UNIVERSIDAD DE JAÉN

FACULTAD DE HUMANIDADES Y CIENCIAS DE LA EDUCACIÓN

DEPARTAMENTO DE FILOLOGÍA INGLESA

TESIS DOCTORAL

●

CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING (CLIL): A QUALITATIVE STUDY IN COMPULSORY SECONDARY EDUCATION IN MADRID (SPAIN)

PRESENTADA POR:

ZAHRA CHAIEBERRAS

DIRIGIDA POR:

DR. DIEGO J. RASCÓN MORENO

DRA. MARÍA LUISA PÉREZ CAÑADO

JAÉN, NOVIEMBRE DE 2018

TESIS DOCTORAL

●

**CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING
(CLIL): A QUALITATIVE STUDY IN COMPULSORY
SECONDARY EDUCATION IN MADRID (SPAIN)**

PRESENTADA POR:

ZAHRA CHAIEBERRAS

2018

Finally, I wish to express my heartfelt thanks to all my best friends from Spain, Morocco, and the U.S.A who have supported me in my aspirations, shown interest or participated in this research process or, simply, have been there for me.

Dedication

First and foremost, I dedicate my dissertation work to the hope for peace and tolerance in the world. I also dedicate it to my beloved parents Mohammed Chaieberras and Kaltoum Chennouf.

Table of contents

Appendices

Appendix I. Student questionnaire

Appendix II. Teacher questionnaire

Appendix III. Parent questionnaire

Appendix IV. Student interview protocol

Appendix V. Teacher interview protocol

Appendix VI. Classroom observation protocol

Appendix VII. List of participating schools

Appendix VIII. CD recordings of both teacher and student interviews

List of graphs

List of tables

List of abbreviations

ACT   Auxiliary Conversation Teachers

ALM   Audio-lingual Method

ANOVA   Analysis of Variance

APPP   Andalusian Plurilingualism Promotion Plan

BE   Bilingual Education

BICS   Basic Interpersonal Communicative Skills

BOPA   Official Bulletin of Principality of Asturias

CALP   Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency

CAM   *Comunidad de Madrid*

CEFRL   Common European Framework of Reference for Languages

CLIL   Content and Language Integrated Learning

CMC   Computer-Mediated Communication

CM   Code Mixing

COP   Classroom Observation Protocol

CS   Code Switching

CSE   Compulsory Secondary Education

EAL   English as an Additional Language

EFL   English as a Foreign Language

ELA   English Language Arts

ELL   English Language Learner

ELP   European Language Portfolio

EMI   English as a Medium of Instruction

ES   European Schools

ESL   English as a Second Language

ESOL   English for Speakers of Other Languages

ESP	English for Specific Purposes
FL	Foreign Language
FLT	Foreign Language Teachers
ICC	Intercultural Communicative Competence
ICT	Information and Communication Technologies
ILC	Integrated Language Curriculum
LEP	Limited English Proficient
L1, L2, L3	First Language, Second Language, Third Language
MLPSI	Modern Languages in Primary Schools Initiative
NCCA	National Council for Curriculum and Assessment
NDSP	National Digital School Plan
NL	Native Language
NLA	Non-linguistic Area
PEBE	Bilingual Teaching Enriched Program
PEDLA	*Plan Estratégico de Desarrollo de las Lenguas en Andalucía*
SEI	Structured English Immersion
SL	Second Language
SLA	Second Language Acquisition
SLL	Second Language Learning
SLO	Specific Learning Outcome

SMI   Spanish as a Medium of Instruction

SWOT   Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities, and Threats

TA   Teaching Assistant

TWI   Two-way Immersion

VLE   Virtual Learning Environment

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

In recent years, there has been an increasing interest in language learning, simply because "the role of language in a society is built into its structures to such a degree that it is a fundamental variable in that society" (González, 2008, p. 293). Educational models have begun to change shape and make a shift from the traditional model of education to a modern one. As Hufeisen (2007, p. 120) has stated, "It has been established that the traditional second language acquisition models no longer suffice to describe and explain the complex acquisition process of foreign languages".

The emergence of a global world pushes many countries to recalibrate their traditional educational systems, with respect to new language acquisition, and thus to establish new approaches to learning languages. For instance, the development of bilingual education (BE) in many countries of the world is an example of this type of change occurring in various societies.

The rapid spread of learning languages besides the mother tongue is governed by the idea of creativity in using a global language to achieve a better interaction within the community. De Mejía (2002, p. 4) has pointed out this change as an "extremely rapid development of international communications —'the international technology revolution'". According to Kostogriz (2009), "Improving teaching standards in the area of languages is currently identified as a key issue and, hence, has been tied to the development of a national curriculum for languages by the new National Curriculum Board" (p. 133).

In this regard, through educational advancement, many societies strive for entrance into the world of science and technology, now more than ever. As De Mejía (2002, p. 4) stressed, "The use of world languages (especially English) is considered by

many of the governing elite as vital to the modernization of the economy and to the development of science and technology".

Indeed, societies need to respond creatively to any challenge that demands the need of an additional world language, and their education systems must support students in achieving linguistic and academic goals, but also interactive and communication skills. This new "dimension of teaching" (Pavón Vázquez & Gaustad, 2013, p. 83) has appeared to improve the process of both enhancing language learning and the learning of other academic subjects.

Bilingual education is a tool that can address underlying stigmas that pose barriers to progress and prosperity in any society. Challenges, such as poverty and illiteracy, influence the quality of societies' educational systems, diminishing teaching pedagogy and insufficiently supporting students learning, with negative consequences for society in general.

Societies are obliged to improve educational systems and to implement effective programs in order to address these challenges and to meet the needs of their citizens. More effective teaching pedagogy ultimately increases the potential for gainful employment and lifestyles of tomorrow's adult citizens, who will make up, participate in, and build the very society that invested in a quality educational system for them.

1.1. Aims of the study

This study investigates the approach of Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) in Secondary schools of the region of Madrid, Spain. The fundamental goal is to evaluate the way in which CLIL programs develop and function in the *Comunidad de Madri*d according to the key players involved in their grassroots, bottom-up implementation. Thus, this research intends to provide both theoretical and empirical evidence for planning and implementing an increasingly demanded bilingual education, especially within the monolingual regions of Spain. Specifically, it focuses on Compulsory Secondary Education (CSE). In turn, quality control in CLIL programs will be examined, using empirically-grounded data to identify measures which may resolve weaknesses and reinforce strengths and opportunities.

1.2. Motivation

I am attracted to language acquisition as a social and political concern for the 21st century. Speaking four languages (Arabic, French, Spanish, and English) made me decide to qualitatively investigate the phenomena of language acquisition. Exploring how students acquire an additional language uncovers important, current issues in society, related to linguistics and cognitive understanding. My personal perspective, added to empirical studies on bilingualism, will likely support further research concerning the methodology of language acquisition.

