	0.026
		Western Andalusia	1.82	0.25		
	Lexical Range Speaking	Eastern Andalusia	2.00	0.00	0.572	0.151
		Western Andalusia	1.91	0.20		
	Fluency and Interaction Speaking	Eastern Andalusia	1.91	0.20	0.371	0.346
		Western Andalusia	1.82	0.25		
	Pronunciation	Eastern Andalusia	1.73	0.26	-0.512	0.197

		Western Andalusia	1.85	0.23		
	Task Fulfilment	Eastern Andalusia	2.00	0.00	0.798	0.020
		Western Andalusia	1.85	0.23		

Table 51. Foreign language competence: delayed post-test cohort comparison by area.

6.1.3.2.2 Setting

With regards to setting (rural or urban), six months after the initial tests were carried out, urban students still outperform rural students on all skills tested with medium to large effect sizes (cf. Table 52). However, the results for speaking and its subskills when both CLIL and non-CLIL students are considered are not conclusive (except for pronunciation, where urban students outstrip their rural counterparts with a large effect size of -1.023). Given that the results from six months earlier in the general group (CLIL and non-CLIL) were statistically significant in favour of urban students for all skills and subskills tested, it seems reasonable to conclude that, over the six-month span, rural students have been able to catch up with students from urban areas in the speaking skills and subskills (except for pronunciation) in the target language.

Group	Skills	Setting	Mean	Standard Deviation	Cohen's d	p value
General	Use of English	Rural	24.40	10.94	-0.609	< 0.001
		Urban	30.70	9.61		
	Vocabulary	Rural	8.63	3.28	-0.841	< 0.001
		Urban	11.35	3.19		

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Listening	Rural	4.18	1.82	-0.795	< 0.001
	Urban	5.50	1.45		
Reading	Rural	2.85	1.79	-0.658	< 0.001
	Urban	4.00	1.71		
Total Speaking	Rural	7.85	2.01	-0.611	0.080
	Urban	8.88	1.53		
Grammar Speaking	Rural	1.54	0.52	-0.474	0.171
	Urban	1.75	0.41		
Lexical Range Speaking	Rural	1.62	0.42	-0.408	0.238
	Urban	1.79	0.43		
Fluency and Interaction Speaking	Rural	1.62	0.42	-0.378	0.273
	Urban	1.75	0.32		
Pronunciation	Rural	1.46	0.32	-1.023	0.005
	Urban	1.77	0.29		
Task Fulfilment	Rural	1.62	0.42	-0.640	0.068
	Urban	1.83	0.28		

Table 52. Foreign language competence: delayed post-test cohort comparison by setting.

As far as non-CLIL students are concerned, the balance still tilts in favour of urban students in a statistically significant manner for the skills of use of English, vocabulary, listening, and the subskill of pronunciation (cf. Table 53). In reading, speaking, and the subskills tested within speaking, however, even though urban students still outperform rural ones, the results are not statistically significant. These results support the abovementioned hypothesis that rural students have been able to step up their game and get closer to urban students, therefore closing the gap caused by setting.

Group	Skills	Setting	Mean	Standard Deviation	Cohen's d	p value
Non-CLIL	Use of English	Rural	18.53	9.00	-0.734	0.002
		Urban	25.69	11.68		
	Vocabulary	Rural	7.40	2.87	-0.583	0.012
		Urban	9.15	3.38		
	Listening	Rural	3.45	1.71	-0.561	0.015
		Urban	4.38	1.50		
	Reading	Rural	2.43	1.68	-0.375	0.103
		Urban	3.08	1.90		
	Total Speaking	Rural	5.38	1.11	-1.047	0.129
		Urban	6.86	1.55		
	Grammar Speaking	Rural	0.88	0.25	-0.969	0.156
		Urban	1.29	0.49		
	Lexical Range Speaking	Rural	1.13	0.25	-0.211	0.744
		Urban	1.21	0.49		
	Fluency and Interaction Speaking	Rural	1.13	0.25	-0.959	0.160
		Urban	1.43	0.35		
	Pronunciation	Rural	1.13	0.25	-1.437	0.048
		Urban	1.43	0.19		
	Task Fulfilment	Rural	1.13	0.25	-1.357	0.059
		Urban	1.50	0.29		

Table 53. Foreign language competence: delayed post-test cohort comparison by setting. Non-CLIL only.

When CLIL students only are considered, statistically significant differences arise between rural and urban students, in favour of the latter, for vocabulary, listening, reading, speaking,

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and the subskills within speaking of lexical range and pronunciation (cf. Table 54). In use of English, however, both groups show similar outcomes. In fact, rural students obtain slightly higher results, although the differences between the two groups are so slim that no statistically significant differences surface. Once more, rural students have been able to reach the competence level of their urban counterparts in the delayed post-test phase of the study. Statistically significant differences between the two groups arise for the skills of reading and listening (which did not cause statistically relevant dissimilarities in the post-test phase).

Group	Skills	Setting	Mean	Standard Deviation	Cohen's d	p value
CLIL	Use of English	Rural	32.54	7.22	0.008	0.959
		Urban	32.48	8.45		
	Vocabulary	Rural	10.65	2.75	-0.536	< 0.001
		Urban	12.12	2.73		
	Listening	Rural	5.22	1.61	-0.425	0.004
		Urban	5.81	1.25		
	Reading	Rural	3.66	1.68	-0.366	0.014
		Urban	4.26	1.58		
	Total Speaking	Rural	8.94	1.10	-0.932	0.030
		Urban	9.63	0.50		
	Grammar Speaking	Rural	1.83	0.25	-0.420	0.308
		Urban	1.92	0.19		
	Lexical Range Speaking	Rural	1.83	0.25	-1.202	0.006
		Urban	2.00	0.00		
	Fluency and Interaction Speaking	Rural	1.83	0.25	-0.150	0.714
		Urban	1.87	0.23		
	Pronunciation	Rural	1.61	0.22	-1.332	0.003

	Task Fulfilment	Urban	1.89	0.21	-0.597	0.152
		Rural	1.83	0.25		
		Urban	1.95	0.16		

Table 54. Foreign language competence: delayed post-test cohort comparison by setting. CLIL only.

6.1.3.2.3 Socio-economic status

As was the case in section 6.1.2.4, differences in SES lead to different competence in L2 skills, in favour of those with a higher socio-economic status. In this case, due to sample size, it was not possible to draw conclusions from a three-tier comparison, and the two SES compared are low and medium (cf. Table 55). However, it is clear that medium SES students are statistically more proficient than those from lower SES backgrounds on use of English, vocabulary, listening, and reading. Nonetheless, no statistically significant differences arose between the two groups for the skill of speaking or any of its subskills, even though the mean score of students of medium SES is consistently higher than that of their low SES peers. It is possible, therefore, that over the 6-month period, low SES students were able to catch up with students from medium SES backgrounds on the skill of speaking (and all of its subskills).

Group	Skills	Group	Mean	Standard Deviation	Cohen's d	p value
General	Use of English	Low	21.64	10.79	-0.855	< 0.001
		Medium	30.39	10.00		
	Vocabulary	Low	8.20	3.29	-0.834	< 0.001
		Medium	10.94	3.27		
	Listening	Low	4.06	1.86	-0.670	< 0.001
		Medium	5.21	1.65		

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Reading	Low	2.52	1.90	-0.738	< 0.001
	Medium	3.82	1.70		
Total Speaking	Low	8.00	2.61	-0.340	0.523
	Medium	8.60	1.67		
Grammar Speaking	Low	1.50	0.71	-0.441	0.408
	Medium	1.70	0.42		
Lexical Range Speaking	Low	1.63	0.48	-0.273	0.607
	Medium	1.74	0.43		
Fluency and Interaction Speaking	Low	1.63	0.48	-0.247	0.642
	Medium	1.71	0.35		
Pronunciation	Low	1.63	0.48	-0.138	0.794
	Medium	1.67	0.32		
Task Fulfilment	Low	1.63	0.48	-0.427	0.424
	Medium	1.77	0.33		

Table 55. Foreign language competence: delayed post-test cohort comparison by SES.

Taking now only non-CLIL students into consideration, there are no statistically significant differences between low and medium SES students in use of English, vocabulary, and reading (cf. Table 56). However, for listening, these differences arise between the two groups in favour of students from a medium socio-economic background. Six months earlier, nevertheless, statistical differences arose for every tested skill, implying that students from low SES backgrounds have been able to narrow the gap between the two. Due to sample size, statistical comparisons were not possible for the skill of speaking or any of its subskills.

Group	Skills	SES	Mean	Standard Deviation	Cohen's d	p value
Non-CLIL	Use of English	Low	18.29	9.23	-0.357	0.087
		Medium	21.98	11.08		
	Vocabulary	Low	7.07	2.85	-0.398	0.057
		Medium	8.29	3.21		
	Listening	Low	3.17	1.67	-0.535	0.011
		Medium	4.05	1.64		
	Reading	Low	2.27	1.69	-0.326	0.118
		Medium	2.84	1.78		

Table 56. Foreign language competence: delayed post-test cohort comparison by SES. Non-CLIL only.

Turning now to the analysis of results obtained by CLIL students only, we can observe that statistically significant differences arise in the skills of use of English, vocabulary, and reading, always in favour of students from a higher SES (cf. Table 57). Six months earlier, there were no differences in reading between the two groups. A close analysis of the data, however, reveals that both groups have actually obtained lower grades in reading than they did six months earlier. This is the case also for vocabulary (only low SES students), and listening (both SES groups analysed). The effects of CLIL have been watered down over this period for these skills. However, students from both socio-economic backgrounds have kept evolving during this time in use of English and speaking (as well as in all its subskills). As seen above in section 6.1.3.2.2, concerning setting, the effects of the CLIL programme also petered out in the delayed post-test phase for listening and reading.

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Group	Skills	SES	Mean	Standard Deviation	Cohen's d	p value
CLIL	Use of English	Low	28.15	9.86	-0.694	< 0.001
		Medium	33.58	7.32		
	Vocabulary	Low	9.94	3.23	-0.708	< 0.001
		Medium	11.91	2.68		
	Listening	Low	5.36	1.43	-0.185	0.338
		Medium	5.63	1.44		
	Reading	Low	3.24	2.05	-0.589	0.016
		Medium	4.19	1.50		
	Total Speaking	Low	9.17	1.44	-0.340	0.776
		Medium	9.44	0.73		
	Grammar Speaking	Low	1.83	0.29	-0.315	0.611
		Medium	1.90	0.20		
	Lexical Range Speaking	Low	1.83	0.29	-0.816	0.528
		Medium	1.96	0.14		
	Fluency and Interaction Speaking	Low	1.83	0.29	-0.114	0.854
		Medium	1.86	0.23		
	Pronunciation	Low	1.83	0.29	0.132	0.831
		Medium	1.80	0.25		
	Task Fulfilment	Low	1.83	0.29	-0.440	0.477
		Medium	1.92	0.19		

Table 57. Foreign language competence: delayed post-test cohort comparison by SES. CLIL only.

6.1.3.2.4 Type of school

The results of the delayed post-test phase evince that statistically significant differences arise between the four types of school studied: public non-CLIL, charter non-CLIL, public CLIL, and private CLIL (cf. Table 58). In the case of vocabulary and listening, private CLIL schools come

out on top, followed by charter non-CLIL schools, and then by public CLIL schools. Public non-CLIL schools are always at the bottom. However, in use of English and reading, charter non-CLIL schools overtake private CLIL schools, with medium to large effect sizes (Eta squared = 0.205 for reading, and Eta squared = 0.369 for use of English).

Turning now to speaking and the subskills subsumed within it, it emerges that public CLIL schools take second place after private CLIL schools in lexical range, fluency, pronunciation and task fulfillment³⁵. However, students from public CLIL schools outperform those from private CLIL schools with regards to grammatical accuracy when speaking.

Skills	Type and Group	Mean	Standard Deviation	Eta Squared	p value
Use of English	Public Non-CLIL	19.47	9.59	0.369	< 0.001
	Charter Non-CLIL	37.80	4.02		
	Public CLIL	31.64	8.33		
	Private CLIL	36.31	4.70		
Vocabulary	Public Non-CLIL	7.65	2.98	0.329	< 0.001
	Charter Non-CLIL	11.80	2.59		
	Public CLIL	11.18	2.85		
	Private CLIL	13.25	1.99		
Listening	Public Non-CLIL	3.59	1.65	0.315	< 0.001
	Charter Non-CLIL	5.60	1.67		
	Public CLIL	5.39	1.48		
	Private CLIL	6.44	0.65		
Reading	Public Non-CLIL	2.47	1.69	0.205	< 0.001

³⁵ Due to sample size, charter non-CLIL schools were not included in the analysis of the speaking subskills.

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Total Speaking	Charter Non-CLIL	5.00	1.00	0.652	< 0.001
	Public CLIL	3.84	1.71		
	Private CLIL	4.86	0.93		
Grammar Speaking	Public Non-CLIL	6.32	1.54	0.593	< 0.001
	Public CLIL	9.35	0.88		
	Private CLIL	9.56	0.56		
Lexical Range Speaking	Public Non-CLIL	1.14	0.45	0.672	< 0.001
	Public CLIL	1.93	0.18		
	Private CLIL	1.81	0.26		
Fluency and Interaction Speaking	Public Non-CLIL	1.18	0.40	0.473	< 0.001
	Public CLIL	1.93	0.18		
	Private CLIL	2.00	0.00		
Pronunciation	Public Non-CLIL	1.32	0.34	0.460	< 0.001
	Public CLIL	1.85	0.24		
	Private CLIL	1.88	0.23		
Task Fulfilment	Public Non-CLIL	1.32	0.25	0.553	< 0.001
	Public CLIL	1.78	0.26		
	Private CLIL	1.88	0.23		
Task Fulfilment	Public Non-CLIL	1.36	0.32	0.553	< 0.001
	Public CLIL	1.88	0.22		
	Private CLIL	2.00	0.00		

Table 58. Foreign language competence: delayed post-test cohort comparison by type of school.

The post-hoc analysis (cf. Table 59) yields revealing results concerning the statistically significant differences in L2 competence by type of school: most statistical differences arise between public non-CLIL and all the other three types of school (in detriment of public non-CLIL schools, which always come last in the comparison), and between private and public CLIL

schools, which implies that public CLIL schools are significantly lagging behind private CLIL schools in the skills of use of English, vocabulary, listening, and reading. However, focusing on the speaking results (as well as all subskills embedded in it), differences between public CLIL and private CLIL schools are not statistically significant, which indicates that both groups are not as far apart from each other in speaking skills as in the other skills tested (cf. Table 60).

Skills	Type and Group	Public Non-CLIL	Charter Non-CLIL	Public CLIL	Private CLIL
Use of English	Public Non-CLIL		< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001
	Charter Non-CLIL	< 0.001		0.371	0.982
	Public CLIL	< 0.001	0.371		0.015
	Private CLIL	< 0.001	0.982	0.015	
Vocabulary	Public Non-CLIL		0.007	< 0.001	< 0.001
	Charter Non-CLIL	0.007		0.961	0.699
	Public CLIL	< 0.001	0.961		< 0.001
	Private CLIL	< 0.001	0.699	< 0.001	
Listening	Public Non-CLIL		0.017	< 0.001	< 0.001
	Charter Non-CLIL	0.017		0.989	0.625
	Public CLIL	< 0.001	0.989		0.001
	Private CLIL	< 0.001	0.625	0.001	
Reading	Public Non-CLIL		0.004	< 0.001	< 0.001
	Charter Non-CLIL	0.004		0.398	0.998
	Public CLIL	< 0.001	0.398		0.004
	Private CLIL	< 0.001	0.998	0.004	

Table 59. Foreign language competence: comparison by type of school. Delayed post-test post-hoc analysis.

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Skills	Type and Group	Public Non-CLIL	Public CLIL	Private CLIL
Total Speaking	Public Non-CLIL		< 0.001	< 0.001
	Public CLIL	< 0.001		0.881
	Private CLIL	< 0.001	0.881	
Grammar Speaking	Public Non-CLIL		< 0.001	< 0.001
	Public CLIL	< 0.001		0.638
	Private CLIL	< 0.001	0.638	
Lexical Range Speaking	Public Non-CLIL		< 0.001	< 0.001
	Public CLIL	< 0.001		0.757
	Private CLIL	< 0.001	0.757	
Fluency and Interaction Speaking	Public Non-CLIL		< 0.001	< 0.001
	Public CLIL	< 0.001		0.973
	Private CLIL	< 0.001	0.973	
Pronunciation	Public Non-CLIL		< 0.001	< 0.001
	Public CLIL	< 0.001		0.609
	Private CLIL	< 0.001	0.609	
Task Fulfilment	Public Non-CLIL		< 0.001	< 0.001
	Public CLIL	< 0.001		0.419
	Private CLIL	< 0.001	0.419	

Table 60. Foreign language competence (speaking only): comparison by type of school. Delayed post-test post-hoc analysis.