Moreover, phenomenological research about language acquisition has heightened my personal and professional growth, allowing me a particular expertise I can share towards the improvement of the educational system within any society.

Therefore, I believe that my thesis can make significant contributions in the quality analysis of CLIL as one of the latest revolutionary methods in the field of education.

1.3. Outline

The dissertation consists of six chapters that report on original research in bilingual Secondary Education and CLIL programs, pertaining to the use and need of an additional language. Chapter One defines the aims of the study and the motivation behind it. It also provides a summary of each chapter, highlighting the most important issues involved in bilingual Secondary Education and CLIL, and providing a synopsis of the thesis.

This thesis is divided into two main parts: theoretical research which is included in Chapters Two and Three and empirical research in Chapters Four and Five. Chapter Six is the conclusion.

Chapter Two is a comprehensive literature review of the development of bilingual education. It outlines global issues that underpin bilingual programs and discusses the characteristics of the two most popular bilingual programs: immersion education in Canada and bilingual education in the USA. Each program is defined according to various experts' research, in relation to the processes of teaching and learning languages, as well as their praxis in schools.

Chapter Three reviews how CLIL functions within the educational environments of Europe and Spain, drawing on CLIL literature and implementation in both monolingual and bilingual settings. It also reveals the process of change in Spanish

bilingual schools and provides a comprehensive description of their educational environments. A clear landscape of the birth and growth of bilingual and multilingual education in Spain's educational system is presented as well. In other words, this chapter demonstrates how educational institutions in both monolingual and bilingual settings have implemented learning and teaching content through an additional language. Additionally, the chapter goes into detail about CLIL in Madrid, specifically. It describes the process of learning a second language in bilingual Secondary schools. Finally, the chapter comprehensively evaluates CLIL's development and functioning within the community.

Chapter Four provides a practical framework of empirical research focusing on investigating perceptions of CLIL in bilingual Compulsory Secondary Education in Madrid. The research considers public, charter, and private bilingual schools in rural and urban areas of Madrid. It measures students', teachers', and parents' satisfaction with all the curricular and organizational aspects of CLIL and analyzes strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, and threats (SWOT analysis).

The study uses a qualitative research design, studying the phenomenon of formal language acquisition within the environment in which it occurs, the classroom. Three types of instruments have been implemented: questionnaires, focus controlled group interviews, and direct behavior observations. Multiple variables have been considered and a descriptive analysis on the qualitative data has been performed, while using the Grounded Theory Approach for the qualitative analysis. The study includes all the stakeholders involved in bilingual education: students, coordinators, foreign language (FL) teachers, non-linguistic area (NLA) teachers, teaching assistants (TAs), and

parents. Gathering data from 900 students, 90 teachers, and 90 parents was initially attempted; however, due to the size of the classes surveyed, the final sample size was 754 students, 77 teachers, and 77 parents, who belonged to six public, six private, and six charter schools in both urban and rural regions across Madrid. Of these 18 schools, one did not allow the administration of questionnaires.

Chapter Five provides the research results. The data collected from the bilingual Secondary schools in Madrid, qualitatively analyzed, are presented, followed by the outcomes and results of CLIL implementation in the sample group. This chapter also explains how the findings support scientific contributions and provide data-driven results for use in future research and by educational authorities and policy-makers, teacher trainers, coordinators, practitioners, and students involved in CLIL schemes.

Chapter Six answers the research questions set out in chapter 4, specifically in heading 4.2. It also offers insight into the satisfaction of stakeholders. In addition, this chapter offers conclusions of some limitations and pedagogical implications, and suggestions for future lines of investigation. Finally, the list of works cited and the appendices containing the research tools can be found, together with the names of the bilingual schools in Madrid where the investigation was carried out.

CHAPTER 2

DEFINITION AND CHARACTERIZATION OF CLIL

It is commonly accepted that education, throughout history, has encompassed diversity and has recognized its place in policies and practice. As the world moves toward increasing globalization, mobility, scientific and technological innovation, and competence needs (Marsh, 2012, p, ix), many countries and societies are compelled to change and adapt to new policies for their educational institutions. "Education has been identified as a key priority in 'creating an innovative, productive workforce that can adapt to a rapidly changing world'" (Rudd, 2007, p. 4, in Kostogriz, 2009, p. 132).

Ministries of education and policy makers have had to establish and organize new educational systems, as a result of this rapid change and growth. For instance, in Europe, "globalisation, European Union (EU) policies, migrant movements and Global English are changing the languages and cultures of European nations in some way" (Vez, 2009, p. 8). With the emergence of this global world, innovative programs and approaches have appeared as early policies to step up to new challenges. Recent developments, especially in the fields of linguistics and sociolinguistics, have led many schools to employ new approaches instead of relying on traditional ones.

These recent approaches to pedagogy are not only tasked with teaching students about new aspects of culture, while promoting resources that can benefit educational institutions and their stakeholders as a whole, but they are also tasked with ensuring students achieve and develop communicative skills and acquire effective learning strategies in language acquisition. Lindholm-Leary (2001, p. 1) has highlighted "the need to implement programs that promote higher levels of communicative proficiency than those offered by traditional foreign language models". Thus, the stage has been set

for bilingualism and "bilinguality," even if they are not new phenomena, as Grosjean (2010, p. 9) underscores: "In earlier times, when traders travelled to areas where another language was spoken, or a lingua franca was used, many —buyers as well as sellers— became bilingual". From the distant past until now, history is replete with examples of those who have spoken two or more languages out of necessity (Grosjean, 2010, pp. 7-10).

Today, it can be said that bilingualism begins in school. There is much in the literature about bilingual programs and about how countries around the world attempt to define, develop, analyze, and evaluate these programs. In the 21st century, we can identify very specific responses to the need for bilingual programs, such as the immersion education programs in Canada, bilingual education programs in the USA, and CLIL in Europe. These programs are geared toward teaching monolinguals and bilinguals another language and support the idea of being bilingual or multilingual. They are structured in a way that includes teaching both content and language in the classroom. Each of these programs implements language teaching in its own way, yet their differences reflect their cultures.

In the last few decades, the literature bears out that the methods which these programs have been using are successful in the process of teaching and learning a second or a third language. As Cummins (2000, p. 203) stated, "There have been close to 150 research studies carried out since the early 1960s that report significant advantages for bilingual students on a variety of metalinguistic and cognitive tasks".

Other experts have said that these bilingual programs foster the idea of easy communication and reinforce the act of teaching and learning in modern ways, involving technological innovation and digital equipment, enriching creative learning, and expanding opportunities for language learning. According to Meyer (2010):

Video clips, flash-animations, web-quests, pod-casts or other interactive materials on English websites combine motivating and illustrative materials with authentic language input. They constitute a rich source for designing challenging tasks that foster creative thinking and create opportunities for meaningful language output. (p.14)

Azzaro and Rice (2012, p. 157) argued that "Hinging on real materials (based on the Web or real-life recordings), the possible activities are countless, ranging from near-duplicates of textbook activities to completely interactive digital ones, unthinkable in print".

Furthermore, recent developments in the field of linguistics have led to the growth of bilingual and multilingual issues, because "bilingual programs gained acceptance in the early 1960s as a result of wide-ranging efforts by language minority communities in lobbying legislators and educational policymakers for culturally relevant education programs" (González, 2008, p. 233).

Although bilingualism is a "simple label for a complex phenomenon" (Baker & Jones, 1998, p. 464), learning to communicate in a bilingual environment promotes an individual's capacity for interaction and that individual's ability to become an articulate member of society; it also highlights key features that characterize bilingualism itself.

Such is the nature of language acquisition that it is growing as an important issue among modern societies and its significance is manifest as well.

Based on this research, it is evident that bilingualism was born to satisfy the need to communicate and to interact in more than one language, as "bilinguality is the psychological state of an individual who has access to more than one linguistic code as a means of social communication" (Hamers & Blanc, 2000, p. 6). The need to learn new languages in order to upgrade foreign language proficiency (Marsh, 2002; Pérez Cañado, 2011) becomes unquestionable. Teaching and learning languages has taken many shapes over the centuries, depending on the context in which this type of education was needed.

Bilingualism or bilingual education in the USA, Canada, and Europe are contemporary examples of how countries and societies have attempted to address the shape and form of this need. As Ramírez (1985, p. 18) has stated, "Bilingual education around the world varies because of factors associated with cultural homogeneity, political issues, and historical processes," but it can "differ with regard to the degree or form of bilingualism" (Appel & Muysken, 2006, p. 2).

Genesee and Lindholm-Leary (2006, p. 2) maintained that "dual language programs in public schools were developed in both Canada and the United States (U.S.) during the 1960s, a period of considerable social change in North America, and indeed worldwide". Parallel to these two approaches, another novel approach, CLIL, has been gaining ground in many countries around the world and has influenced schools to make

shifts in their pedagogy. Marsh (2012, p. vi) has stated that CLIL is being applied "in Europe (Eurydice 2012), and increasingly in other continents such as Australia (Smala 2009; Tuner 2012), East Asia (Shigeru 2011) South East Asia (Yassin 2009); and South America (Banegas 2012) over the period 1994---2012".

In order to acquire a complete picture, this chapter will examine BE in Canada and USA in depth to provide an understanding about how it takes place and develops within the educational programs of the two countries. Particularly, it will illustrate the various features and types of these two models of BE, which are considered to be the precursors of CLIL.

2.1. Bilingual education in Canada and the United States

Out of the 1960s and early 1970s, a time of great political turmoil, social change and awareness, and growing global interaction among societies (not the least of which was the news media's ability to broadcast the devastation of the Vietnam War into living rooms around the world (Hallin, 1986)), bilingual education or bilingualism developed as a response, both in Canada and the USA, to a smaller, more "connected" world.

In Canada, bilingual education was usually known as "immersion programs," while in the USA, it was referred to as "dual language education". They differ only slightly from one context to another, depending on the historical, socio-political, and cultural issues of each country, because "the specific histories of each country clearly shaped the forms and goals of dual language education that grew out of these very

general concerns" (Genesee & Lindholm-Leary, 2006, p. 2). Likewise, Bialystok (2001) stated:

> There is an effort to use two languages for instruction and (theoretically) teach children competence in both languages. The examples are dual language schools (e.g., international schools, the United Nations School in New York City), Canadian immersion education, two-way bilingual education (which includes minority-language and English-speaking children), two-way bilingual immersion, maintenance bilingual education, transitional bilingual education, submersion with native language and ESL support, bilingual immersion education, and integrated bilingual education. (p. 236)

2.1.1. Immersion in Canada

Even though Canada is "a society deeply divided along ethnic, linguistic, or regional lines" (Cameron & Simeon, 2009, p. 5), in Quebec, French is the dominant language. Canadian immersion programs started in 1965 (Lambert & Tucker, 1972; as cited in Wesche, 2002). French is the official language of the province of Quebec and it is used in politics and other aspects of daily life. Canada was one of the first countries to implement immersion programs in their schools in the 1960s to allow students to be bilingual (Thomas, Collier, & Abbott, 1993, p. 170).

These programs were extensively investigated by Genesee. He has considered them "the most interesting and effective innovation in second language education during the last three decades" (Genesee, 1994, p. 1). Within the Canadian framework, immersion programs have made a significant contribution to language learning. They

have become available in all the Canadian provinces and native English speaking students are successful in learning French language and French (Canadian) culture.

2.1.1.1. Types of immersion programs

According to Brondum and Stenson (1998, p. 1), "Immersion education can take a number of forms". There are a wide variety of bilingual programs forms which depend on the use and ratio of the second language in the classroom scenario. All of the educational programs tend to incorporate the learning of new languages into the curriculum of the schools, permitting contextual learning and, thus, students' rapid progress in acquiring the target language with a high quality and quantity, which supports their knowledge of cultural awareness as well. Thus, generally speaking, all these forms of immersion education expose students to language learning; of course, each program's impact depends on the amount of time spent and the schools' curricular subjects taught in French.

A) *Total immersion*

De Mejía (2002, p. 29) pointed out that the first form of immersion is total immersion: "The original programmes were of the early total immersion type —that is to say, teaching was carried out exclusively in the second language from kindergarten up to Grade 2". It was first used in Canada, then in the United States, and it is called full or total immersion. This type of instruction puts emphasis on the importance of the second language used in the classroom and how it is introduced. According to Genesee

and Lindholm-Leary (2006, p. 7), "All instruction for one or more years is presented through the medium of the second language".

The curriculum mandates that the greater portion of the school day is spent learning through the second language (L2). In fact, students in total immersion are more skilled in receptive than productive skills, and they "achieve higher levels of proficiency in the L2 than those in partial immersion" (Cenoz, 2009, p. 86). Thus, they acquire the mandated language skills and they integrate their abilities in speaking, reading, writing, and listening to communicate easily using a second language.