6.1.3.3 Post- to delayed post-test comparison

We turn now to analyse the evolution from the post-test to the delayed post-test phase, in order to gain a better understanding of the effects of the passing of time (six months) on L2 competence after the CLIL programme is discontinued. Considering both CLIL and non-CLIL students, we can observe that they have evolved favourably over this period of time in all skills (cf. Table 61). Means are higher in the delayed post-test phase, for each skill, than they were six months earlier. However, in the case of reading, the difference between the two means (before and after) is not statistically significant, which implies that the competence differential between the two periods might be due to error, not to real advances on this front. Effect sizes are small to medium, the largest being -0.340 for listening (Cohen's *d*).

Group	Skills	Mean	Standard Deviation	Cohen's <i>d</i>	p value
General	Use of English Before	30.30	10.40	-0.106	0.005
	Use of English After	31.36	9.64		
	Vocabulary Before	10.48	3.44	-0.189	0.001
	Vocabulary After	11.12	3.27		
	Reading Before	3.80	1.80	-0.049	0.506
	Reading After	3.88	1.77		
	Listening Before	4.77	1.82	-0.340	< 0.001
	Listening After	5.36	1.67		

Table 61. Foreign language competence: post to delayed post-test comparison.

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In the non-CLIL group only, a similar pattern emerges: there is improvement in all skills, but statistically significant differences are not found in either reading or use of English (cf. Table 62). Once again, the largest effect size (Cohen's $d = -0.405$) is found for listening, which is also the skill with the lowest p value (0.008).

Group	Skills	Mean	Standard Deviation	Cohen's d	p value
Non-CLIL	Use of English Before	20.41	11.79	-0.154	0.063
	Use of English After	22.12	10.47		
	Vocabulary Before	7.57	3.28	-0.238	0.043
	Vocabulary After	8.33	3.06		
	Reading Before	2.63	1.70	-0.130	0.344
	Reading After	2.85	1.83		
	Listening Before	3.02	1.74	-0.405	0.008
	Listening After	3.73	1.79		

Table 62. Foreign language competence: post to delayed post-test comparison. Non-CLIL only.

In the case of CLIL students only, the evolution is slightly more favourable, since only the evolution of the students' reading skill does not yield statistically significant differences (cf. Table 63). Use of English, on the contrary, has evolved in a statistically significant manner (p value = 0.015), although with a small effect size (Cohen's $d = -0.145$). The largest effect size is, once again, found in the comparison of the students' listening skills before and after (Cohen's $d = 0.465$), and with a very small chance of error (p value < 0.001). Therefore, it seems that

listening is the skill on which all students (CLIL and non-CLIL) evolve more after six months have passed from the initial tests.

Group	Skills	Mean	Standard Deviation	Cohen's d	p value
CLIL	Use of English Before	34.28	6.73	-0.145	0.015
	Use of English After	35.21	6.08		
	Vocabulary Before	11.73	2.71	-0.197	0.022
	Vocabulary After	12.25	2.62		
	Reading Before	4.29	1.56	-0.037	0.718
	Reading After	4.35	1.55		
	Listening Before	5.40	1.36	-0.465	< 0.001
	Listening After	5.99	1.17		

Table 63. Foreign language competence: post to delayed post-test comparison. CLIL only.

6.2 Effects of CLIL on L1 competence

After having reviewed the effects that the CLIL programme has on FL proficiency, we will now determine whether the bilingual programme has any effects (positive or negative) on L1 competence, given the reduction of the number of hours that students are exposed to their native tongue in class in favour of extra exposure to the L2. As stated in section 4.3.4, L1 competence was measured through school grades in the subject of Spanish. For this analysis, we will first provide an overall description of L1 competence in both groups combined, in CLIL

only and non-CLIL only groups, and then we will isolate certain variables in order to determine whether they account for statistically significant differences within the groups.

6.2.1 L1 competence: cohort comparison

At first sight, we can conclude that following or not a CLIL programme does not exert a negative influence on students' L1 competence, as has been pointed out earlier in numerous studies (Bergroth, 2006; Merisuo-Storm, 2007; Seikkula-Leino, 2007; Ramos *et al.*, 2011; Merino & Lasagabaster, 2015; Pérez Cañado, 2018e; San Isidro, 2017; Madrid & Barrios, 2018; Pascual Bajo, 2018; Lorenzo, 2019). When primary and secondary education students are considered as a group, CLIL students actually outperform their non-CLIL peers. However, the effect size is small (Cohen's $d = -0.093$), and the differences are not statistically significant (p value = 0.269).

In primary school students, in turn, non-CLIL students obtain slightly better results for the subject of Spanish than CLIL students (cf. Table 64). Nonetheless, the differences are far from statistically significant (p value = 0.907), and the effect size is very small (Cohen's $d = 0.018$). Therefore, the differences between the means might be due to statistical error. In CSE, however, CLIL students actually overtake their non-CLIL peers in Spanish, and the difference is statistically significant (p value = 0.008). This indicates that CLIL not only does not hinder Spanish competence: it actually helps raise it.

Educational Level	Group	Mean	Standard Deviation	Cohen's d	p value
General	Non-CLIL	6.69	1.86	-0.093	0.269
	CLIL	6.86	1.76		
Primary Education	Non-CLIL	7.27	1.71	0.018	0.907
	CLIL	7.24	1.58		
Secondary Education	Non-CLIL	6.23	1.85	-0.276	0.008
	CLIL	6.73	1.81		

Table 64. L1 competence: post-test cohort comparison.

6.2.2 L1 competence: differential effect of intervening variables on L1 competence

We turn now to determine the effect of each intervening variable on overall competence, and to analyse whether statistically significant differences arise between the cohorts due to gender, area, setting, SES, type of school, and exposure to English.

6.2.2.1 Gender

In the general group, made up by CLIL and non-CLIL students, female students obtain a significantly higher mean than male students, thus demonstrating their superiority in L1 competence (cf. Table 65). The effect size is small (Cohen's $d = -0.269$) and the p value is 0.001. When only non-CLIL students are selected for the analysis, no statistically significant differences emerge between male and female students, despite the fact that female students

also outperform their male counterparts. As far as CLIL students only are concerned, female students outstrip males across the board, obtaining higher results in L1, which are backed up statistically (Cohen's $d = -0.383$, p value = 0.004). It seems, therefore, safe to state that female students display a better command of their L1 skills than their male peers.

Group	Gender	Mean	Standard Deviation	Cohen's d	p value
General	Male	6.49	1.83	-0.269	0.001
	Female	6.97	1.79		
Non-CLIL	Male	6.50	1.86	-0.199	0.060
	Female	6.87	1.84		
CLIL	Male	6.52	1.78	-0.383	0.004
	Female	7.18	1.69		

Table 65. L1 competence: comparison by gender.

6.2.2.2 Area

No statistically significant differences arise for L1 competence when comparing eastern and western Andalusian provinces, which means that students in the eastern provinces of Granada and Almería and those in the western provinces of Málaga and Cádiz are equally proficient in their command of Spanish language (cf. Table 66).

Group	Area	Mean	Standard Deviation	Cohen's d	p value
General	Eastern Andalusia	6.70	1.82	-0.034	0.679
	Western Andalusia	6.76	1.83		
Non-CLIL	Eastern Andalusia	6.55	1.81	-0.131	0.223
	Western Andalusia	6.79	1.89		
CLIL	Eastern Andalusia	7.08	1.79	0.202	0.132
	Western Andalusia	6.72	1.74		

Table 66. L1 competence: comparison by area.

6.2.2.3 Setting

Concerning setting, the results evince that students from urban areas outperform those in a rural environment, when both CLIL and non-CLIL are taken into account (Cohen's $d = -0.194$; p value = 0.026), and when only non-CLIL students are considered (cf. Table 67). The differences are larger in the non-CLIL only group, with a medium effect size (Cohen's $d = -0.643$) and a very small p value (< 0.001). Therefore, it can be inferred that urban students outperform rural students in their L1 competence, more so when there is no CLIL provision.

In CLIL students only, the picture is reverted: rural students obtain a higher mean than urban students, although this difference between the two groups is not statistically significant. It appears, therefore, that the CLIL programme has acted here as a leveller between the two

settings, favouring those who were initially at a disadvantage (tallying with Pavón Vázquez, 2018).

Group	Setting	Mean	Standard Deviation	Cohen's d	p value
General	Rural	6.50	1.77	-0.194	0.026
	Urban	6.85	1.84		
Non-CLIL	Rural	5.77	1.64	-0.643	< 0.001
	Urban	6.93	1.84		
CLIL	Rural	7.03	1.67	0.188	0.151
	Urban	6.69	1.85		

Table 67. L1 competence: comparison by setting.

6.2.2.4 Socio-economic status

The results show that, in all three groups (CLIL and non-CLIL, non-CLIL only, and CLIL only), SES plays an important factor: the higher the SES, the higher the mean score obtained by each group in L1 (cf. Table 68). The differences are statistically significant between low, medium, and high SES groups for the general (CLIL and non-CLIL) and the non-CLIL only groups, as the post hoc Tukey HSD comparison reveals (cf. Table 69).

For the CLIL only group, however, statistically significant differences arise only between the low and high SES students, which means that the differences are not as marked as in the other two groups. In fact, the effect size (Eta Squared) is the lowest of the three groups (0.041). A quick look at the means obtained by all three groups also reveals that, in the CLIL only group,

those with low SES score higher on average than low SES students in the general and non-CLIL only groups. Therefore, as was the case for L2 proficiency (cf. section 6.1.2.4), the CLIL programme has had a levelling effect for SES, minimising differences between the groups. These findings coincide with the existing literature (Rascón Moreno & Bretones Callejas, 2018).

Group	SES	Mean	Standard Deviation	Eta Squared	p value
General	Low	5.92	1.70	0.099	< 0.001
	Medium	6.62	1.77		
	High	7.31	1.75		
Non-CLIL	Low	5.59	1.57	0.151	< 0.001
	Medium	6.51	1.86		
	High	7.35	1.72		
CLIL	Low	6.42	1.77	0.041	0.009
	Medium	6.81	1.62		
	High	7.28	1.81		

Table 68. L1 competence: comparison by SES.

Group	SES	Low	Medium	High
General	Low		0.001	< 0.001
	Medium	0.001		< 0.001
	High		< 0.001	< 0.001
Non-CLIL	Low		0.001	< 0.001
	Medium	0.001		0.001

CLIL	High	0.001	0.001	
	Low		0.396	0.007
	Medium	0.396		0.213
	High	0.007	0.213	

Table 69. L1 competence: comparison by SES. Post-hoc test.

6.2.2.5 Type of school

Due to sample size, it was not possible to factor in private CLIL schools for this comparison. Nonetheless, the results for the other three types of schools considered show that charter non-CLIL schools come on top concerning L1 competence, followed by public CLIL schools (cf. Table 70). Public non-CLIL schools obtained the lowest mean score. These results differ from those obtained for L2 competence (cf. section 6.1.2.5) in that, for L2 competence, public CLIL schools were second, by mean score, following private CLIL schools. For the L1, however, they are surpassed by charter non-CLIL schools (as was also found by Ramos *et al.* in 2011 and by Madrid and Barrios in 2018). In our study, the differences between these two types of schools, nonetheless, as the post hoc Tukey HSD test reveals, are not statistically significant (cf. Table 71). Additionally, the differences between CLIL and non-CLIL public schools are also statistically significant, which implies that the CLIL programme not only has not had damaging effects on L1 competence, but has improved students' L1 in a statistically significant manner. No detrimental effects can be reported on Spanish competence as a result of the CLIL programme.

Type and Group	Mean	Standard Deviation	Eta Squared	p value
Public Non-CLIL	5.99	1.79	0.067	< 0.001
Public CLIL	6.86	1.76		
Charter Non-CLIL	7.19	1.74		

Table 70. L1 competence: comparison by type of school.

Type and Group	Public Non-CLIL	Public CLIL	Charter Non-CLIL
Public Non-CLIL		< 0.001	< 0.001
Public CLIL	< 0.001		0.112
Charter Non-CLIL	< 0.001	0.112	

Table 71. L1 competence: comparison by type of school. Post-hoc test.

6.2.2.6 Exposure to English

The number of hours of exposure to English is the last of the intervening variables considered in this analysis. By looking into it, we aim to determine whether exposure to the foreign language has any positive or negative effects on the L1.

In all three groups, students with an extramural exposure to English of more than nine hours per week outperform those with a lesser exposure (cf. Table 72). However, the differences between the two groups are statistically significant only for the general (both CLIL and non-CLIL students combined) and non-CLIL only groups. In the CLIL only group, however, the number of hours of exposure to English outside school does not yield any statistically

significant differences, which implies that, in a CLIL context, having more hours of input to English does not necessarily affect performance in the L1. The effect size is very small (Cohen's $d = -0.087$). This means that the difference between the two averages (more and less than nine hours of extramural exposure to the L2) is almost non-existent. Furthermore, the mean score of CLIL students with less extramural exposure is the highest of the three groups analysed. The CLIL programme has therefore reduced the differences in the L1 that are due to this variable.

Group	Exposure	Mean	Standard Deviation	Cohen's d	p value
General	Less than 9 hours	6.58	1.81	-0.180	0.028
	more than 9 hours	6.91	1.84		
Non-CLIL	Less than 9 hours	6.53	1.86	-0.210	0.050
	more than 9 hours	6.92	1.83		
CLIL	Less than 9 hours	6.77	1.65	-0.087	0.511
	more than 9 hours	6.93	1.85		

Table 72. L1 competence: comparison by exposure to English.

6.3 Effects of CLIL on NLA content acquisition

Once the effects of CLIL on L2 and L1 have been reviewed, we turn now to analyse whether following or not a CLIL programme has any repercussions on the learning of the content taught through the foreign language. For that matter, we will first provide an overview of the effects

of CLIL on the subject of Science in primary and secondary education, and then we will delve into the intervening variables in order to identify which ones give rise to statistically significant differences between the groups.

6.3.1 NLA content acquisition: cohort comparison

At first sight, the lack of statistically significant differences between the CLIL and non-CLIL groups in primary or secondary education (as well as in both of these educational levels combined) suggests that CLIL has neither positive nor negative effects on the learning of Science, taught via the FL (cf. Table 73). CLIL students perform equally well than their monolingual peers, coinciding with previous studies in which CLIL students either matched non-CLIL students' results or outperformed them (Stotz & Meuter, 2003; Jäppinen, 2005; Admiraal *et al.*, 2006; Bergroth, 2006; Gassner & Maillat, 2006; Stehler, 2006; Serra, 2007; Mattheoudakis *et al.*, 2014; Dallinger *et al.*, 2016; Lorenzo, 2019).

Nonetheless, taking a closer look, and leaving statistical significance aside for a moment, we can discern that CLIL students, in both the combined (primary and secondary) as well as in primary education groups, obtained slightly worse results than non-CLIL students. However, these differences disappeared by the end of secondary education, and no concluding evidence has been found that CLIL is detrimental to NLA learning.

Educational Level	Group	Mean	Standard Deviation	Cohen's d	p value
General	Non-CLIL	7.13	1.79	0.086	0.322
	CLIL	6.97	1.91		
Primary Education	Non-CLIL	7.48	1.65	0.082	0.589
	CLIL	7.34	1.80		
Secondary Education	Non-CLIL	6.83	1.86	-0.003	0.976
	CLIL	6.83	1.94		

Table 73. NLA content acquisition: post-test cohort comparison.

6.3.2 NLA content acquisition: differential effect of intervening variables

6.3.2.1 Gender

Our results show that no differences emerge due to the gender variable with regards to Science learning, either in CLIL or in non-CLIL groups. The balance is slightly tilted towards women, but the differences are not statistically significant. We can therefore conclude that, when Science learning is concerned, the differences between the genders are minimal regardless of the CLIL programme (cf. Table 74).