B) Partial immersion

Partial immersion is another well-known model in the educational system of Quebec. This form of language education seeks to ensure that the students learn in both the native and the non-native languages, which means that teachers also need to provide instruction in both languages (L1 and L2). Lenker and Rhodes (2007, p. 1) explained that this partial immersion is a "program in which approximately 50% of instruction is provided in the target language". Although it may sound complex, and seemingly counterintuitive, to teach the same subject matter in two different languages, students perform well in the classroom with the partial immersion method. They benefit greatly from this type of immersion. Partial immersion students also learn to appreciate other cultures and ways of life, contextually, developing linguistic proficiency that is demanded by the outcomes-focused curriculum.

2.1.1.2. Some features of immersion education

Swain and Johnson (1997) have already identified the core features of immersion programs in Canada. According to these scholars, this program uses French as a medium of instruction. Swain and Lapkin (2000) have claimed that "immersion education" has been very important in developing the use of a second language as a medium of instruction. That is to say, a second language (French) is used in most subjects taught by immersion teachers and, as a consequence, teaching materials are also in the L2. Swain and Lapkin have both highlighted that "French immersion students made use of English, their L1, in completing a task where they were required to write a short story in French" (2000, p. 252).

2.1.1.3. Aims

French immersion spread across Canada through the media, and Canada's federal government became aware of the valuable role of the French language (Swain & Johnson, 1997). French immersion has played a major role in supporting the curriculum of many schools by focusing on the importance of this essential language in Canada. It has provided students with the ability not only to use French in the classroom, but also to use it at home and in the community on a regular basis (Mougeon & Beniak, 1991, as cited in Mougeon, Nadasdi, & Rehner, 2010, p. 70); this, then, has presented the students with more opportunities to interact and speak exclusively in French. Cummins (2009, p. 19) reported that "French language programs intended to help minority francophone students outside of Quebec maintain French".

These programs were also designed for native English speakers to become proficient in French and it was also encouraged by "some English-speaking parents who wanted their children to learn more French at school" (Cenoz, 2009, p. 58). As a result, the main aim of these programs was not simply to achieve a high level of bilingual education toward students' mastery of the L2; rather, the aim was, and continues to be, to support and expand students' understanding of cultural and bicultural knowledge, as a way to integrate the learners into a society which supports minority groups.

2.1.1.4. Effects

There are many important effects of immersion education. García (1991, p. 108) has focused on the effect immersion has on oral communication. She asserted that "Although the language is only taught for 125 hours of the whole school curriculum, it is nevertheless present, informally, in all levels of education and represents the vehicular language for oral communication for all social categories". De Courcy (2001) underscored that "Swain (1985), Krashen (1984) and Genesee (1987) report that immersion students do as well as or better than those educated only in English" (p. 9). They described significant differences between bilingual and monolingual children. Bilingual learners are more successful academically and in learning a second, or other, language; they are able to express their thinking and ideas in at least two languages. Carder (2007) declared other important advantages for bilingual students:

> When they have reached a high level of bilingualism and can be described as biliterate, they can access two literatures, they can see the culture of each language and enquire into its various facets, its ways of thinking, its ideas. (p. 13)

2.1.2. Bilingual education in the United States

At the beginning of 1970s, the USA began to be inundated with immigrants who had their own culture, their own ideology, and their own language. As Bhatia and Ritchie (2012, p. 708) stated, "Waves of displaced persons, refugees, and the survivors of persecution, ethnic cleansing and genocide headed for the Americas". As Lindholm-Leary (2001) purported, these waves of ethnic groups to the USA, comprised of a mixture of immigrants from Hispanic populations, Asian populations, and other minority groups, caused the rate of growth to vary "tremendously across the different ethnic/racial groups in the US" (p. 9).

This flow of recent immigrants changed the shape of the demography and the socio-political perspectives of the communities within the USA. While it enriched the country culturally and linguistically, it also created a political and sociological schism between these new groups and previous groups, because immigrants are likely to preserve their traditions and their languages when isolated within a new and different culture. Thus, they tend to keep their values and cultural traditions. These diversities have redrawn the linguistic landscape in the USA and have influenced legislators to make a significant shift in educational policy, reflecting the growing diversity of culture and language in which new generations are being raised. Han (2012) has stated that "the literature on education, child development, and immigrants presents a rich background on diversity, educational successes and challenges, school characteristics, and the critical importance of early childhood in establishing positive developmental trajectories" (p. 301).

Consequently, the USA has had to face increasing language diversities, to adjust to those diversities and changes, and to face the challenges that diversification has brought. "Since the mid-1980s, many US voters have reacted defensively against the racial, cultural, and language diversity brought by rising levels of immigration" (Crawford, 2000, p. 85). It has become essential to change and adapt to new strategies to unite people and to encourage mutual respect and understanding by designing "programs that sought to address the academic, linguistic, sociocultural, and emotional needs of students from culturally and linguistically diverse backgrounds" (Ovando, 2003, p. 8).

To that end, a bilingual education program becomes a fundamental objective in the USA's society to support unity between immigrants and current citizens. According to Naugle (2015):

> Bilingual education represents a means of ensuring that competent mastery of a target language is achieved, for the purpose of supporting the democratic process in civil rights. However [. . .], bilingual education can also represent a means of galvanizing cultural and linguistic boundaries. (p.16)

At the same time, the program advocates an additional language as a medium between students, since "a multilingual environment gives rise to linguistic diversity among the pupils in the different classrooms as well" (Lasagabaster & Huguet, 2007, p. 122).

As a result, immersion programs have been implemented throughout the USA to aid minority groups and immigrants' children in learning and speaking English. The National Research Council Staff (1992) asserted that "in contrast to the Canadian context, bilingual education in the United States exists primarily as a means to aid the transition of immigrant and linguistic minority children into English" (p. 2). Furthermore, this paper reported that "bilingual education has generated research under two distinct sociological conditions: one in which the students are native speakers of the predominant language of the society and the other in which they are immigrants or are members of minority-language groups" (p. 2). Therefore, English becomes the language in which both the immigrants and USA citizens who do not speak English are immersed.

2.1.2.1. Bilingual education goals

González (2008) explored the main aims of bilingual programs in the USA. He confirmed that "one of the goals of bilingual education in the United States is to support the learning of English by students who come from homes where other languages are spoken" (p. 1). Also, bilingual programs tend to teach English to students differently from one model to another with diverse goals. Although there are varying goals and their outcomes are different, the models can include, most importantly, societal goals (especially cultural goals), linguistic goals, and finally educational goals, such as educating the students in a language. Del Valle (2003, p. 219) acknowledged that "in the US, the goal, of course, is to teach language-minority children English. As with the

other areas of language rights, however, to truly understand bilingual education in the US, its political and social dimensions must be explored as well".