Group	Gender	Mean	Standard Deviation	Cohen's d	p value
General	Male	6.94	1.87	-0.109	0.195
	Female	7.14	1.83		

Non-CLIL	Male	7.11	1.82	-0.024	0.821
	Female	7.15	1.77		
CLIL	Male	6.75	1.89	-0.219	0.112
	Female	7.17	1.91		

Table 74. NLA content acquisition: comparison by gender.

6.3.2.2 Area

Moving now to the variable of geographical area (eastern or western Andalusia), statistically significant arise between eastern and western Andalusia in favour of the latter when both CLIL and non-CLIL groups are considered, as well as in the non-CLIL group only. It appears, therefore, that students in the western part of the region acquire better the content taught in the subject of Science, and do so in a statistically significant manner. Nonetheless, in the CLIL only group, even though students in western Andalusia perform slightly better than those in eastern Andalusia, the differences are not statistically relevant ($p = 0.452$), and the effect size is small (-0.104). It seems, thus, that the CLIL programme has wiped out most existing differences between the eastern and western provinces with regards to learning Science, as Table 75 shows.

Group	Area	Mean	Standard Deviation	Cohen's d	p value
General	Eastern Andalusia	6.81	1.97	-0.224	0.010
	Western Andalusia	7.23	1.73		

Non-CLIL	Eastern Andalusia	6.86	1.88	-0.261	0.019
	Western Andalusia	7.33	1.70		
CLIL	Eastern Andalusia	6.86	2.09	-0.104	0.452
	Western Andalusia	7.06	1.76		

Table 75. NLA content acquisition: comparison by area.

6.3.2.3 Setting

Regarding setting, i.e., whether the schools are located in a rural or urban area, in both general (CLIL and non-CLIL) and non-CLIL only groups, there are statistical differences between the rural and urban students concerning Science learning (cf. Table 76). In other words, urban students outperform rural students in a statistically significant manner in the subject of Science. In the case of the non-CLIL group, the p value is very small (< 0.001) and the effect size, large (Cohen's $d = -0.769$).

However, the picture is, once more, reverted when only CLIL students are considered: rural students do not only catch up with their urban peers: they actually overtake them in their Science grades, although this difference is not statistically significant. This finding tallies with the results obtained by Pavón Vázquez (2018) where, by the end of CSE, rural students outperformed their urban counterparts in the learning of Natural Science, which was delivered in English. Nonetheless, in Pavón Vázquez's study, the differences between the two groups were statistically significant, which is not our case.

Group	Setting	Mean	Standard Deviation	Cohen's d	p value
General	Rural	6.62	1.87	-0.320	0.001
	Urban	7.21	1.81		
Non-CLIL	Rural	6.02	1.70	-0.769	< 0.001
	Urban	7.35	1.73		
CLIL	Rural	7.04	1.85	0.066	0.631
	Urban	6.92	1.96		

Table 76. NLA content acquisition: comparison by setting.

6.3.2.4 Socio-economic status

Socio-economic status presents itself once again as a variable that gives rise to statistically significant differences between the cohorts. Typically, those students with higher SES obtain higher means, and that is the case for Science among the general (CLIL and non-CLIL) and non-CLIL only groups, with statistically significant differences ($p < 0.001$), as can be seen in Table 77 below. In the CLIL only group, nonetheless, students with low SES actually outperform students with medium SES in the subject of Science. Students with high SES remain the strongest of the three. Similar results where low SES students outperformed medium SES students in the CLIL branches were found in another study (Rascón Moreno & Bretones Callejas, 2018).

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The post hoc analysis reveals that, whereas in the non-CLIL group statistically significant differences only surfaced between the low and medium and low and high SES, in the CLIL only group, they appeared between the medium and high and low and high SES (cf. Table 78). Therefore, in the latter, students with low SES have caught up (and even surpassed, though not statistically) their medium SES peers. This attests to the aforementioned levelling power of CLIL.

Group	SES	Mean	Standard Deviation	Eta Squared	p value
General	Low	6.36	1.71	0.073	< 0.001
	Medium	6.92	1.94		
	High	7.55	1.73		
Non-CLIL	Low	6.16	1.66	0.112	< 0.001
	Medium	7.15	1.79		
	High	7.63	1.67		
CLIL	Low	6.67	1.72	0.046	0.009
	Medium	6.60	2.10		
	High	7.45	1.80		

Table 77. NLA content acquisition: comparison by SES.

Group	SES	Low	Medium	High
General	Low		0.022	< 0.001
	Medium	0.022		0.003
	High	< 0.001	0.003	
Non-CLIL	Low		0.001	< 0.001
	Medium	0.001		0.094

CLIL	High	< 0.001	0.094	0.033
	Low		0.976	
	Medium	0.976		0.022
	High	0.033	0.022	

Table 78. NLA content acquisition: comparison by SES.Post-hoc test.

6.3.2.5 Type of school

The variable type of school provides statistically relevant results. The type of school that outperforms the other two³⁶ in Science is charter non-CLIL (cf. Table 79). It is followed by public CLIL schools, and lastly, by public non-CLIL schools. The post hoc analysis reveals that statistically significant differences arise among the three types of schools compared (cf. Table 80). These results are congruent with those of Madrid and Barrios (2018).

Type and Group	Mean	Standard Deviation	Eta Squared	p value
Public Non-CLIL	6.47	1.76	0.051	< 0.001
Public CLIL	6.97	1.91		
Charter Non-CLIL	7.54	1.69		

Table 79. NLA content acquisition: comparison by type of school.

³⁶ Due to sample size, it was not possible to include private CLIL schools in this analysis.

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Type and Group	Public Non-CLIL	Public CLIL	Charter Non-CLIL
Public Non-CLIL		0.032	< 0.001
Public CLIL	0.032		0.003
Charter Non-CLIL	< 0.001	0.003	

Table 80. NLA content acquisition: comparison by type of school. Post-hoc test.

6.3.2.6 Exposure to English

Regarding the number of hours per week of extramural exposure to English, no statistically significant results arise in any of the three groups considered: general (CLIL and non-CLIL combined), non-CLIL, and CLIL (cf. Table 81). The number of hours of exposure to English does not affect significantly students' performance in Science. However, a closer look at the table shows that those students who spend more than nine hours a week doing activities in English outside school obtain slightly higher means on Science than those who dedicated weekly less than nine hours to this kind of activities.

Group	Exposure	Mean	Standard Deviation	Cohen's d	p value
General	Less than 9 hours	6.95	1.83	-0.114	0.178
	More than 9 hours	7.16	1.86		
Non-CLIL	Less than 9 hours	7.09	1.79	-0.058	0.600
	More than 9 hours	7.19	1.80		

CLIL	Less than 9 hours	6.74	1.86	-0.209	0.134
	More than 9 hours	7.13	1.93		

Table 81. NLA content acquisition: comparison by exposure to English.

6.4 Appraisal of competence differential: discriminant analysis

The fifth metaconcern of this study, in which RQ 14 is embedded, involves the discriminant analysis. It aims to determine the discriminating potential of the moderating and independent variables in our study. More specifically, by performing the discriminant analysis we intend to ascertain whether the independent variable (the CLIL programme) can be pinpointed as the main factor that is responsible for the positive results in the English tests and the L1 and NLA grades.

In the case of English language competence (cf. Table 82), the test of equality of group mean points at group as the variable which has the greatest discriminating potential of test results (and the effect that it has on the test results is very positive, as can be seen in Table 85). In other words, the CLIL programme is the main responsible variable of the good grades of students (p value < 0.001, canonical correlation = 0.515), followed by SES and type of school. Even though SES exerts a strong influence on grades, it is worth remembering here that, as seen in sections 6.1.2.4, 6.2.2.4, and 6.3.2.4, the number of statistically significant differences between higher and lower SES were diminished in CLIL only settings, where the tendency was for groups of different socio-economic statuses to level out. However, when both CLIL and non-CLIL groups are considered together (as is here the case), SES is still a powerful variable

concerning English results (as well as those in Spanish and Science, as we will see in the following sections).

Variables	Wilks' Lambda							
	Statistic	df1	df2	df3	Exact F			
					Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
Group	0.820	1	1	1153.000	253.847	1	1153.000	< 0.001
SES	0.773	2	1	1153.000	169.591	2	1152.000	< 0.001
Type of school	0.757	3	1	1153.000	123.261	3	1151.000	< 0.001
Self-demand	0.748	4	1	1153.000	96.645	4	1150.000	< 0.001
Setting	0.744	5	1	1153.000	79.220	5	1149.000	< 0.001
Area	0.740	6	1	1153.000	67.228	6	1148.000	< 0.001
Anxiety	0.738	7	1	1153.000	58.315	7	1147.000	< 0.001
Gender	0.734	8	1	1153.000	51.800	8	1146.000	< 0.001

Table 82. Discriminant analysis: English grades.

Eigenvalues				
Function	Eigenvalue	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Canonical Correlation
1	0.362	100.0	100.0	0.515

Table 83. Discriminant analysis: English grades. Eigenvalues.

Wilks' Lambda				
Test of Function(s)	Wilks' Lambda	Chi-square	df	Sig.
1	0.734	354.655	8	< 0.001

Table 84. Discriminant analysis: English grades. Wilks' Lambda.

	Function 1
Area	-0.141
Setting	0.221
Type of School	0.293
Group	0.953
Gender	0.131
SES	0.300
Anxiety	-0.148
Self-demand	0.214

Table 85. Discriminant analysis: English grades. Standardised canonical discriminant function coefficients.

With regards to Spanish language results, the test of equality of group means reveals that lack of interest, not the CLIL programme, is the variable with the greatest discriminating potential (p value < 0.001, canonical correlation = 0.473), as can be seen in Table 86 below. As Table 89 confirms, the association between this variable and Spanish grades is negative, which means that the higher the lack of interest, the lower the grade. This variable was calculated through nine items in Pelechano's (1994) *MA test* (cf. section 4.3.4.2.2), which asked students' about their self-perceptions of laziness, whether they believe that students nowadays have too much to study, whether they make an extra effort to learn a concept if it is not required, or whether their motivation is intrinsic or extrinsic, among others.

Lack of interest is followed by SES and self-demand (cf. Table 86) as the second and third most relevant discriminating variables. The discriminant function confirmed the statistical

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significance of this test. The variable of group, although not the one that best explains the test results, is statistically significant (p value < 0.001).

Variables	Wilks' Lambda							
	Statistic	df1	df2	df3	Exact F			
					Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
Lack of interest	0.875	1	1	619.000	88.327	1	619.000	< 0.001
SES	0.836	2	1	619.000	60.692	2	618.000	< 0.001
Self-demand	0.824	3	1	619.000	44.036	3	617.000	< 0.001
Group	0.811	4	1	619.000	35.899	4	616.000	< 0.001
Type of school	0.792	5	1	619.000	32.328	5	615.000	< 0.001
Setting	0.782	6	1	619.000	28.525	6	614.000	< 0.001
Gender	0.776	7	1	619.000	25.261	7	613.000	< 0.001

Table 86. Discriminant analysis: Spanish grades.

Eigenvalues				
Function	Eigenvalue	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Canonical Correlation
1	0.288	100.0	100.0	0.473

Table 87. Discriminant analysis: Spanish grades. Eigenvalues.

Wilks' Lambda				
Test of Function(s)	Wilks' Lambda	Chi-square	df	Sig.
1	0.776	155.999	7	< 0.001

Table 88. Discriminant analysis: Spanish grades. Wilks' Lambda.

	Function 1
Setting	-0.293
Type of School	0.543
Group	0.486
Gender	0.184
SES	0.391
Lack of interest	-0.610
Self-demand	0.296

Table 89. Discriminant analysis: Spanish grades. Standardised canonical discriminant function coefficients.

Lack of interest is, once again, the variable with the greatest discriminating potential, this time for Science grades (p value < 0.001, canonical correlation = 0.411), as Table 90 evinces. The correlation between lack of interest and Science grades, as was the case for Spanish grades, is negative (cf. Table 93). This variable is followed by SES and self-demand as discriminating variables. The variable of group is not statistically significant this time, which means that the CLIL programme does not exert a significant enough influence on the test results, which supports the hypothesis that CLIL does not hinder (or improve) the learning of Science contents.

Variables	Wilks' Lambda							
	Statistic	df1	df2	df3	Exact F			
					Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
Lack of interest	0.882	1	1	565.000	75.739	1	565.000	< 0.001
SES	0.862	2	1	565.000	44.985	2	564.000	< 0.001
Self-demand	0.851	3	1	565.000	32.744	3	563.000	< 0.001
Anxiety	0.841	4	1	565.000	26.501	4	562.000	< 0.001
Area	0.831	5	1	565.000	22.814	5	561.000	< 0.001

Table 90. Discriminant analysis: science grades.

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Eigenvalues				
Function	Eigenvalue	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Canonical Correlation
1	0.203	100.0	100.0	0.411

Table 91. Discriminant analysis: science grades. Eigenvalues.

Wilks' Lambda				
Test of Function(s)	Wilks' Lambda	Chi-square	df	Sig.
1	0.831	104.115	5	< 0.001

Table 92. Discriminant analysis: science grades. Wilks' Lambda.

	Function 1
Area	0.272
SES	0.381
Anxiety	0.291
Lack of interest	-0.665
Self-demand	0.318

Table 93. Discriminant analysis: Science grades. Standardised canonical discriminant function coefficients.

7. CONCLUSIONS

7.1 Recapitulation

After having provided the results of our study, we will proceed now to recapitulate on the main findings, connecting them with the objectives for the investigation, listed in section 4.2. Each metaconcern and its research questions will thus be reviewed, and conclusions will be drawn based on our results.

Metaconcern 1 consisted in determining all three stakeholders' perceptions about the CLIL programme, and it encompassed the qualitative part of our study. In order to gather students', teachers', and parents' opinions on the CLIL programme, three sets of questionnaires were designed and validated, and interviews to teachers and students were carried out. Both instruments were divided into seven thematic blocks:

1. Use, competence, and development of students' English in class
2. Methodology
3. Materials and resources
4. Evaluation
5. Use, competence, and development of teachers' English in class
6. Mobility
7. Improvements and motivation for English learning

Research Question 1 aimed to determine each of the three stakeholders' opinions concerning each of these thematic blocks. RQs 2-4, in turn, pinpointed the statistically significant

differences in terms of the identification variables considered for each cohort. Last, but not least, RQ 5 aimed to ascertain the differences in the perceptions of the three stakeholders in those items that were comparable across questionnaires.

The overall results are promising for all three cohorts: students, teachers, and parents seem, in general, pleased with the CLIL programme, although some items obtain less positive results. Focusing on students, they consider that their L2 has improved as a result of their participation in a CLIL programme, although they do not consider that English should be used more in class.

They also believe that their Spanish has improved thanks to CLIL. They are satisfied with the methodology employed in class (especially in the L2 lessons rather than the NLA ones), although they would like the oral dimension to have higher prominence in their lesson, given the fact that most of their learning is done through written exercises. Materials and resources are evaluated positively, although they could benefit from a more extended use of computer-mediated communication. Moreover, they consider that they are well-evaluated, and that content is given prominence over linguistic accuracy. They also hold their teachers in high regard: they believe, in general, that they are well prepared and that they deliver their lessons successfully. Mobility is encouraged, according to CLIL students, and they report excellent motivation levels towards English learning as a result of the bilingual programme.

Turning now to teacher perceptions, this cohort also believes that the CLIL programme has exerted a very positive influence on their students' English and Spanish competence. In addition, they consider that the methodology employed is correct, with a variety of approaches employed in the CLIL class (Task-Based Learning, Project-Based Learning, the

Lexical Approach, Cooperative Learning), in line with the CEFRL guidelines. However, and moving on to materials and resources, discordant voices arise: it appears that the CLIL materials are not always adapted to different educational needs, that Interactive Whiteboards are not always employed, and that they could benefit from a more extended use of ICTs. In relation to evaluation, the results show that, contrary to what earlier studies suggest (Lancaster, 2016), oral skills are incorporated into assessment, and that diversified, formative, summative, and holistic evaluation is used. Turning to teacher training, which is an area that has been considered one of the pitfalls in this type of programmes, the results evince that more training is required (although less so for L2 teachers), even though teachers, in general, believe their competence in the L2 to be adequate. It also transpires that the teacher cohort does not always make the most of the training or mobility opportunities that arise. Additionally, coordination with other teachers is evaluated in a positive light, but not the support provided by the educational authorities, which is considered insufficient, and a major lacunae to be addressed.

Focusing now on parents' perceptions, this cohort also holds the bilingual programme in high regard. They absolutely believe that the bilingual programme has boosted their children's level of English, although they are more reluctant to state the same about their Spanish. In the block concerning methodology, the fact that most parents feel unable to help their children with their homework transpires as one of the major drawbacks of the CLIL programme, also reflected in the results concerning materials and resources. Parents consider that their children are well evaluated, and that they have improved their results since they started the bilingual programme.

Nonetheless, they are not as confident concerning the inclusion of oral skills in their children's evaluation. Interestingly, parents are very confident about teachers' skills and competence. However, parents admit to not having enough information about the APPP or the principles of CLIL programmes. Concerning mobility, this third cohort is convinced of the benefits mobility programmes bring about, and encourage their children to take part in them. Finally, parents are convinced that the bilingual programme is worth following in spite of the extra work that it entails, and it has even motivated them to learn English.

As for RQs 2-4, the t test has allowed us to determine which variables cause more statistically significant differences within each of the cohorts. In the student cohort, the grade which the students are studying, the number of subjects they are taught in English, and the number of years studying English are the three most significant variables: primary education students in sixth grade are more complacent about their own language competence and hold more positive opinions about the CLIL programme than fourth grade of CSE students. However, the more subjects students (both in primary and secondary education) are taught in English, the more positive their opinions and the higher their motivation levels concerning bilingual education. Similarly, students who have received English instruction for a longer time span also have better opinions concerning CLIL programmes in general and as regards their own linguistic competence.

Within the teacher cohort, the three main variables that yield statistically significant differences are their level of English, type of teacher (NLA or L2), and whether or not they are bilingual coordinators. It emerges that the higher their linguistic competence, the higher opinion they have of the programme. The variable type of teacher is also significant, since it

is language teachers who hold significantly more positive views about the CLIL programme. Being a language coordinator works in the same way, and coordinators express agreement with key aspects of CLIL to a greater degree than their non-coordinator colleagues.

As for parents, the two main variables which caused a greater number of statistically significant differences are the grade their children are studying and their own level of studies. Parents whose children are in fourth grade of CSE believe that their offspring are learning more vocabulary, have more access to English materials outside school, participate more in mobility programmes, and believe that their children's English and motivation had increased due to CLIL. However, they also find it more difficult to help them with their homework. As for the other variable, their level of studies, the higher level they have, the more likely they are to hold positive views about the programme, and are more likely to encourage their children to participate in exchange programmes.

To answer RQ 5, an across-cohort comparison was carried out, in order to ponder on the differences in perceptions of all three stakeholders involved in the CLIL programme. Even though all three groups consider that CLIL is worth the extra effort that it entails, it is teachers who are the most reluctant about it, since it is possibly they who endure the most the extra work. Teachers, on the other hand, also believe to a higher extent that students' English and Spanish has benefitted from bilingual education, although they have not yet acquired an adequate level of linguistic competence (students and parents are more positive than teachers about the acquired linguistic proficiency in the L2). Teachers are, additionally, more confident about the CLIL materials used in class and the evaluation methods followed (students and parents do not consider as much that oral skills are evaluated).

After reviewing students', teachers', and parents' opinions about these aspects of the CLIL programme, a SWOT analysis was carried out in order to identify the main strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats of CLIL in Andalusia. The main strengths that have surfaced in the analysis are the development of the students' L2 competence due to following a CLIL programme, the methodological shift that has been produced as a result of CLIL, which is welcome especially by teachers and students, the competence of teachers, which is perceived by the three key stakeholders, and the evaluation methods. The main weaknesses, in turn, are the lack of appropriate materials for students with different needs, their lack of authenticity, and the underuse of certain resources such as computer-mediated communication. Besides materials, another perceived weakness is embodied in the figure of the language assistants, who do not always meet expectations. Last but not least, the authorities' support is deemed lacking by teachers and parents. The main opportunities that have sprung from this analysis are the possibilities to increase awareness of links between the L1 and the L2 in class, the availability of mobility programmes, unexplored by many students and teachers, and the variety of teacher training programmes of which teachers can make use. The threats identified range from a potential imbalance of the use of English and Spanish in class to the loss of students' motivation in class and an excessively low participation in methodological or language upgrade courses available for teachers despite their training needs.

Metaconcern 2, in turn, aimed to measure the foreign language development of CLIL students, to compare it with that of non-CLIL students, and to determine the effect of the variables of gender, area, setting, SES, type of school, and exposure to English. Therefore, English tests

were designed and validated for this purpose, and administered to students in their sixth grade of primary education and in their fourth grade of CSE. RQ 6 intended to ascertain whether following a CLIL programme had beneficial effects on the L2 performance of students, and RQ 7 dealt with the modulating effects of the variables considered on the test results. RQ 8, in turn, aimed to gauge the effects of the CLIL programme six months after it was discontinued, when students tested in their fourth grade of CSE were in their first grade of NCSE, and RQ 9 measured the evolution of these students between these two phases, taking into account the variables of type of school, area, SES, setting, gender, and extramural exposure.

It has emerged that CLIL students outstrip their non-CLIL counterparts across the board on L2 competence in both primary and secondary education. As for the differences elicited by the variables observed, it has emerged that female students obtain better results than males in the L2, that CLIL has a levelling effect on the variables of setting and SES for receptive skills, whereby students from rural areas and of lower socio-economic status are able to catch up with their counterparts in the skills of reading and listening in CLIL contexts, that private CLIL schools lead the charts of L2 proficiency followed closely by public CLIL schools (except in reading and listening, where the situation is reverted), and that having more than nine hours per week of extramural exposure to English, although positive for the learning of English, is not as relevant when the CLIL programme is followed. Additionally, the differences between the CLIL and the non-CLIL group increase over the six-month period that transpired between the initial tests and the delayed post-tests, and listening is the skill that evolves the most during that period.

Turning now to metaconcern 3, students' performance in their L1 (Spanish) was measured by taking into account their Spanish Language and Literature grades, which were provided by the schools. While RQ 10 aimed to ascertain the effects that are caused by following or not a CLIL programme on the L1, RQ 11 intended to determine the effect of the variables of gender, area, setting, SES, type of school and exposure to English on those grades, and thus, on L1 competence.

It appears that CLIL programmes does not cause any harm to the students' competence in their mother tongue, despite the reduced exposure to it during school hours. In fact, CLIL students in secondary education outperform their non-CLIL peers in a statistically significant way. It has also been found that female students are more proficient in the L1 than male students. As for setting, rural students lag behind urban students when both CLIL and non-CLIL students are considered, a phenomenon also observable with non-CLIL students only. However, in CLIL settings, rural students catch up with their urban counterparts, though the results are not statistically significant. SES also has a relevant effect on the L1: the higher the SES status, the higher the grades obtained by the students, though not so clearly so in CLIL only contexts. Moreover, students from charter non-CLIL schools obtain higher results in the L1 than those in public CLIL schools, in spite of the fact that these differences are not statistically relevant. Finally, having more extramural exposure to English is linked to better results in the L1 for the general and the non-CLIL only groups, but does not yield statistically significant results in the CLIL only group.

The acquisition of content matter constituted the fourth metaconcern of this study. Grades provided by the schools were once again considered for the comparisons between the

experimental and control groups. RQ 12 aimed to evaluate whether the CLIL programme had exerted any influence on the acquisition of contents studied using a CLIL approach, and the effects of the above-mentioned moderating variables were the focus of RQ 13.

The results obtained for NLA knowledge show no statistically significant differences in content acquisition between CLIL and non-CLIL students, which proves that CLIL is not detrimental to the learning of the subject imparted in the foreign language. The students from the western provinces of Cádiz and Málaga obtain better results than those studying in the eastern provinces of Granada and Almería. Additionally, rural students, who are surpassed by their urban counterparts in the general (CLIL and non-CLIL) and in the non-CLIL only groups, are able to catch up with them and even overtake them in Science, although the differences are not statistically significant. A similar result emerges for SES, where low SES students caught up with medium SES students in CLIL only settings, although not confirmed statistically. With regards to type of school, the best results are obtained by non-CLIL students in charter schools, followed by CLIL students in public schools, and then by non-CLIL students in public schools. Due to sample size, no statistical tests were carried out with private CLIL schools.

Lastly, metaconcern 5 focused on the discriminant analysis of the results. This analysis aimed to ascertain whether the competence differential between the experimental and control groups is truly ascribable to language learning based on academic content processing (RQ 14). It has emerged that, while the CLIL programme is indeed the variable that explains best the English test results, in the case of Spanish Language and Science, the variable that has the greatest discriminant potential is lack of interest in the subject, followed by SES and self-demand.

7.2 Limitations of the study and lines for further research

The instruments used in this study have served as tools to answer the research questions proposed, and have made it possible to ascertain the opinions of the three main stakeholders concerning the CLIL programme, and the effects that it has on primary and secondary education students vis-à-vis their L2 and Spanish linguistic competence, as well as their NLA content learning, compared against their non-CLIL counterparts.

Many of the shortcomings found in prior research have been overcome in this study: first of all, it has a mixed research design (quantitative and qualitative). Secondly, it is longitudinal, and the evolution of the very same students has been monitored and analysed. Thirdly, the homogeneity of the experimental and control groups has been guaranteed, and the results obtained can thus be ascribed to the CLIL programme itself and not to self-selection. Fourthly, both intervening and identification variables have been taken into account. Moreover, methodological triangulation has been employed for further reliability of the results obtained in the data collection process. Lastly, a double-fold process has been followed for instrument validation, therefore ensuring their consistency and reliability (calculated via the Cronbach alpha and Kuder-Richardson coefficients), by submitting them to the expert ratings approach and by conducting a pilot study with a representative sample.

Even so, this study has certain limitations, which could be overcome in further studies and which would allow us to paint an even more comprehensive picture of the effects of CLIL at the grassroots level and to determine the opinions of those involved in CLIL programmes with

more detail. To begin with, even though we have worked with an ample sample, only four Andalusian provinces have been included in our study. Therefore, we can only make inferences so as to determine whether these results could be also applied to the provinces of Jaén, Córdoba, Seville, and Huelva. In addition, the scarcity of private CLIL schools in the four provinces included in the study has rendered it impossible to conduct certain comparisons between these and other types of schools (charter or public), leaving some results incomplete. Therefore, a larger study which includes more schools across all Andalusian provinces would be beneficial for a clearer description of CLIL implementation in our region. Additionally, classroom observation would have been helpful as an extra tool for methodological triangulation, since only questionnaires and interviews were analysed, and it would have provided invaluable information concerning how CLIL is actually implemented in class.

Moreover, the effects of CLIL on L2 competence have not included the skill of writing, even though the English test designed for this purpose did include a number of items on this skill. Nonetheless, due to time constraints, the fact that open responses take longer to grade than close ones (as in the skills of use of English, vocabulary, listening and reading), and the size of the sample, this skill has been left out of our results, as it is still in the process of being analysed. Speaking results, however, have been included, and they help round up the results pertaining student L2 competence. Nevertheless, it would have interesting to analyse the effects of CLIL on the productive skill of writing and their evolution from the post-test to the delayed post-test phase.

Finally, the effects of CLIL on students' L1 and NLA knowledge have been gauged by analysing school grades on those two subjects, provided to us by the schools themselves. These grades

have been given to students by different teachers all across the four provinces using their own evaluation methods. To overcome this pitfall, Spanish and NLA tests could be designed and validated, so that all students were evaluated on these two areas following the same criteria. However, due to the overload of tests conducted on the students, teachers, and parents of CLIL and non-CLIL streams, it was decided not to take extra lesson time for Spanish and NLA subject tests and use instead the school grades of Spanish Language and Literature and Science.

In spite of the abovementioned shortcomings, it has been our humble intention to contribute to the growing body of research on CLIL in Andalusia. As the results of our study evince, the CLIL programme in Andalusia has brought forth a methodological revolution which focuses on the student, incorporates ICTs and Cooperative Learning (among other methodologies), and increases the level of the students' L2 competence without negative consequences to their L1 or NLA content acquisition. It has also been beneficial for teacher training in both linguistic and methodological issues, and it has a high degree of acceptance by the three stakeholders involved in the programme: students, teachers, and parents. CLIL acts as a catalyst for change, and it can help students to embrace the future challenges that arise in our increasingly multicultural and multilingual society. After all, as the Italian proverb says, "*chi parla due lingue, vive due vite*"³⁷.

³⁷ In English: Those who speak two languages live two lives.

SUMMARY OF THESIS IN SPANISH

"Los efectos del Aprendizaje Integrado de Contenidos y Lenguas Extranjeras en comunidades monolingües: Un estudio a larga escala en Andalucía"

Justificación del estudio y metodología

El Aprendizaje Integrado de Contenidos y Lenguas Extranjeras (AICLE; en inglés, Content and Language Integrated Learning, CLIL), es un enfoque metodológico que ha suscitado un alto grado de interés desde la creación de su acrónimo en 1994 por David Marsh, en la Universidad de Jyväskylä en Finlandia, y que se ha esparcido por Europa en las últimas dos décadas. Ha sido definido por Coyle *et al.* (2010: 1) como un enfoque educativo dual en el que un idioma adicional es utilizado para el aprendizaje y la enseñanza de contenido e idioma. Aunque entre sus predecesores se encuentran los programas de inmersión canadienses, la educación bilingüe en Estados Unidos, y las escuelas internacionales y europeas, el contexto en el que AICLE se ha desarrollado y su orientación al aprendizaje de lenguas y al contenido al mismo tiempo hacen que AICLE se distinga de los demás enfoques y cobre identidad propia.

Una de las conclusiones que emergen de la revisión de la literatura sobre AICLE es la necesidad de investigaciones sólidas, especialmente ahora que AICLE ha alcanzado su punto de inflexión (Marsh, 2002: 185). Como Heras y Lasagabaster (2015: 71) recuerdan, la educación, la investigación y la innovación (a menudo citadas como los pilares de la edad del conocimiento) necesitan trabajar juntas. Por lo tanto, para seguir adelante es necesario realizar amplias

investigaciones que maximicen sus reconocidas ventajas y encontrar formas de superar sus escollos. Como Dalton-Puffer y Nikula (2006: 6) propugnan, la investigación en AICLE puede tomar muchas perspectivas, y es necesario un trabajo continuo para incrementar nuestro entendimiento basado en la investigación de la complejidad de las cuestiones implicadas y proveer ayuda tanto a profesores AICLE como a aquellos involucrados en trabajo de desarrollo. Además, tal como apunta Navés (2009), mientras que en EEUU y Canadá los investigadores están centrados en describir lo que constituyen buenas prácticas en educación bilingüe, en Europa estamos meramente describiendo sus beneficios.

En particular, se ha propuesto que se debería avanzar en la investigación y pasar de centrarnos en si AICLE promueve la competencia lingüística a centrarnos en investigación basada en el aula sobre cómo incrementar la eficiencia y la efectividad en AICLE (Cenoz *et al.*, 2013: 16-17), sobre los efectos de AICLE en el desarrollo de la L1 (Merino & Lasagabaster, 2015: 3), sobre los diferentes niveles de intensidad de AICLE (Heras & Lasagabaster, 2015: 85), o, tal como proponen Dalton-Puffer *et al.* (2010b: 12), sobre hasta qué punto los resultados positivos de la investigación en AICLE se deben a su naturaleza intrínseca o a un incremento en exposición a la lengua meta.

La investigación empírica sobre AICLE en contextos variados comenzó a florecer a mediados de los años 2000 (Dalton-Puffer *et al.*, 2014: 214–215), y España está convirtiéndose rápidamente en uno de los países líderes con respecto a la investigación en el tema (Coyle, 2010). Se han realizado numerosos estudios por todo el país, tanto en comunidades tradicionalmente bilingües como Cataluña, el País Vasco, Galicia, Valencia y las Islas Baleares,

como en aquellas con una tradición monolingüe firmemente arraigada, tales como Madrid, La Rioja, o Andalucía. Estos estudios han constituido unos cimientos valiosos para la investigación en este campo y han provisto la base para otros estudios. Las conclusiones generales son muy favorables al enfoque AICLE, dado que se ha demostrado que AICLE conlleva una serie de resultados positivos con respecto a la competencia lingüística (tanto en la L2 como en la L1), al aprendizaje de la materia no lingüística, la motivación y la cognición. No es por tanto sorprendente que, a la vista de tales resultados, CLIL haya sido avalado por toda Europa (Pérez Cañado, 2012: 330).