While other goals could be achieved automatically when students acquire their first and second languages, such as developing cognitive abilities, according to Han (2012) many authors analyzing bilingual education models "found that only those children who received strong, grade-level cognitive and academic support in both their first and second languages for many years were succeeding at the end of high school" (p. 301).

In addition to passive learning about cultural diversity when students learn in a non-native language, these types of programs aim to "extend the individual and group use of minority languages leading to cultural pluralism ... and to the social autonomy of an ethnic group" (Del Valle, 2003, p. 220). They have been held up as a solution to many of the issues in the USA's society. For instance, they can unify a multilingual society with numerous groups of minorities and immigrants by enabling them to communicate with other cultures and giving them equal opportunities and status in daily life (Del Valle, 2003).

Also, Cummins (2009) asserted that being bilingual is an opportunity for achieving academic success. He claimed that "It is frequently argued that linguistic minority students need to become fluent and literate in the majority or dominant language in order to succeed academically" (p. 20).

2.1.2.2. An overview of bilingual education models

Bilingual education models are formed to develop various types of programs that aid native and non-native speaking students to develop their additional language, and they use approaches that address culture, linguistics, and politics. As Naugle (2015) reported, "Bilingual education has many forms and can be implemented in many ways" (p. 20). They are different because each model holds its own philosophy and reflects its own educational goals. Field (2011, p. 35) has concluded that in the USA, the term bilingual can also refer to many things depending on the goal of L2 use and the desired outcome of this language. It can refer to an individual, to the community that uses two languages, or to some educational programs that adapt traditional materials to teach the L2.

2.1.2.3. Content Based Instruction (CBI)

As Kaufman and Crandall (2005) explained, "CBI has increasingly grounded language teaching in academic content across disciplines and has changed the focus from teaching language in isolation to its integration with disciplinary content in primary, secondary, and tertiary contexts in the United States and abroad" (p. 2). It is an approach that gives learners the opportunity to learn non-language subjects and the target language concomitantly. "The basic notion behind CBI is that language should be taught in conjunction with the teaching of academic subject matter" (Schleppegrell, Achugar, & Oteíza, 2004, p. 68).

Lyster (2007) also claimed that "Content-based instruction and its theoretical underpinnings are conveniently consistent with current educational thought that attributes considerable importance to language as a cognitive tool in all learning" (p.15). More precisely, according to Elaggoune (2015), "In a CBI course, students gain knowledge and understanding of the curricular subject while at the same time learn and use the target language" (p. 63). These are some of the important benefits of teaching through this type of program. It fosters language proficiency and improves the quality of content learning when the two aspects (language and subject content) are incorporated within the activities and curriculum of the class.

Additionally, the CBI method focuses more on content and subject knowledge than on language, so that the students can acquire language while learning content. Sarı, Alci, and Karataş (2015) stated that "in the content-based language teaching, the main focus of teaching is more on content topics than grammar rules, vocabulary teaching, or contextual situations" (p. 102). Therefore, CBI is a successful program that elicits many advantages to students and benefits to society, as well. "Students can successfully get both language and subject matter knowledge by obtaining content input through activities in the target language" (Elaggoune, 2015, p. 63).

2.1.2.3.1. English-Only Instruction

English is a "global language" that is used as a lingua franca throughout the world for the sake of international communication and scientific research (Crystal, 1997). Potowski and Rothman mentioned that "English is the only language of widely

accepted social prestige and official function in the United States" (2011, p. 3). Hoare (2011) has stated that in bilingual programs, or in other programs that teach English as the second language, "the use of English as the medium of instruction has been a major, if controversial, feature of these initiatives and further 'fine tuning' is now underway to increase access to English in schools for all students" (p. 212). Thus, English is introduced in schools because of its importance in international communication, the political world, social prestige, and the field of education.

A) Submersion

Field (2011) defined, "Submersion, a. k. a. 'sink or swim,' as a term applied to an approach characterized by placing children into a classroom with curriculum and instruction only in the culturally dominant language" (p. 206). It is obvious that a submersion classroom demands that students only use English. In this model, submersion was designed for English language learners to learn the content only in English. Kim, Hutchison, and Winsler (2015) have declared that "ELLs are not offered any special language services, and instruction is entirely in English" (p. 237). In this respect, English language learners (ELLs) have to learn the dominant language quickly (Kim et al., 2015).

The basic principle of the submersion model is that it does not support the first language of non-native speakers. Simply put, the focus is on the second language (English, in this case), and "the goals of this model are assimilationist; that is, the goal is to have the non-native speaker learn English and assimilate to North American

society," as argued in Roberts (1995, p. 372). Baker and Jones (1998) stated that the submersion model "represents the 'weakest' form of bilingual education. It targets children from language minority homes who are taught immediately through the majority language" (p. 476).

B) Structured English Immersion

Structured English Immersion (SEI) is a program that uses only English as the vehicle for instruction (Rennie, 1993). It focuses on helping students to become proficient in speaking English, using the latter as a means of instruction to teach the curriculum. Lillie et al. (2010) explained that "most of the instruction is in English and teachers use a curriculum designed for children learning English, with the goal of becoming proficient in the shortest amount of time" (p. 4).

According to Ramirez, Yuen, Ramey and Pasta (1991), this modality of teaching "is based on the results of Canadian French immersion programs for language-majority (i.e., English) speakers" (p. 8). For Tong, Lara-Alecio, Irby, Mathes, and Kwok (2008), "English is used for all subjects, with very few, if any, L1 clarifications" (p. 1018). However, SEI does not differ much from submersion. Both foster the high use of the L2 in class and all the subjects are taught in English.

C) Sheltered Instruction

Field (2011) defined, "Sheltered English to mean that children are protected in some way from the full force of submersion by the way the instructor constructs the

curriculum" (p. 207). From this definition, we understand that this model is different to some extent from the abovementioned program and from submersion. It tends to make the process of acquiring the L2 easier than any other model: "Vocabulary is basic, and the syntax is simple, with no long, complex sentences" (Field, 2011, p. 207).

The goal of the Sheltered English program is to foster academic achievement as well as linguistic development. It focuses on academic language using cooperative learning and authentic materials in order to make this kind of content accessible and to promote language proficiency.

2.1.2.3.2. *Models that offer instruction also in first languages*

According to Kim et al. (2015, p. 237), there are five bilingual education models that are used in the USA to educate and support immigrant children and minority groups of children learning in the L2: "(1) submersion; (2) English as second language (ESL) instruction; (3) early-exit or transitional bilingual education (TBE); (4) late-exit, developmental, or maintenance bilingual education; (5) TWI [Two Way Immersion, my own development of the acronym] (Baker, 2006)". The five models considered by Kim et al. (2015) will be explored in the following section, except (1), submersion, which has already been explained above.