No obstante, la mayoría de los estudios vistos en la revisión de la literatura de esta disertación presentan serios fallos metodológicos que comprometen la validez y la fiabilidad de los resultados obtenidos, lo cual implica que estos resultados positivos deben ser tomados con cautela. Tal como Genessee (1998: 10) dijo, la desafortunada realidad es que la inmensa mayoría de las evaluaciones de programas bilingües tienen tantos defectos metodológicos de diseño que sus resultados ofrecen más ruido que señal.

Volviendo a los estudios llevados a cabo en España y sobre el Plan de Fomento del Plurilingüismo en Andalucía, en primer lugar, estos tienden a ser estudios únicamente cualitativos sin contraparte cuantitativa. En los casos en los que una evaluación cuantitativa del programa tiene lugar, por lo general esta no garantiza la homogeneidad entre la cohorte experimental y el control, lo que aseguraría su comparabilidad. En segundo lugar, no utilizan triangulación metodológica para la recogida de datos ni variables intervinientes en sus análisis. Un tercer fallo metodológico de muchos estudios sobre AICLE es que no realizan análisis

factorial o discriminante, los cuales afirmarían que las diferencias entre los grupos se deben a la instrucción AICLE y no a otras variables. En cuarto lugar, la mayoría de estudios no utilizan herramientas estadísticas que expliquen las diferencias en los resultados entre el grupo experimental y el control, y, en algunos casos, no calculan la existencia de diferencias estadísticamente significativas entre las cohortes. En quinto lugar, tienden a ser transversales, no longitudinales, lo que impide que se pueda seguir la evolución de las cohortes a lo largo del tiempo. Por último, trabajan con muestras reducidas tanto numérica como geográficamente, y esto obstaculiza la extracción de conclusiones generales.

A la vista de estas deficiencias en las investigaciones anteriores, seguimos necesitando evidencias sólidas de los efectos de CLIL. Vez (2009: 18) sugiere que no hay aún una sólida evidencia empírica por parte de los países europeos sobre los que poder basar la afirmación de las ventajas educativas (o de otra índole) de la educación multilingüe. Pero tenemos bastantes evidencias negativas de que los modelos monolingües son inefectivos. Por esto, el estudio que aquí se propone es necesario, dado que evita los errores metodológicos mencionados anteriormente y presenta una investigación sólida empíricamente sobre los efectos de AICLE.

El presente estudio está ligado a dos proyectos de investigación financiados por el estado sobre los efectos de AICLE en contextos monolingües (FFI2012-32221 y P12-HUM-2348, financiados por el Ministerio de Economía y Competitividad y la Junta de Andalucía, respectivamente). Estos proyectos tienen por objetivo confirmar los efectos de AICLE en la competencia lingüística en inglés y en español, así como el conocimiento de los contenidos de

las clases impartidas siguiendo un enfoque AICLE, así como las opiniones de todos aquellos involucrados en el programa, y los efectos de AICLE en una serie de variables: contexto, tipo de centro, nivel educativo, motivación, inteligencia verbal, exposición extramural, y nivel socioeconómico. La muestra del estudio global que tiene lugar bajo los dos proyectos arriba mencionados incluye estudiantes de sexto de primaria y cuarto de E.S.O. de 12 provincias españolas situadas en tres comunidades autónomas monolingües: Andalucía, Extremadura, y las Islas Canarias. Los profesores y los padres también participan en el estudio.

Se garantizó la homogeneidad del alumnado AICLE y no AICLE al inicio del estudio y se le administraron una serie de tests a las cohortes para evaluar el impacto de AICLE en ocho variables cognitivas, contextual y afectivas: contexto (rural o urbano), tipo de centro (público, privado, o concertado), nivel educativo (primaria, secundaria, bachillerato), motivación, inteligencia verbal, exposición extramural al inglés, y nivel socioeconómico. Con una perspectiva longitudinal, se administraron tests en tres fases a estudiantes de primaria, educación secundaria obligatoria, y bachillerato. Por último, se realizaron análisis discriminantes para confirmar si seguir una enseñanza AICLE es la causa de las diferencias encontradas entre las cohortes, así como para determinar la forma en la que interactúan las variables. Este estudio sigue una metodología cualitativa y cuantitativa, y la muestra es numéricamente representativa, así como geográficamente extensa.

En el seno del mencionado proyecto de investigación, el presente estudio evalúa los puntos de vista de estudiantes, profesores y padres sobre el programa AICLE, y sus efectos en la competencia lingüística de los estudiantes en su lengua materna, en la lengua extranjera, y en

el conocimiento de las materias que se estudian en inglés. Específicamente, esta disertación se centra en los resultados de cuatro de las ocho provincias de Andalucía: Granada y Almería al este, y Málaga y Cádiz al oeste. Se comentan los resultados de las cuatro provincias y se determina el efecto modulador de una serie de variables intervinientes.

Objetivos

El objeto principal de este estudio es llevar a cabo una investigación longitudinal a gran escala que evalúe el programa AICLE desde una perspectiva tanto cualitativa como cuantitativa en un contexto monolingüe muy arraigado en el que los estudiantes tienen una baja exposición al inglés fuera del entorno escolar, para poder determinar en qué punto nos encontramos en la implementación de AICLE en Andalucía.

La parte cualitativa de este estudio, que complementa a su contraparte cuantitativa de la segunda sección, analiza las impresiones de las tres figuras prominentes del contexto AICLE andaluz: estudiantes, profesores, y padres. También recoge su nivel de satisfacción con el Plan de Fomento del Plurilingüismo en Andalucía, y examina las diferencias entre las percepciones dentro de cada cohorte y entre cohortes diferentes.

Por su parte, la parte cuantitativa del estudio determina si el tipo de programa seguido por el alumno (AICLE-No AICLE) produce diferencias estadísticamente significativas entre los grupos experimental y control con respecto a su competencia en L2, en L1, y el grado de conocimiento adquirido en las asignaturas AICLE. El presente estudio también busca establecer si los

posibles efectos diferenciales ejercidos por el programa bilingüe continúan en primero de bachillerato (seis meses después de que dejaran el programa por un bachillerato con mucha menos exposición al inglés) o si se extinguen gradualmente.

Este objetivo principal se puede diseccionar en cinco áreas focales que tienen la función de piedras angulares de este proyecto, divididas cada una de ellas en varios corolarios:

Área focal 1 (estudio cualitativo): Satisfacción generada por el programa CLIL en todos los grupos implicados, e identificación de las principales Debilidades, Amenazas, Fortalezas y Oportunidades del programa de centros bilingües.

PI 1. ¿Cuáles son las percepciones de estudiantes, profesores y padres con respecto a la manera en la que funciona el programa de centros bilingües en todos los niveles curriculares y de organización?

PI 2. Dentro de la cohorte de estudiantes, ¿hay diferencias estadísticamente significativas en esta percepción en relación a las variables consideradas (género, curso, contexto, tipo de centro, número de años estudiando inglés y número de asignaturas impartidas en inglés)?

PI 3. Dentro de la cohorte de profesores, ¿hay diferencias estadísticamente significativas en esta percepción en relación a las variables consideradas (edad, género, tipo de profesor, situación administrativa, nivel de inglés, experiencia docente general, experiencia docente en bilingüismo, número de asignaturas impartidas y ser o no coordinador bilingüe)?

PI 4. Dentro de la cohorte de padres, ¿hay diferencias estadísticamente significativas en esta percepción en relación a las variables consideradas (curso en el que se encuentran sus hijos, edad, género, nivel de estudios)?

PI 5. ¿Hay diferencias estadísticamente significativas entre las percepciones de las tres partes implicadas (estudiantes, profesores, padres)?

Área focal 2 (estudio cuantitativo): Efectos de AICLE en la competencia en lengua extranjera

PI 6. ¿Desarrollan los programas AICLE implementados con estudiantes de primaria y secundaria (grupo experimental) una competencia lingüística superior (uso del inglés, vocabulario, comprensión auditiva, comprensión lectora, expresión oral) que la promovida por programas no AICLE en estudiantes del mismo nivel educativo (grupo control)? Dicho de otra forma: ¿hay un factor diferencial en competencia lingüística entre grupos AICLE y no AICLE en los niveles de primaria y secundaria en las cuatro provincias andaluzas analizadas?

PI 7. ¿Cuál es el efecto modulador de las variables intervinientes tipo de centro (público, privado, concertado), área (Andalucía oriental u occidental), nivel socioeconómico, contexto (rural o urbano), género y exposición extramural sobre la competencia lingüística en lengua extranjera de los grupos AICLE y no AICLE en primaria y secundaria?

PI 8. ¿Continúan los posibles efectos diferenciales de los programas AICLE en la competencia lingüística en inglés seis meses después de interrumpir el programa, cuando los estudiantes están en primero de bachillerato, o se desvanecen gradualmente?

PI 9. ¿Cuál es la evolución de los estudiantes de la fase post-test a la de seguimiento (ambos grupos, solo AICLE, solo no AICLE) según tipo de centro (público, privado, concertado), área (Andalucía oriental u occidental), nivel socioeconómico, contexto (rural o urbano), género y exposición extramural?

Área focal 3 (estudio cuantitativo): Efectos de AICLE en la competencia en lengua materna.

PI 10. ¿Causan impacto los programas AICLE implementados con estudiantes de primaria y secundaria (grupo experimental) en el nivel de español adquirido por el grupo experimental que sigue dichos programas, en comparación al adquirido por el grupo control monolingüe que sigue un programa tradicional?

PI 11. ¿Cuál es el efecto modulador de las variables intervinientes tipo de centro (público, privado, concertado), área (Andalucía oriental u occidental), nivel socioeconómico, contexto (rural o urbano), género y exposición extramural sobre la competencia lingüística en lengua materna de los grupos AICLE y no AICLE en primaria y secundaria?

Área focal 4 (estudio cuantitativo): Efectos de AICLE en el desempeño en las asignaturas de contenido impartidas en inglés

PI 12. ¿Afectan los programas AICLE implementados en primaria y secundaria a la adquisición de contenidos en las asignaturas impartidas en lengua extranjera en tales programas, en comparación con la adquisición de contenidos por parte del grupo control monolingüe que sigue un programa tradicional?

PI 13. ¿Cuál es el efecto modulador de las variables intervinientes tipo de centro (público, privado, concertado), área (Andalucía oriental u occidental), nivel socioeconómico, contexto (rural o urbano), género y exposición extramural sobre la adquisición de contenidos no lingüísticos de los grupos AICLE y no AICLE en primaria y secundaria?

Área focal 5 (estudio cuantitativo): Valoración del diferencial de competencia. Análisis discriminante.

PI 14. En caso de existir diferencias con respecto a las competencias entre el grupo experimental y el de control, ¿pueden estas ser realmente atribuidas al aprendizaje de lenguas basado en el procesamiento de contenido académico?

El análisis de los datos cuantitativos se hizo mediante el programa estadístico SPSS en su versión 21.0. Alternativamente, los datos recogidos en la parte cualitativa del estudio se analizaron tanto estadísticamente (para los ítems de respuesta cerrada de los cuestionarios) y mediante análisis de Teoría Fundamentada (como fue el caso de las respuestas abiertas de las encuestas y entrevistas semiestructuradas). Procedemos ahora a describir las operaciones utilizadas en el análisis de los datos cuantitativos y cualitativos.

Para la Pregunta de Investigación 1 (Análisis cualitativo, Área focal 1), se utilizó estadística descriptiva, como el cálculo de la media, la mediana, la moda (medidas de tendencia central), rango, alto-bajo, y desviación típica (medidas de dispersión). Por lo tanto, en el análisis de resultados se incluyen porcentajes y representaciones gráficas.

Para las PI 2 - 5 (Análisis cualitativo, Área focal 1), se utilizaron ANOVA y prueba de t con el objetivo de encontrar diferencias estadísticamente significativas tanto dentro de cada grupo como entre grupos, tomando en consideración las variables moduladoras y de identificación antes mencionadas. El tamaño del efecto se midió mediante la d de Cohen y el Eta cuadrado.

Para las PI 6 - 13 (Análisis cuantitativo, Áreas focales 2 - 4), también se utilizaron ANOVA y prueba de t para comparar el grupo experimental y el grupo de control, para determinar si hay diferencias estadísticamente significativas teniendo en cuenta las variables moduladoras. El tamaño del efecto se midió mediante la d de Cohen y el Eta cuadrado.

Para la PI 14 (Análisis cuantitativo, Área focal 5), se utilizó el análisis discriminante para determinar el grado en el que cada variable es responsable de los resultados cuantitativos, y constatar si el programa AICLE explica las diferencias observadas entre los grupos.

Adicionalmente, para el análisis cualitativo de los ítems de respuesta abierta de los cuestionarios y de las entrevistas semiestructuradas (PI 1, Área focal 1), se empleó el análisis de Teoría Fundamentada (Glaser & Strauss) para codificar los datos y extraer conclusiones. La Teoría Fundamentada es un tipo de investigación cualitativa que tiene como propósito identificar patrones y establecer vínculos entre los conceptos teóricos y los datos.

En cuanto a los tests de inglés, estos están formados principalmente por ítems de respuesta cerrada. No obstante, en el caso de la entrevista oral, las respuestas son abiertas. Para que su corrección fuera eficiente y consistente para todos los tests, se crearon rúbricas, y se siguió un análisis CAF para evaluar la fluidez, precisión, complejidad gramatical, y la variación léxica.

Conclusiones

En el Área focal 1 el estudio se centró en las percepciones de alumnos, profesores y padres sobre el programa AICLE, lo que constituye la parte cualitativa de este. Para recoger estas opiniones, se diseñaron y validaron cuestionarios. Además, se llevaron a cabo entrevistas a profesores y estudiantes. Ambos instrumentos se dividieron en siete bloques temáticos:

1. Uso, competencia y desarrollo del inglés de los estudiantes en clase
2. Metodología
3. Materiales y recursos
4. Evaluación
5. Uso, competencia y desarrollo del inglés de los profesores en clase
6. Movilidad
7. Mejoras y motivación para aprender inglés

La PI 1 se centra en determinar las opiniones por parte de los tres grupos involucrados en el programa sobre cada bloque temático. En cambio, las PI 2 - 4 fijan las diferencias estadísticamente significativas en relación a las variables de identificación consideradas para cada cohorte. Por último, la PI 5 estudia las diferencias entre las percepciones de los tres grupos en aquellos ítems que son comparables entre los cuestionarios de cada cohorte.

Los resultados generales son prometedores para las tres cohortes: los estudiantes, los profesores y los padres están, por lo general, contentos con el programa AICLE, aunque algunos ítems obtengan unos resultados ligeramente menos positivos. Centrándonos en los

estudiantes, estos consideran que su L2 ha mejorado como resultado de su participación en un programa AICLE, aunque no consideren que el inglés deba ser utilizado más en clase. También opinan que su español ha mejorado gracias a AICLE. Están satisfechos con la metodología empleada en clase (especialmente en las clases de inglés más que en las del área no lingüística), aunque les gustaría que la dimensión oral tuviera más relevancia en clase, dado que la mayor parte de su aprendizaje se realiza mediante ejercicios escritos. También se evalúan positivamente los materiales y recursos, aunque podrían beneficiarse de un uso más extenso de la comunicación mediada por ordenador. Además, consideran que están bien evaluados, y que se le da prioridad al contenido sobre la corrección gramatical. También tienen a sus profesores en alta estima: creen, en general, que están bien preparados y que imparten sus lecciones eficientemente. Según ellos, además, se les anima a participar en proyectos de movilidad internacional, y en general tienen un nivel excelente de motivación por el inglés debido al programa bilingüe.

En cuanto a las percepciones de los profesores, esta cohorte también opina que el programa AICLE ha ejercido una influencia muy positiva en la competencia lingüística en inglés y en español de sus estudiantes. Además, consideran que la metodología empleada es adecuada y que, en la clase AICLE tienen cabida una serie de aproximaciones metodológicas como el aprendizaje por tareas y por proyectos, la dimensión léxica, y el aprendizaje cooperativo, tal como indican las directrices del Marco Común Europeo de Referencia para las Lenguas. No obstante, surgen voces discordantes cuando se habla de materiales y recursos: los materiales AICLE no siempre están adaptados a diferentes necesidades educativas, las pizarras digitales no siempre se utilizan, y en general sería beneficioso un uso más extenso de las herramientas

TIC. Con respecto a la evaluación, los resultados muestran que, contrariamente a lo sugerido en estudios anteriores (Lancaster, 2016), las destrezas orales sí se incluyen en esta, y que se lleva a cabo una evaluación diversificada, formativa, sumativa y holística. Centrándonos ahora en la formación docente, que es un área considerada como deficiente en este tipo de programas, los resultados muestran que se necesita más formación en general (aunque menos para los profesores de la L2), aunque los profesores consideren que su competencia en inglés sea adecuada. También se extrae como conclusión que la cohorte de profesores no siempre aprovecha al máximo las oportunidades de formación y movilidad que surgen. Además, se considera favorable la coordinación con otros profesores, pero no así el apoyo provisto por parte de las autoridades educativas, visto como insuficiente y uno de los escollos principales que deben ser abordados.

Centrándonos ahora en las percepciones de los padres, esta cohorte también tiene una alta estima por el programa bilingüe. Los padres creen absolutamente que el programa bilingüe ha estimulado el nivel de inglés de sus hijos, aunque son más reticentes a afirmar lo mismo sobre su nivel de español. En el bloque de metodología, el hecho de que la mayoría de los padres se sienten incapaces de ayudar a sus hijos con los deberes surge como uno de los problemas principales del programa AICLE, lo que queda también reflejado en los resultados de materiales y recursos. Los padres consideran que sus hijos están bien evaluados y que han mejorado sus resultados desde que comenzaron el programa bilingüe. No obstante, no están tan seguros de que las destrezas orales se incluyan en la evaluación de sus hijos. Curiosamente, los padres confían mucho en las habilidades y la competencia de los profesores de sus hijos. Sin embargo, admiten no tener suficiente información sobre el Plan de Fomento

del Plurilingüismo ni sobre los principios de los programas AICLE. Con respecto a la movilidad, esta tercera cohorte está convencida de los beneficios que conllevan los programas de movilidad, y anima a sus hijos a que participen en estos. Por último, los padres están convencidos de que, a pesar del trabajo extra que conlleva la participación en un programa bilingüe, este merece la pena, y que incluso los ha motivado a ellos mismos a que aprendan inglés.

Con respecto a las PI 2 - 4, la prueba de t nos ha permitido conocer qué variables son responsables de un número mayor de diferencias estadísticamente significativas dentro de cada cohorte. En la cohorte estudiantil, el curso que estudian, el número de asignaturas impartidas en inglés y el número de años estudiando inglés son las variables más significativas. Los estudiantes de sexto de primaria son más autocomplacientes sobre su propia competencia lingüística y tienen una opinión más elevada sobre AICLE que los estudiantes de 4º de E.S.O. No obstante, cuantas más asignaturas dan en inglés, más positivas son sus opiniones y su nivel de motivación sobre la educación bilingüe. De modo similar, los estudiantes que han recibido clases en inglés durante más tiempo también tienen mejores opiniones sobre los programas AICLE en general y sobre su propia competencia lingüística.

Dentro de la cohorte de profesores, las tres variables que arrojan diferencias estadísticamente significativas son: el nivel del inglés, el tipo de profesor (área no lingüística o inglés), y ser o no coordinador bilingüe. Cuanto mayor es el nivel en la L2, mejor es la opinión que tienen sobre el programa. La variable tipo de profesor también es significativa, puesto que los profesores de inglés tienen una opinión significativamente más positiva sobre el programa AICLE. Ser

coordinador bilingüe actúa de la misma manera, y los coordinadores están de acuerdo con aspectos clave de AICLE en un mayor grado que sus compañeros que no son coordinadores.

Las dos variables que originan un mayor número de diferencias estadísticamente significativas son el curso que estudian sus hijos y su propio nivel de estudios. Los padres que tienen hijos en 4º de E.S.O. opinan que sus hijos están aprendiendo más vocabulario, que tienen más acceso a materiales en inglés fuera del centro educativo, que participan más en programas de movilidad y que el nivel de competencia lingüística en inglés y la motivación de sus hijos se han incrementado debido al AICLE. No obstante, también encuentran más dificultades para ayudarlos con sus deberes. En cuanto a la variable de nivel de estudios, cuanto más alto sea este, más probable es que tengan una opinión positiva sobre el programa y que animen más a sus hijos a que participen en programas de intercambio.

Para contestar a la PI 5, se ha realizado una comparación entre cohortes para ponderar las diferencias en las percepciones de los tres grupos involucrados en el programa AICLE. Aunque los tres consideran que AICLE merece la pena a pesar del trabajo extra que conlleva, los profesores son los que están menos convencidos de esto, dado que probablemente ellos son los que se llevan la mayor parte de este trabajo extra. Por otro lado, son los profesores los que también creen en mayor grado que el inglés y el español de los estudiantes se han visto beneficiados de la educación bilingüe, aunque no hayan adquirido aún un nivel adecuado de competencia lingüística (los estudiantes y los profesores son más positivos que los profesores sobre la competencia lingüística adquirida en la L2). Además, los profesores muestran un mayor grado de confianza sobre los materiales AICLE utilizados en clase y los métodos de

evaluación que se siguen. Los estudiantes y los padres no están tan de acuerdo en que se evalúen las destrezas orales.

Después de haber revisado las opiniones de alumnos, profesores y padres sobre estos aspectos de AICLE, se ha llevado a cabo un análisis DAFO para identificar las principales Debilidades, Amenazas, Fortalezas y Oportunidades de AICLE en Andalucía. Las principales fortalezas que surgen en el análisis son el desarrollo de la competencia lingüística en L2 de los estudiantes que siguen un programa AICLE, el cambio metodológico que se ha producido a raíz del AICLE, celebrado especialmente por los profesores y los alumnos, la competencia de los profesores, percibida por los tres grupos de personas involucradas en estos programas, y los métodos de evaluación. Las principales debilidades identificadas con la falta de materiales apropiados para estudiantes con necesidades educativas diferentes, su falta de autenticidad, y el escaso uso de recursos como la comunicación mediada por ordenador. Además de los materiales, otra debilidad percibida está personificada en la figura del auxiliar de conversación, que no siempre cumple con las expectativas. Por último, el apoyo de las autoridades educativas, según profesores y padres, es insuficiente. Las principales oportunidades que surgen de este análisis son las posibilidades de incrementar la concientización sobre los vínculos entre la L1 y la L2 en clase, la disponibilidad de programas de movilidad, no explorados aún por muchos alumnos y profesores, y la variedad de programas de formación de los que pueden hacer uso los profesores. Las amenazas identificadas van desde un potencial desequilibrio del uso del inglés y del español en clase hasta la pérdida de la motivación por parte de los estudiantes, pasando por una participación

escasa por parte de los profesores en cursos de actualización lingüística o metodológica a pesar de sus necesidades de formación.

El área focal 2 evalúa el desarrollo en competencia lingüística de los estudiantes que siguen un programa AICLE para compararlo con el de estudiantes no AICLE, y determinar el efecto de las variables de género, área, contexto, nivel socioeconómico, tipo de centro, y exposición al inglés. Por tanto, se diseñaron y validaron tests de inglés y se administraron a estudiantes de sexto de primaria y de cuarto de E.S.O. La PI 6 determina si seguir un programa AICLE tiene efectos beneficiosos sobre la competencia en L2 de los alumnos, y la PI 7 evalúa los efectos moduladores de las variables en los resultados de los tests. Por su parte, la PI 8 tiene por objetivo medir los efectos del programa AICLE seis meses después de su interrupción, cuando los estudiantes que estaban en 4º de E.S.O. estuvieran en su primer año de bachillerato. La PI 9 mide la evolución de estos estudiantes entre las dos fases, teniendo en cuenta las variables de tipo de centro, área, nivel socioeconómico, contexto, género, y exposición extramural al inglés.

Se extrae como conclusión que los estudiantes AICLE superaron a los no AICLE con creces en competencia lingüística en L2 tanto en primaria como en secundaria. Con respecto a las diferencias desencadenadas por las variables observadas, se concluye que las estudiantes obtienen mejores resultados que sus compañeros de género masculino en la L2 y que AICLE tiene un efecto nivelador sobre las variables de contexto y nivel socioeconómico para las destrezas receptivas, mediante el cual los estudiantes de zonas rurales o con nivel socioeconómico más bajo son capaces de alcanzar a sus compañeros en las destrezas de

comprensión lectora y auditiva en contextos AICLE. Además, se concluye que los centros AICLE privados están a la cabeza en competencia lingüística en L2, seguidos de cerca por los centros AICLE públicos (excepto en las destrezas de comprensión lectora y auditiva, donde se invierte la situación), y que tener una exposición extramural al inglés de más de nueve horas a la semana, aunque es positivo para el aprendizaje de inglés, no es tan relevante cuando se sigue un programa AICLE. Además, las diferencias entre el grupo AICLE y el no AICLE se incrementan en el periodo de seis meses comprendido entre el test inicial y el test realizado en primero de bachillerato, especialmente en la comprensión auditiva, que es la destreza que más evoluciona durante este periodo.

Centrándonos ahora en el área focal 3, la competencia lingüística de los estudiantes en español se midió teniendo en cuenta sus notas en la asignatura de Lengua y Literatura Española, que aportaron los centros educativos. Por un lado, la PI 10 tiene por objetivo determinar los efectos que causa el seguir o no un programa AICLE sobre la L1. Por otro, la PI 11 establece el efecto de las variables género, área, contexto, nivel socioeconómico, tipo de centro y exposición extramural al inglés en las notas de la asignatura, y, por tanto, en la competencia en L1.

El estudio revela que los programas AICLE no causan daño a la competencia lingüística en L1, a pesar de que la exposición a este idioma se ve reducida durante las horas lectivas. En realidad, los estudiantes AICLE en educación secundaria obtuvieron mejores resultados que los no AICLE de forma estadísticamente significativa. Además, los resultados demuestran que las estudiantes obtienen mejores notas que los estudiantes en su lengua materna. Con

respecto al contexto, los estudiantes de entornos rurales están más atrasados que aquellos de entornos urbanos en su lengua materna, cuando el grupo AICLE y el no AICLE son considerados conjuntamente, al igual que sucede con el grupo no AICLE por sí solo. No obstante, en centros bilingües, los alumnos de entornos rurales son capaces de alcanzar a sus compañeros de entornos urbanos, aunque los resultados no son significativos estadísticamente. El nivel socioeconómico también tiene un efecto relevante en la L1: cuanto más alto es, más altas son las notas que sacan los estudiantes, aunque este fenómeno no es tan claro en contextos AICLE. Además, los alumnos de los centros concertados no AICLE obtienen mejores resultados en la L1 que aquellos que estudian en centros públicos AICLE, a pesar de que estas diferencias no son estadísticamente significativas. Finalmente, una mayor exposición extramural al inglés está relacionada con mejores resultados en la L1 para los grupos AICLE y no AICLE y para el no AICLE solo, pero no para el grupo exclusivamente AICLE, cuyos resultados no son estadísticamente significativos.

Después de considerar los efectos de AICLE en la L1, el área focal 4 examina la adquisición de contenido en las asignaturas del área no lingüística. Una vez más, para la comparación de los grupos experimental y de control, se recogieron las notas que los alumnos obtuvieron en una asignatura; en este caso, las notas de Ciencias Naturales. La PI evalúa si el programa AICLE influye en la adquisición de contenido estudiado bajo este enfoque, y la PI 13 estudia los efectos de las variables moduladoras mencionadas anteriormente.

Los resultados obtenidos no muestran diferencias estadísticamente significativas con respecto a la adquisición de contenido entre los estudiantes AICLE y no AICLE, lo que prueba que AICLE

no es perjudicial para el aprendizaje de la asignatura impartida en la lengua extranjera. Los alumnos de las provincias occidentales de Cádiz y Málaga obtienen mejores resultados que aquellos que estudian en las provincias orientales de Granada y Almería. Además, los estudiantes de entornos rurales, que tuvieron peores resultados que su contraparte urbana cuando tanto estudiantes AICLE y no AICLE fueron considerados, así como cuando solo se tenían en cuenta los no AICLE, sobrepasaron a los alumnos de entornos urbanos en Ciencias Naturales , aunque las diferencias no son estadísticamente significativas. Un fenómeno parecido ocurre con la variable de nivel socioeconómico, ya que los estudiantes de nivel socioeconómico más bajo se ponen al nivel de aquellos de estatus socioeconómico medio pero estas diferencias no son estadísticamente significativas. Con respecto al tipo de centro, los alumnos no AICLE de centros concertados son los que obtienen los mejores resultados, seguidos por los estudiantes AICLE de centros públicos, y, finalmente, por los estudiantes no AICLE de centros públicos. Debido al tamaño de la muestra, no se han realizado tests estadísticos con los centros privados AICLE.

Por último, el área focal 5 se centra en el análisis discriminante de los resultados. Este análisis determina si las diferencias entre el grupo experimental y el de control son realmente atribuibles al programa AICLE (PI 14). Mientras que el programa AICLE es la variable que explica mejor los resultados de los tests de inglés, en el caso de las asignaturas de Lengua Española y Ciencias Naturales, la variable con mayor potencial discriminante es desinterés por la asignatura, seguida por nivel socioeconómico y autoexigencia.

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APPENDIX 1: STUDENTS', TEACHERS', AND PARENTS' QUESTIONNAIRES

Students' 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 PROGRAMABILINGÜE? _____
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

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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

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Otro (especificar):	1	2	3	4
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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 SU COLABORACIÓN

Teachers' 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

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13. Mis alumnos tienen una capacidad adecuada en comprensión y expresión escritas en la lengua extranjera	1	2	3	4
14. Mis alumnos tienen un conocimiento adecuado de aspectos socio-culturales y una conciencia intercultural en la lengua extranjera	1	2	3	4
Otro (especificar):	1	2	3	4

2. METODOLOGÍA

ASPECTOS	TOTALMENTE EN DESACUERDO	EN DESACUERDO	DE ACUERDO	TOTALMENTE DE ACUERDO
15. Se utiliza el aprendizaje basado en tareas en clase	1	2	3	4
16. Se utiliza el aprendizaje basado en proyectos en clase	1	2	3	4
17. Se da prioridad a la dimensión léxica en la clase bilingüe	1	2	3	4
18. Se utiliza aprendizaje cooperativo en la clase bilingüe	1	2	3	4
19. Se enfatiza la conexión entre la L1 y la L2	1	2	3	4
20. Se siguen las recomendaciones del Marco Común Europeo de Referencia	1	2	3	4
21. Se siguen las recomendaciones del Portfolio Europeo de Lenguas	1	2	3	4
Otro (especificar):	1	2	3	4

3. MATERIALES Y RECURSOS

ASPECTOS	TOTALMENTE EN DESACUERDO	EN DESACUERDO	DE ACUERDO	TOTALMENTE DE ACUERDO
22. Se utilizan materiales auténticos para la enseñanza bilingüe	1	2	3	4
23. Se adaptan materiales auténticos para la enseñanza bilingüe	1	2	3	4
24. Los materiales para la enseñanza bilingüe son interesantes e innovadores	1	2	3	4

25. Los profesores de la sección bilingüe colaboran para preparar y enseñar los materiales de enseñanza bilingüe en clase	1	2	3	4
26. Los materiales de enseñanza bilingüe siguen principios comunicativos	1	2	3	4
27. Los materiales de enseñanza bilingüe están adaptados para atender las necesidades de todos los alumnos	1	2	3	4
28. Se utilizan materiales multimedia (<i>software</i>) en clase	1	2	3	4
29. Se utilizan materiales de referencia <i>online</i> en clase	1	2	3	4
30. Se utilizan <i>blogs</i> , <i>Wikis</i> (herramientas Web 2.0) y <i>webquests</i> en clase	1	2	3	4
31. Se utilizan pizarras electrónicas interactivas en clase	1	2	3	4
32. Se utiliza comunicación mediada por ordenador en clase (e.g., <i>e-Twinning</i>)	1	2	3	4
33. Los materiales incluyen algunas pautas en español para que los padres puedan ayudar a sus hijos en casa	1	2	3	4
Otro (especificar):	1	2	3	4

4. EVALUACIÓN

ASPECTOS	TOTALMENTE EN DESACUERDO	EN DESACUERDO	DE ACUERDO	TOTALMENTE DE ACUERDO
34. Se evalúan todos los contenidos enseñados en el programa bilingüe	1	2	3	4
35. A la hora de evaluar, se da prioridad al dominio de los contenidos frente a la competencia lingüística	1	2	3	4
36. A la hora de evaluar, se incluye un componente oral	1	2	3	4
37. Se practica la evaluación diversificada, formativa, sumativa y holística	1	2	3	4
Otro (especificar):	1	2	3	4

5. FORMACIÓN DEL PROFESORADO

ASPECTOS	TOTALMENTE EN DESACUERDO	EN DESACUERDO	DE ACUERDO	TOTALMENTE DE ACUERDO
38. Los profesores de lengua extranjera necesitan más formación	1	2	3	4
39. Los profesores de áreas no lingüísticas necesitan más formación	1	2	3	4
40. Los auxiliares lingüísticos necesitan más formación	1	2	3	4
41. Los profesores de lengua extranjera motivan al alumno en su aprendizaje del inglés	1	2	3	4
42. Los profesores de áreas no lingüísticas motivan al alumno en su aprendizaje del inglés	1	2	3	4
43. Los auxiliares lingüísticos motivan al alumno en su aprendizaje del inglés	1	2	3	4
44. Los auxiliares lingüísticos colaboran con éxito con los alumnos de la clase bilingüe	1	2	3	4
45. Los auxiliares lingüísticos colaboran con éxito con los otros profesores de la sección bilingüe	1	2	3	4
46. Tengo una capacidad adecuada en comprensión y expresión orales en inglés	1	2	3	4
47. Tengo una capacidad adecuada en comprensión y expresión escritas en inglés	1	2	3	4
48. Tengo un conocimiento adecuado de aspectos socio-culturales y una conciencia intercultural sobre la LE	1	2	3	4
49. Tengo conocimiento del plan de fomento del plurilingüismo de mi comunidad autónoma: objetivos, acciones, pilares, y marco legislativo	1	2	3	4
50. Tengo conocimiento de los principios básicos del Aprendizaje Integrado de Contenidos y Lenguas Extranjeras dentro de la educación bilingüe	1	2	3	4
51. He participado en formación sobre el Aprendizaje Integrado de Contenidos y Lenguas Extranjeras	1	2	3	4
52. He realizado cursos de actualización lingüística en las EOIs	1	2	3	4

Otro (especificar):	1	2	3	4
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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 Cumplo 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

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	1	2	3	4

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tecnologías en la enseñanza bilingüe				
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 2: INTERVIEW PROTOCOLS

Students' 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?