A) *English as a Second Language (ESL)*

The program known "as ESL or English for Speakers of Other Languages (ESOL) instruction" (Kim et al., 2015, p. 238) is a program model that is designed, in

general, to allow non-native speaking students to learn English as an L2 in school and to become an English language learner (ELL). It is constructed so as to improve the students' skills and capabilities and to permit them to introduce skills from their mother tongue to assist them in acquiring the L2. As stated by Wynne and XAM (2010), "the educational background of the ELLs gives them the advantage of transferring their first language literacy skills to their second language and using their prior literacy knowledge to understand the new information" (p. 76).

However, this method stresses the importance of the students' mother tongue, while, as Feinberg (2002) stated, "In ESL classes, the English language is the object and the means of instruction" (p. 27). Students can articulate and understand content in the L2 (English) by relying on the linguistic and cultural knowledge of their first language. They are encouraged to apply prior knowledge to navigate learning effectively. Estes (2015) claimed that "according to linguists Ervin and Osgood, students who acquire their L2 so close to their L1 are more likely to be classified as Compound Learners. Thus, their L2, in this case English, would become part of their cultural knowledge" (p. 140).

Thus, the aim of the model is to lead students to L2 acquisition by taking cues from the L1, which means that they have a tool by which they can engage in effective learning with respect to both linguistic skills and academic performance.

B) Transitional Bilingual Education

The transitional bilingual program is the most common model in the USA. Freeman (2007) claimed that it supports students who are "'limited English proficient' (LEP) to transition to the all-English academic mainstream as quickly as possible" (as cited in García & Baker, p. 4). It was designed to support Hispanic students, as they comprise a significant minority population in the USA, especially in Texas and California. "A majority of the estimated 5.3 million LEP students within the United States are Hispanic" (Faltis, 2011, p. 81). Having less, or limited, English proficiency, students are encouraged to transform learning skills, acquired in their native language, to acquire the L2.

With respect to academic content, this program integrates English into 50% of the subjects taught. Students are obligated to learn other subjects through English: "Transitional bilingual programs are bilingual only at first, but the aim is clearly not bilingualism or biliteracy. The aim of a transitional bilingual program is eventual monolingual teaching and learning, usually in the dominant language" (Pacific Policy Research Center, 2010, p. 3).

C) Maintenance Bilingual Education

Maintenance bilingual education, or developmental bilingual education, is an approach which maintains the students' ability in the L1 language and culture. It is organized to achieve the following two goals: "The student's first language (L1) and, by extension their sense of culture and identity is affirmed by the program" (Pacific Policy

Research Center, 2010, p. 3). In this maintenance program, students become familiar with and appreciate other culture norms and values, maintain their native language and learn the second language. In that case, this model is different from the submersion model mentioned above, which only gives attention to the second language.

D) Two-Way (or Dual) Immersion (TWI)

Two-way immersion (TWI) is an educational approach that was "developed in both Canada and the United States (U.S.) during the 1960s", according to Genesee and Lindholm-Leary (2006, p. 2). Potowski (2007, p. 2) also affirmed that "in the late 1960s and early 1970s, United States educators began developing a program type called dual or two-way immersion". Its aims are to fulfill not only the proficiency of students in their first language, but also in their second language. It promotes the learning of English as a second language as a compulsory element of the bilingual program in which students can develop their levels of oral and writing skills and communication in both languages. For example, according to Shin (2004, p. 12), "The Korean American children of this study learn to speak Korean at home and are later exposed to English in school. English is, therefore, acquired as a second language during childhood while Korean is still developing". In the end, students have to learn and develop two languages simultaneously.

Potowski posited that the two-way or dual immersion classroom "contains a mixture of English-speaking and native-speaking children of the non-English language" (2007, p. 9). Even if this learning situation seems challenging for both teachers and

students, TWI programs allow for high proficiency levels in languages and classroom work. The teachers' work is to provide instruction in the two languages and to teach within cultural and socioeconomic contexts. Christian (1996b, pp. 67-68, as cited in Potowski, 2007) provided the following insight:

> The three goals for dual immersion students are as follows: (1) to develop high levels of proficiency in the L1 and in the L2; (2) to achieve academic performance at or above grade level; and (3) to demonstrate positive cross-cultural attitudes and behaviors and high levels of self-esteem. (p. 11)

As a result, "two-way immersion has enabled a greater degree of success for language minority students" (Pacific Policy Research Center, 2010, p. 6).

2.1.2.3.3. *Language-driven bilingual education*

Banegas (2012a) explained that language-driven bilingual education is comprised of adjunct courses and language for specific purposes. He clarified that "both courses share the same content base and the aim is to help learners at university level master academic content, materials, as well as language skills" (p. 119). The focus of this approach is to provide language support at the tertiary level of education.

A) Adjunct Courses

The adjunct course is a content-based model in which students learn and acquire L2 skills. Lancu (1993) described it this way: "In the adjunct ESL course, students develop their academic English skills using content from the regular course" (p. 21).

Thus, the instructor bases vocabulary and grammar acquisition around the content subjects for which the student is registered. The model enhances the linguistic level of ESL students.

Among other benefits of this model, students and faculty alike see growth because "the adjunct model has profoundly affected ELI curriculum by enhancing ESL faculty familiarity with how students in regular courses are expected to perform" (Lancu, 1993, p. 22).

B) Theme-Based models

Banegas (2012a) defined this model in the following way: "A theme-based course is structured around unrelated topics which provide the context for language instruction" (p. 118). That is to say, the instructor is tasked with bringing together seemingly disparate ideas or content and finding a thread of meaning on which that instructor can tie together idiomatic meaning, for instance. Davies (2003, p. 10) has indicated that one of the major characteristics of theme-based models is that "the teacher(s) can create a course of study designed to unlock and build on their own students' interests and the content can be chosen from an enormous number of diverse topics". In this teaching method, the teacher promotes varieties of materials in the classroom and authentic resources that can sustain the students' learning and comprehension, while also taking into consideration the interests of the students.

2.1.2.3.4. Recent Content-Based ESL models

A) Push-in

The push-in model is frequently used in the classroom to teach English as a second language (ESL). In this model, ESL teachers work with subject teachers cooperatively. They work to produce and design lessons that fit the students' learning. Vásquez, Hansen, and Smith (2013) have confirmed that "the most effective of these models occurs when the ESL teachers and the regular teacher co-teach work as professional colleagues in the education of all students, ELL and native speakers alike" (p. 27).

B) Pull-out

The pull-out model is another approach that relies heavily on the instructor to provide both content and language acquisition training for the student. With this model (Vásquez et al., 2013), "The classroom teacher takes full responsibility for ELLs' academic achievement, and ELLs remain with their English-proficient peers, providing them with important and authentic conversational partners" (p. 27). The goal of the pull-out model is to teach only in English and develop the skills necessary to learn that language.

In this approach, the "pull-out classes commonly occur during content instruction, resulting in ELS being taken away from critical subject matter instruction" (Zacarian & Haynes, 2012, p. 44). Zacarian and Haynes explained that the model works

with all students regardless of their level, their abilities in learning, or their language background.

2.1.2.4. Evolution of bilingual education in North America

Bilingual education in North America has a long history. It has been shaped by the large numbers of immigrants from around the world. As Ovando (2003) stated, "Long before European colonizers arrived on the North American continent with their own languages, cultures, myths, and ideologies, the land was a cornucopia of indigenous languages and cultures" (p. 1). Thus, with the onslaught of non-indigenous peoples beginning in the 15th and 16th centuries, they brought with them their ideas of more politics, education, and language. As each of the countries in North America developed differently into their respective modern nations, their perspectives on education and education policy developed as well. From these varying perspectives and policies developed models of teaching non-native English speakers with the goals of acculturation, language acquisition and assimilation, and academic support. Fishman (1976, as cited in Garcia, 1991, p. 111) supported this notion:

> Most bilingual education programs are designed to produce one of three outcomes: language maintenance (in the case of small and threatened languages), transition to a different language (in the case of temporary bilingual education until proficiency in the second language is considered adequate), or enrichment (when a second language is added in education but at no cost to development of the first language.

Thus, the evolution of bilingual education in North America, for better or worse, has had a long history. Establishing the infrastructural means to communicate through socio-political programs in the USA, Canada, and Mexico has led to many important practices and legislations that have come to define bilingual education. Bourgeois (2007) considered bilingual programs "as the best means to fuse the three essential elements of a successful sociolinguistic policy: language and culture, private and public, and individual and collective" (p. 28).

Learning English in the USA has become a fiercely contested issue at the local, state, and federal levels that has an underlying mandate, for some, of maintaining the unity and cultural identity of the nation. Baker (2011) contended that "The basis of United States nationalism also relates to recent support for the increased dominance of English over immigrant languages" (p. 81). Linguistic composition varies from one state to another, as a result of the diversity of immigrants and minorities that comprise the states' populations. Each state legislates and advocates for language policies (or, no language policy at all) that suit the demographic needs and the political climes of their constituencies. Recent research by Barrow and Markman-Pithers (2016) has clearly described the bilingual program in the USA from Preschool to Primary:

> Finally, state-funded preschool regulations vary from state to state: 14 of 41 states with state-funded preschool programs have no policies regulating services for English learners; 24 states permit programs to offer bilingual preschool classes; and 14 states permit monolingual, non- English preschool classes. As a result, we see a wide variety

of programs across the United States at both the preschool and primary grade levels. (p. 161)

2.2. CLIL characterization

With the previous framework of CLIL predecessors as a backdrop, it is time to give attention to the educational approach that is the major focus of this thesis. This section will cover in more detail what the existing literature has said about CLIL characterization. Specifically, it will widely report on the definition of this approach; the four basic components of CLIL; integrating language and content; CLIL classroom; CLIL rationale; CLIL aims; CLIL stakeholders and their roles; the role of language; ICT in CLIL; CLIL methodology; and CLIL quality.

2.2.1. Definition

Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) is "a dual-focused educational approach in which an additional language is used for the learning and teaching both content and language" (Coyle, Hood, & Marsh, 2010, p. 1). It has been introduced into the educational systems throughout the world, even if "the idea of teaching subject matters through more than one language is not new" (Lorenzo, Casal, & Moore, 2009, p. 418). It has developed into an innovative way for education to respond to the challenges of globalization and to society's demands for interculturality and intercommunication.

CLIL developed from immersion education in Canada and bilingual approaches and methodologies in the United States (cf. sections 2.1.1 and 2.1.2), and it is regarded as the European approach to bilingual education, being widespread throughout the continent. This claim is supported by Brevik and Moe (2012), who stated that "CLIL is the European counterpart of the Canadian immersion programs" (p. 215). Coyle (2012) defined CLIL as a methodology that "is a developing, flexible concept where content and foreign languages are integrated in some kind of mutually beneficial way to ensure that there are 'value added' experiences to educational outcomes for a wide range of students" (p. 28).

2.2.2. The four basic components: '4Cs'

The notion of four basic components in CLIL (communication, content, cognition, and culture —the 4Cs) was presented by Coyle et al. (2010). They claimed that these component parts are core to being able to properly structure CLIL within the classroom. Coyle (1999, 2006), and Marsh and Wolff (2007) have gone on to conclude that these four elements are also the basic framework of a successful CLIL lesson, insofar as they are used as the tools to support teaching and learning in another language. Marsh and Wolff (2007) advanced this concept of the 4Cs: "The framework proposes that practitioners might explore further the interrelationship between content (subject matter), communication (language), cognition (thinking and learning) and culture (awareness of self and 'otherness')" (p. 51).

Furthermore, the three most prominent bilingual programs (the Canadian immersion program, the USA's bilingual education program, and the European CLIL

model) seek to create a solid relationship with the 4Cs principles in using the target language for teaching and learning academic curriculum and second or a foreign language. These principles will be discussed in greater depth in the next sections. How and why teachers must take them into consideration when they teach content through the non-mother language will be explored. The following section also highlights some of the more specific characterizations of the 4Cs within CLIL, such as their uses in the process of lesson planning and praxis within this methodology.

2.2.2.1. Content (Subject matter)

Content, or the acquisition of knowledge, is always the central focus in the process of teaching and learning in the classroom. The goal for the student is to internalize information, to scaffold knowledge, and to develop a meaningful understanding of a content area (such as Math, Social Studies, Science, Art, or Music, among others) in an additional language, thereby integrating specific combinations of school subject content and language instruction. As Altieri (2011) asserted, "Students are expected to apply their knowledge of reading, mathematics, and science to issues that might actually be encountered in real life" (p. 9).

According to Zwiers (2014), CLIL is "one way to foster students' abilities to get academic things done with language [. . .], think of language as an evolving set of tools and skills used to construct and communicate ideas" (p. 24). In other words, students are compelled to use the L2 as a medium of instruction and, at the same time, to acquire a knowledge base in the subjects studied. They need to understand the lessons and the

activities. A theme-related subject is presented and clarified in the L2 (or in English) as a challenging approach to teach the language needed and the curricular topics assigned.