Teachers' 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?

Parents' interview protocol

Proyecto MON-CLIL: Los Efectos del Aprendizaje Integrado de Contenidos y Lenguas Extranjeras en Comunidades Monolingües: Un Estudio Longitudinal

Protocolo de entrevistas

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

1) USO DE LA L2 EN CLASE

¿Considera que el nivel de inglés de los profesores de su hijo/a es adecuado para participar en el programa bilingüe?

¿Considera que el nivel de inglés de su hijo/a ha mejorado como consecuencia de su participación en el programa bilingüe?

¿Es más difícil aprender los contenidos de las asignaturas enseñadas en inglés?

2) METODOLOGÍA Y TIPOS DE AGRUPAMIENTO

¿Considera que la metodología empleada en clase fomenta la comprensión y expresión oral en inglés de su hijo/a?

¿Considera que la metodología empleada en clase fomenta la comprensión lectora y expresión escrita en inglés de su hijo/a?

¿Es capaz de ayudar a su hijo/a con los deberes de enseñanza bilingüe?

¿Tiene su hijo/a exposición al inglés fuera del centro? ¿De qué fuentes?

EJEMPLOS:

Libros Revistas Periódicos Televisión Cine Internet Videojuegos Música

3) MATERIALES Y RECURSOS

¿Qué materiales y recursos emplea su hijo/a en clase? ¿Y en casa? ¿Considera que tiene acceso adecuado a ellos?

EJEMPLOS: *Materiales auténticos Materiales adaptados*

*Materiales originales Libro de texto Software específico Recursos online Blogs
Wikis Webquests
Pizarra electrónica e-Twinning*

4) COORDINACIÓN Y ORGANIZACIÓN

¿Existe suficiente comunicación y coordinación entre los profesores de su hijo/a?
¿Tienen los profesores de su hijo una formación adecuada para participar en un programa bilingüe?

5) EVALUACIÓN

¿Considera la evaluación en los programas bilingües adecuada?

6) MOVILIDAD

¿Ha participado su hijo/a en algún programa de intercambio? Si es así, ¿le resultó beneficioso? Si no es así, ¿cree que le resultaría beneficioso?

¿Le han animado sus profesores a que participe en ellos? ¿Y ustedes?

7) MOTIVACIÓN Y CARGA DE TRABAJO

¿Considera que participar en un programa bilingüe ha incrementado la carga de trabajo de su hijo/a?

¿Ha merecido la pena? ¿Está más motivado?

8) CONOCIMIENTO DE LOS PROGRAMAS BILINGÜES

¿Conoce usted el funcionamiento del programa bilingüe en el centro de su hijo/a?

¿Conoce usted las características del Aprendizaje Integrado de Contenidos y Lenguas Extranjeras?

¿Está familiarizado/a con el Plan de Fomento del Plurilingüismo de la Junta de Andalucía?

9) VALORACIÓN GLOBAL

¿Cuáles considera que son las principales dificultades de participar en un programa bilingüe?

¿Y las principales ventajas?

¿Cómo lo valora de modo global?

APPENDIX 3: ENGLISH TESTS

/100

Sixth grade of primary education

ENGLISH TEST
PRIMARY EDUCATION, 6TH GRADE

Centro:___; Curso:___; Fecha:___/___/ 20_ Apellidos, Nombre:_____; Sexo: H /M

Use of English: /25

A. Write questions for these answers:

(1) My name's Bert:

_____?

(2) I live in Madrid:

_____?

(3) Scotland's in the north of Great Britain:

_____?

(4) I'm fine, thanks!:

_____?

(5) My computer's grey:

_____?

B. Look at the picture on the right. Read and complete

Use: ON, IN, BY, WITH, UNDER

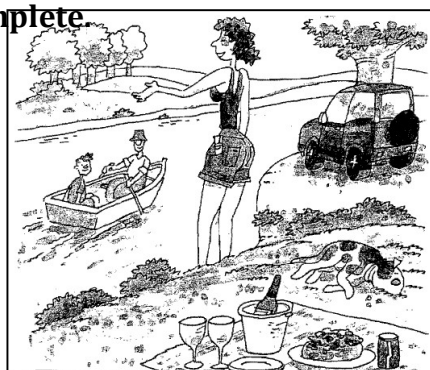
(6) The man's _____ the boat.

(7) The woman's _____ the river.

(8) The boy's _____ the man.

(9) The car's _____ the tree.

(10) The dog's _____ the grass.

**C. Match the numbers with the letters:**

(11) 1. Expressing ability

A. Let's play hide & seek

- (12) 2. Narrating what is happening
 (13) 3. Greeting people
 (14) 4. Introducing a friend
 (15) 5. Suggesting a game
- B. Hi, Anne! How are you?
 C. This is Pablo.
 D. Can you play the guitar?
 E. The plane's taking off. 1:____; 2:____;
 3:____; 4:____; 5: _____

D. Complete using: MY, ITS, HIS, THEIR


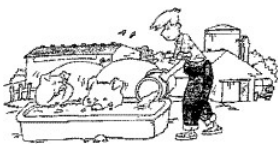


- (16) John and Peter are doctors. This is _____ hospital.
 (17) This is a policeman. That's _____ car.
 (18) Look at the fox. _____ tail isn't short. It's long.
 (19) I'm a clerk. This is _____ office.

E. Complete using: DO, DOES, DID, AREN'T, ISN'T, IS.

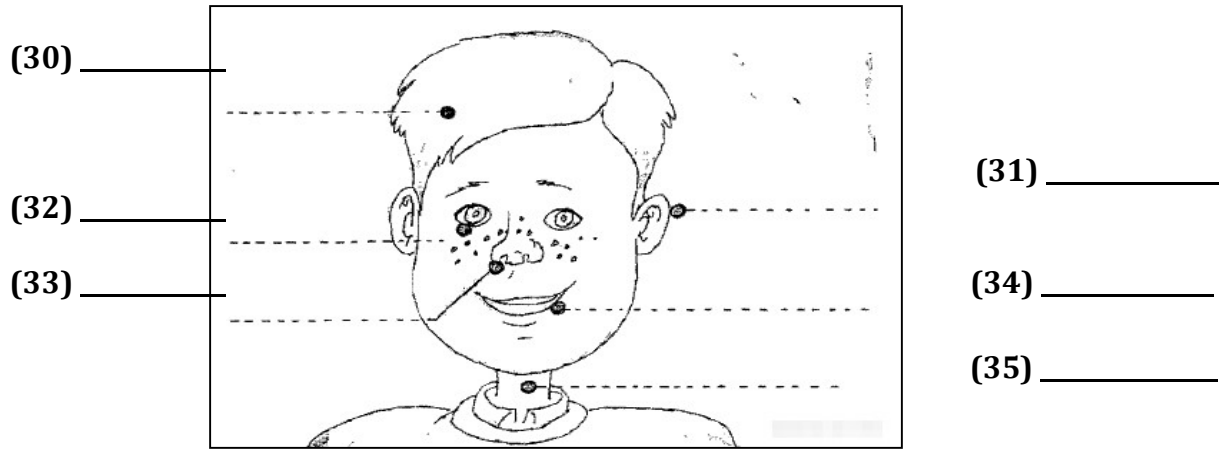
- (20) Is your teacher Spanish? No, s/he _____.
 (21) _____ John study English yesterday?
 (22) Your friends _____ sleeping. They are reading English.
 (23) _____ your teacher reading a book? Yes, s/he is.
 (24) _____ he live in London?
 (25) _____ they live in Africa?

Vocabulary: /15

F. Complete using: FEEDS, CHASES, DRIVES, GETS UP

			
(26) In summer he _____ early.	(27) He _____ the pigs.	(28) Sometimes he _____ the chickens.	(29) And sometimes he _____ a tractor.

G. Write the parts of the body:



H. (36-40) Read and complete. Use: A GIRL, RIGHT, HERE, LOVELY, NAME



Listening: /16

I. Mary and Rex are talking about their summer holidays. What did they do? Listen and complete the table below. You will hear the conversation twice.

	Things they did	Games and activities
Mary	(41) _____	(42) _____ (43) _____
Rex	(44) _____	(45) _____ (46) _____

J. Clive and Amy are having a party. What have they got? Listen and write Y (yes) or N (no):

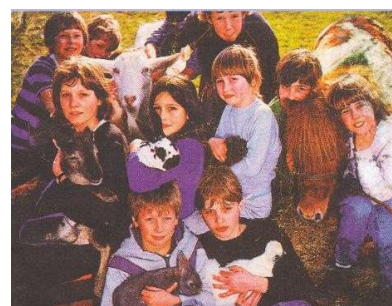
	Clive		Amy	
Drinks	coke	(47) _____	lemonade	(52) _____
	orange juice	(48) _____	water	(53) _____
	tea	(49) _____	milk	(54) _____
Food	sandwiches	(50) _____	chocolate	(55) _____
	chips	(51) _____	cakes	(56) _____

Reading: /15

K. Read this brief text and then answer the questions below:

Have you got any pets?

Hi there, friends! These are our pets. We've got a white goat, a grey rabbit and a small brown, white pony. There's also a hen and woolly sheep. Ah, and a noisy dog that barks in the evening! All of them eat grass but they also like the food we buy in the supermarket! We often play with them in the garden and have fun!



(57) What's the text about?

(58) What happens with the dog?

(59) What's the pony like?

(60) What do they eat?

L. What's the weather like in Britain? Read this text about the weather in Britain and underline the correct words:



The weather in Britain

In Britain it rains a lot and it is very **(61) want/wind/windy/with** too. So the countryside is very **(62) sweet/green/well/water** and there are lots of bushes, trees and hedges in the **(63) sea/fields/sky/car**. The weather is very changeable: very **(64) good/often/well/nice** you may have a cloudy and foggy **(65) morning/fish/pencil/bike**, a sunny and windy afternoon, and a **(66) with/wet/well/left** evening.

M. Read the following poem:

Jack and Jill went up the hill To fetch
a pail of water
Jack fell down and broke his crown
And Jill came tumbling after!



*The effects of CLIL in monolingual communities:
A large-scale evaluation in Andalusia*

Now tell the story by using the following words: BROKE, WALKED UP, HURT, WAS, CAME DOWN.

Yesterday **(67)**_____a terrible day for Jack and Jill. They **(68)**
_____ the hill to fetch a bucket of water and they fell down.
Jack **(69)**_____his head and Jill **(70)**_____after him and **(71)**
_____her arms and knees.

Writing: /14

N. (72-78) Write an e-mail to a friend telling him/her what you do on your summer holidays.



**O. (79-85) Write about your family: your brother, sister, mother or father.
What do they do at the weekend? Use the following example as a guide:**

My brother Pedro gets up late at the weekend. He has breakfast and then helps my parents in the bar. He rides his bike and plays soccer with his friends, too.



Speaking: /15

P. (86-100) In pairs.

ENGLISH TEST (Speaking)
PRIMARY EDUCATION, 6TH GRADE

Student's sheet



ENGLISH TEST (Speaking)

PRIMARY EDUCATION, 6TH GRADE

Teacher's sheet

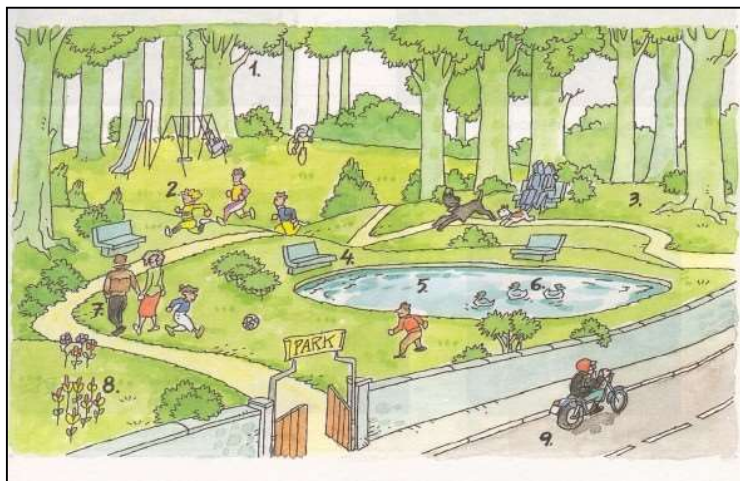
Centro: __; Curso: __; Fecha: __/__/20__ Apellidos, Nombre: _____; Sexo: H / M

Speaking: /15

A. About the student's personal life:

- (1) Hi, what's your name? And what's your English teacher's name?
- (2) How old are you?
- (3) Where do you live?
- (4) What's your mother's first language?
- (5) And your father's first language?
- (6) What language do you speak at home?
- (7) How many brothers or sisters have you got?
- (8) What are your hobbies? What do you like?
- (9) What did you do last weekend?
- (10) What are your plans for this summer? What will you do?

B. Now let's talk about this park:



- (11) Are there any people in this park? What people can you see?
- (12) Are there any animals? What animals can you see?

*The effects of CLIL in monolingual communities:
A large-scale evaluation in Andalusia*

(13) Are there any swings? Where are they?

(14) What's the boy in picture 9 doing?

(15) Is there a park near your house or in your town? What is it like? What is there in that park?

Fourth grade of CSE

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 \Rightarrow 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
- C. In London

- B. In New Zealand
- 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

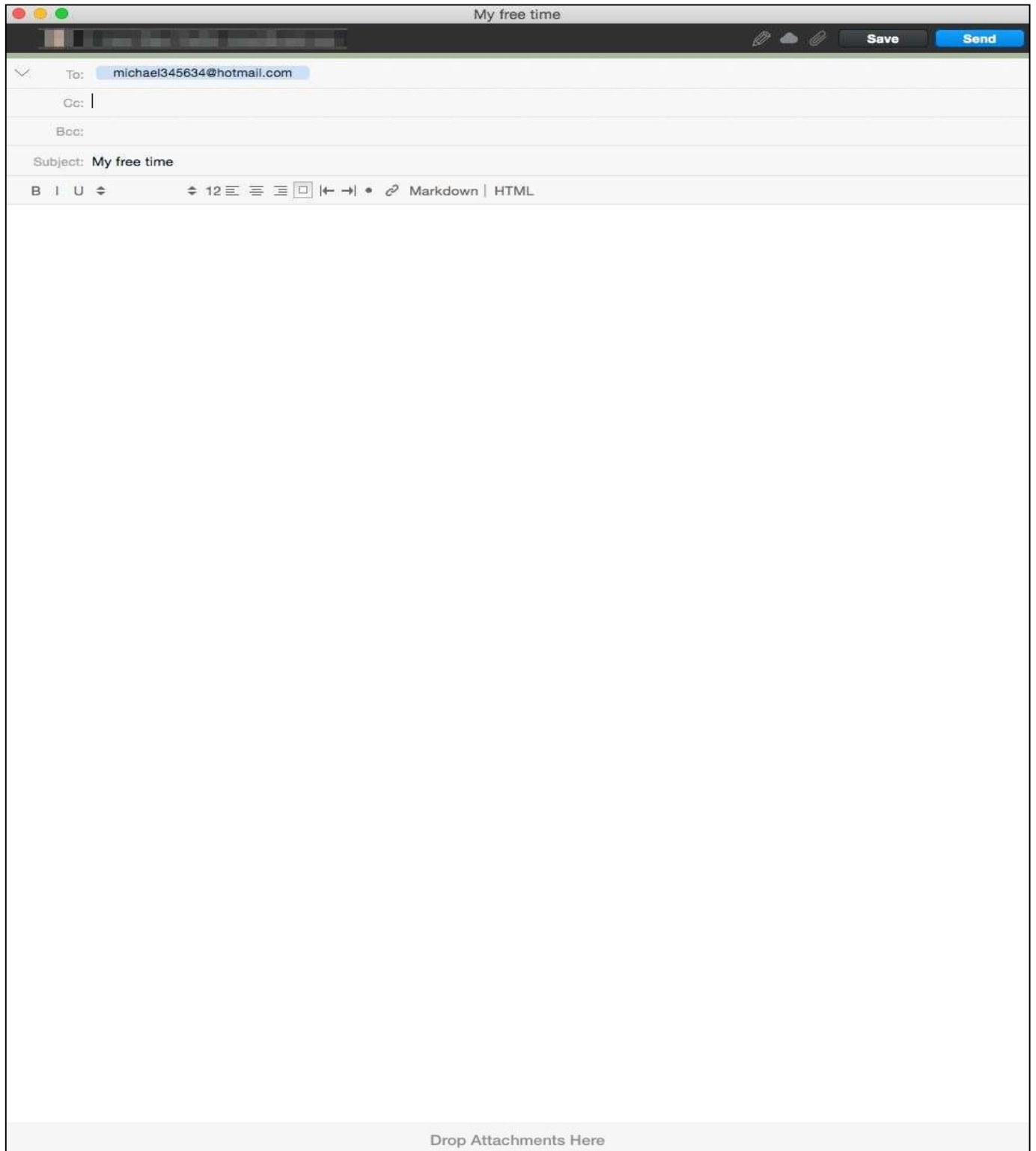
(72) When using body language, it is useful to

- 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 window title is "My free time". The header bar contains a "Save" button and a "Send" button. The email header fields are: To: michael345634@hotmail.com, Cc: |, Bcc: |, and Subject: My free time. Below the header is a rich text editor toolbar with icons for Bold (B), Italic (I), Underline (U), and a list of icons for text alignment and bullet points. The text area is empty. At the bottom of the window, there is a grey bar with the text "Drop Attachments Here".

Speaking: /14

L (87-100) In pairs.

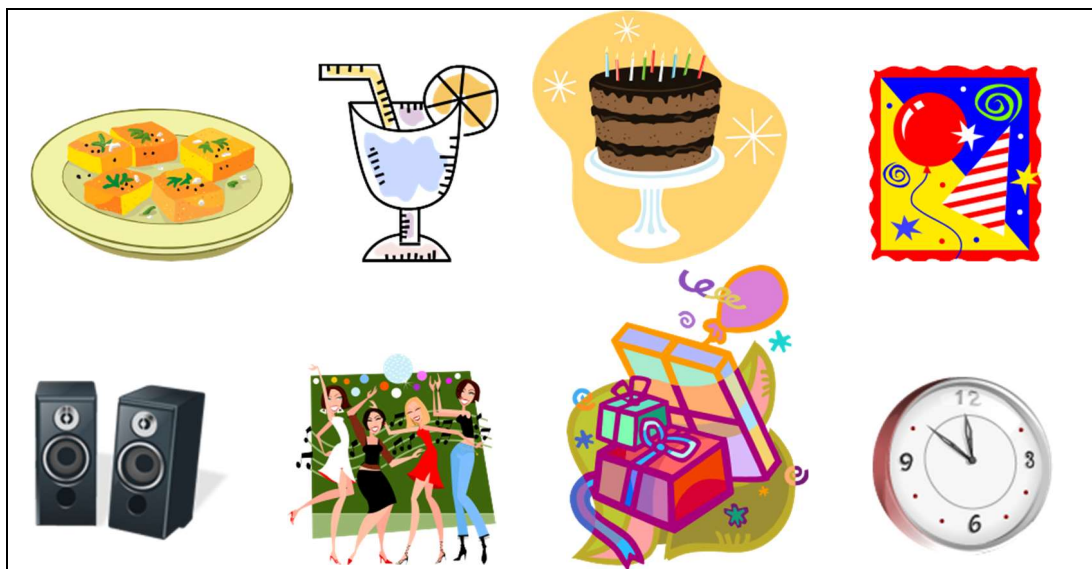
ENGLISH TEST (Speaking)

SECONDARY EDUCATION, 4TH GRADE
Student's sheet

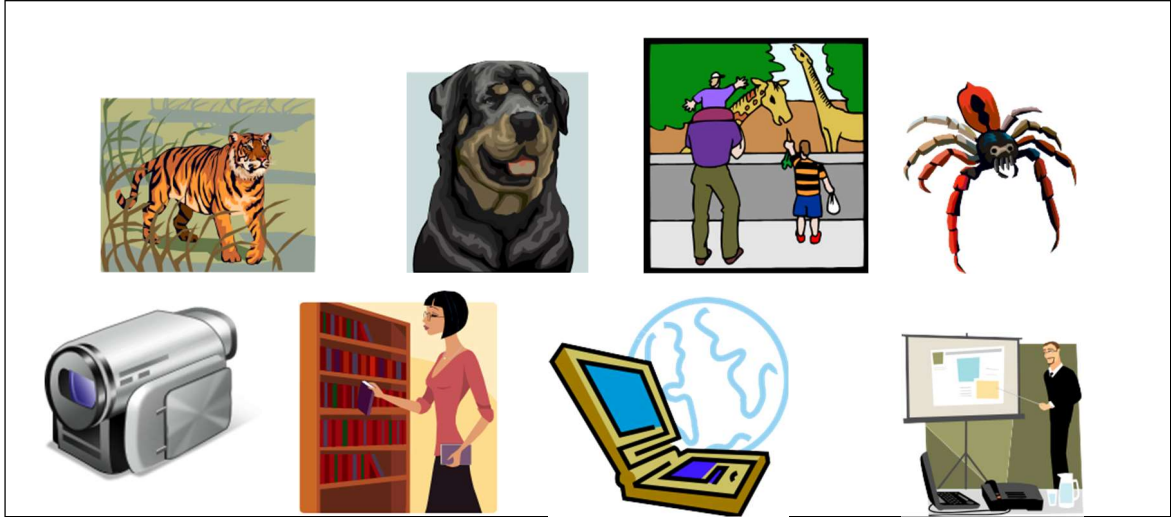
- Scenario 1



- Scenario 2



- Scenario 3



ENGLISH TEST (Speaking)

SECONDARY EDUCATION, 4TH GRADE
Teacher's sheet

Centro: ____; Curso: __; Fecha: __/__/ 20_ Apellidos, Nombre: _____; Sexo: H / M

Speaking: /16

A. In pairs. About the students' personal lives:

- (1) Hi, what's your name? And surname(s)?
- (2) How do you spell that [referring to name or surname(s)]?
- (3) Where do you live?
- (4) Can you describe your house?
- (5) Who do you live with?
- (6) What do you like to do in your free time?
- (7) Have you ever travelled to another country [if not, city]? What did you do there?
- (8) What would you like to do in the future?

B. In pairs. Spoken interaction: two-way dialogue. Use ONLY one scenario.

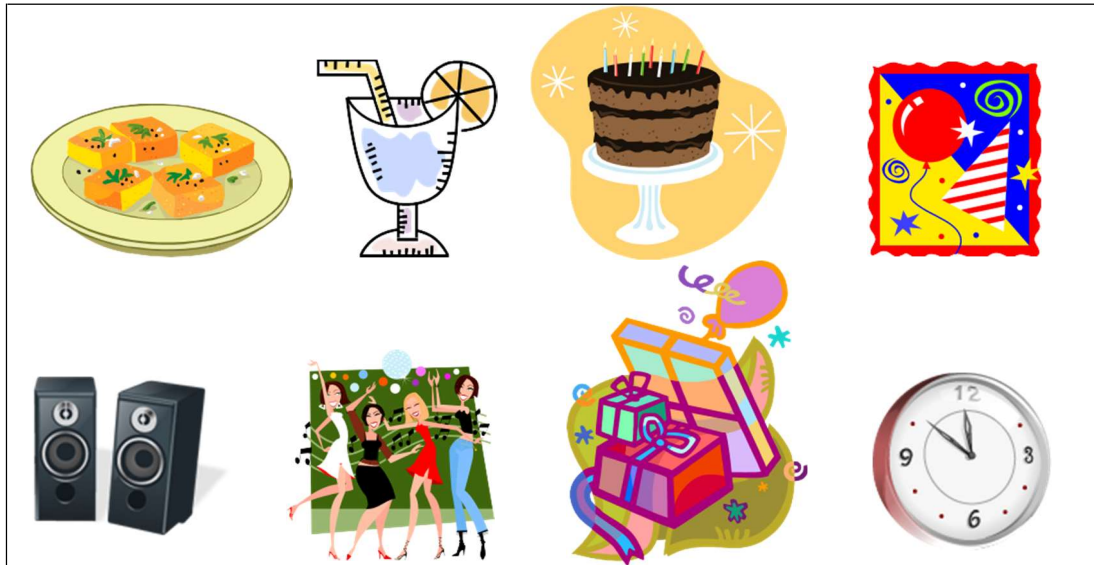
- **Scenario 1**



Examiner: Now, I want you to imagine that you are going on a trip to New York. Both of you have to plan the trip. Look at the examples in the pictures below and decide:

- (9-10) What things you are going to bring with you
- (11-12) What you are going to do in New York

• Scenario 2

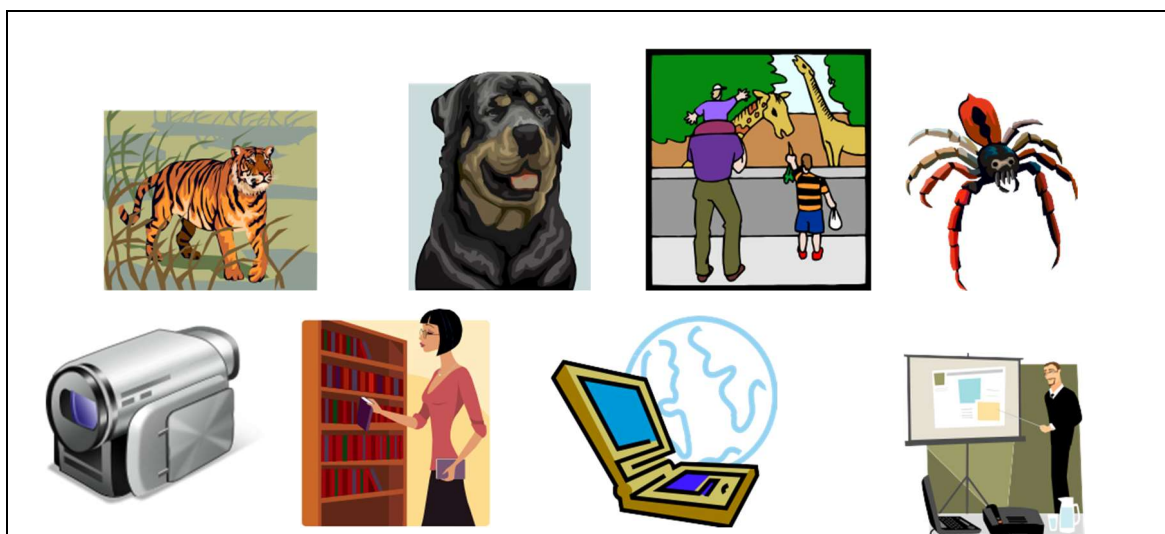


Examiner: Now, I want you to imagine that you are going to organise a surprise birthday party for a friend. Both of you have to plan the party. Look at the examples in the pictures below and decide:

- (9-10) What you are going to buy for the party
- (11-12) What you are going to do at the party

* * *

• Scenario 3



Examiner: Now, I want you to imagine that you are going to do a school project on animals. Both of you have to plan the project. Look at the examples in the pictures below and decide:

- **(9-10)** What animal or animals you are going to write about
- **(11-12)** What you are going to do for the project

C. Three-way dialogue.

Examiner: now the three of us are going to talk about two topics **(13-14) (15-16)**. Here we have to give our opinion on each thing. We can ask questions, debate, agree or disagree [examiner chooses only from Block A or Block B].

Block A	Block B
The importance of English	The importance of school
Internet	Mobile phones

APPENDIX 4: ORAL RUBRIC

	GRAMMATICAL RANGE AND ACCURACY	LEXICAL RANGE AND ACCURACY	FLUENCY AND INTERACTION	PRONUNCIATION STRESS AND INTONATION	TASK FULFILLMENT/ APPROPRIACY OF RESPONSE/ COMMUNICATIVE EFFECTIVENESS
2	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Shows a <i>good degree</i> of control of basic grammatical structures to deal with the content of the test - Shows a <i>good degree</i> of control of grammatical accuracy to deal with simple exchanges - Makes basic mistakes but most errors do not impede communication 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Shows a <i>good degree</i> of control of lexical range to deal with the content of the test - Shows a <i>good degree</i> of control of lexical precision to deal with simple exchanges 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Few pauses, false starts and reformulations - Responds slowly on <i>very few occasions</i> - Maintains simple exchanges. Requires <i>very little prompting and support</i> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - <i>Mostly intelligible</i> and has <i>good</i> control of phonological features at both utterance and word level - <i>Good</i> control of lexical stress and intonation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Fulfils the task well
1.5	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Shows <i>sufficient</i> control of basic grammatical structures to deal with the content of the test - Shows <i>sufficient</i> control of grammatical accuracy to deal with simple exchanges - Makes basic mistakes. Major errors occasionally impede communication 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Shows <i>sufficient</i> control of lexical range to deal with the content of the test - Shows <i>sufficient</i> control of lexical precision to deal with simple exchanges 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - <i>Some pauses, false starts and reformulations</i> - Responds slowly on <i>few occasions</i> due to need to formulate output - Maintains simple exchanges despite some difficulty. Requires <i>some</i> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - <i>Mostly intelligible</i> and has <i>sufficient</i> control of phonological features - <i>Sufficient</i> control of lexical stress and intonation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Fulfils the task appropriately

			prompting and support		
1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Shows an <i>acceptable</i> degree of control of basic grammatical 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 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Shows <i>acceptable</i> control of lexical range to deal with the content of the test - Shows <i>acceptable</i> control of lexical precision to deal with simple exchanges 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Pauses, false starts and reformulations are <i>frequent</i> - Responds 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 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - <i>Limited</i> control of phonological features and <i>sometimes</i> unintelligible - <i>Acceptable</i> control of lexical stress and intonation <i>just enough to follow</i> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Fulfils the task <i>acceptably with support</i>
0.5	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Shows <i>only limited</i> control of basic grammatical structures. <i>Does not manage</i> to deal with the content of the test - Shows <i>only limited</i> control of grammatical accuracy for simple exchanges - Makes basic mistakes and major errors <i>often</i> impede communication 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Shows <i>only limited</i> control of lexical range to deal with the content of the test - Shows <i>only limited</i> control of lexical precision to deal with simple exchanges 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Pauses, false starts and reformulations are <i>very frequent</i> - <i>Often</i> responds slowly due to failure to understand input - Has difficulty maintaining simple exchanges <i>even with additional</i> prompting and support 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - <i>Limited</i> control of phonological features and <i>often</i> unintelligible - <i>Limited</i> control of lexical stress and intonation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Does not fulfil the task <i>even with support</i>
0	<p>NO PERFORMANCE TO ASSESS Does not speak or does not speak in English</p>				