Students benefit immensely from this component of using language and content concomitantly: "from the perspective of second language learners whose developing interlanguage system engages a range of comprehension and production mechanisms to process language through content" (Lyster, 2007, p. 59). On the one hand, emphasis on comprehension is crucial in order to ensure that the quality of knowledge and input is not compromised due to gaps in communication. On the other hand, learning through the language engages the students in active output and positive production, providing rich contexts and a motivated environment in the CLIL classroom where students can improve their performance in a given subject curriculum.

Students should receive subject information that scaffolds their knowledge base and they should develop their communication skills in the L2 such that their learning and understanding are enhanced, and each is complemented by the other. The L2 at this stage is only used as a tool to acquire new learning input.

2.2.2.2. Communication (Language)

In CLIL language learning, one of its prime objectives is to empower students to be able to communicate in the classroom. It is the principal instrument used not only to develop different ways of thinking and gaining in-depth knowledge, but also to communicate and acquire oral production skills (Coyle et al., 2010). As Marsh and Wolff (2007) stated, "In CLIL, learners need language to assist their thinking and they

need to develop higher order thinking skills to assist their learning (including language learning)" (p. 53).

Furthermore, according to Coyle et al. (2010), "Language is our greatest learning tool" (p. 51). It enables the students to express spontaneously what they are taught, in order to create an active and motivating atmosphere in which to discuss their ideas and their thoughts with their classmates. Zwiers (2014) supported this claim and ventured on to say that CLIL language acquisition aims to introduce learners to new concepts and to use the L2 for a wide variety of objectives, insofar as "the language is used to describe abstract concepts, complex ideas, and critical thinking" (p. ix).

Bhatia and Ritchie (2012, p. 19) broaden this idea to declare that language "is the vehicle of tradition and culture". It is more than just a tool for interaction and learning, whether in the classroom or in the community. The European Commission (1995) has provided the following perspective on language and its place within society:

> Languages are also the key to knowing other people. Proficiency in languages helps to build up the feeling of being European with all its cultural wealth and diversity and of understanding between the citizens of Europe. Multilingualism is part and parcel of both European identity/citizenship and the learning society. (p. 47)

In fact, people need this key to communicate successfully, to develop communicative abilities and skills, to advocate proficiency in using languages, and to convey meaning and understanding effectively and efficiently.

2.2.2.3. Cognition (Thinking and learning)

Unquestionably, interaction will take place when students articulate their thoughts. It is also without question that they use their minds to ponder, reflect, postulate, and form their thoughts. The manner in which a student's thoughts are delivered and how those articulated thoughts will be perceived is also important to language acquisition. Students must construct a linguistic structure through which they are able to express their intentions, their ideas, and their cognitive abilities. Breidbach and Viebrock (2013) pointed out that:

> Learning under the CLIL approach is a cognitively enriched experience which has the potential to sustain thinking of a higher order and boost metacognitive awareness (Jäppinen 2005, Stohler 2006, Zydatiß 2007, Vollmer 2008, Lorenzo et al. 2009, Coyle et al. 2010, Ting 2011). (p. 160)

Therefore, bilingual programs develop cognitive functioning and improve learners' mental processes, self-awareness, self-actualization, and complex cogitation.

In this regard and with respect to CLIL, the process of learning and the activities in which students engage improve cognitive aims and outcomes that support the use of this methodology. Students become motivated to create, analyze, and apply their knowledge in useful ways; and they are profoundly influenced in how they adapt to learning and construct their thought processes.

2.2.2.4. Culture (Intercultural understanding)

On the cultural front, the term CLIL supports the practice of introducing some cultural aspects related to the L2 when teachers introduce new content in the classroom. Byram and Grundy (2003) pointed out that "'culture' in language teaching and learning is usually defined pragmatically as a/the culture associated with a language being learnt" (p. 1). Cultural awareness, therefore, is necessary within CLIL, since learners learn through another language that portrays at least one aspect of that culture.

In fact, CLIL programming supports efforts to become not only bilingual, but to become bicultural as well, since language and culture are inextricably combined and interrelated. Risager (2006, p. 4) underscored this notion: "Human culture always includes language, and human language cannot be conceived without culture". By way of example, English, as a global language, has carried with it the various cultures associated with the countries that use this language as a native tongue. Examples of cultural aspects conveyed by English phrases include *shoot out*, from American Westerns, *fish and chips*, from British cuisine, and *g'day mate*, from Australian colloquial greetings.

Emphasizing the need for the inclusion of *culture* as a component of language acquisition, *Consejería de Educación, Juventud y Deporte* (2011) pointed out that "English is increasingly put to real use for culture (with a small c), or daily culture, even if its use as instrumental to Culture, or learned culture, still has a critical role to play" (p. 55). Wei (2011) has eloquently expressed this concept from a psychosocial perspective:

"We owe to the sociolinguistic enterprise the realization that bilingualism is not only an individual or even a social class phenomenon, but that it may very well be the sociocultural norm" (p. 16).

It is important to mention that culture, as a social phenomenon, allows individuals to understand international contexts and to interact socially not only in their own community, but also outside their community. Gaining cultural competence permits individuals to share and affirm their identity and ethnicity.

In summary, within the context of CLIL methodology, there are clear benefits that have been garnered from the identification and structuring of the 4Cs components (content, communication, cognition, and culture). As such, CLIL has been able to incorporate these components to support students in achieving linguistic and cultural goals and outcomes that directly relate to their academic progress.

First, it has improved competence in both receptive and productive skills, which means that students have had to be competitive in reading, writing, speaking, and listening, attesting to their high linguistic proficiency. Second, students are able to achieve accelerated academic progress in non-language subject matter. Third, they acquire the improved cognitive skills in creativity, analysis, application, and recall. Finally, students gain a greater appreciation for intercultural understanding and global citizenship, attributes that influence their potential for success not only in their social lives, but also in their perception of the world.

2.2.3. Integrating language and content

In terms of language and content, CLIL is a relatively new process that combines these two areas in learning for the purpose of applying linguistic matters for the sake of obtaining knowledge. According to Roo (2014, p. 102), "CLIL opens up possibilities for meaningful language use and communicative interaction in situations where the focus is on meaning and content". It presents the opportunity to combine content with language in learning to build background information and to support prior knowledge of both language and content.

Since CLIL's inception, its first concern has been to put an emphasis on the simultaneous acquisition of more than one language and subject matter. As Bruton (2013, p. 589) claimed, "It supposes that the content subjects become the object of 'real communication'". Wolff (2011, p. 74) remarked that "research in CLIL has shown quite clearly that subject content is more motivating for the students than the content usually dealt with in the language classroom". This connection can be relevant for better understanding and acquisition of linguistic and non-linguistic knowledge. Students can make academic progress and become particularly competent in other languages, because they are engaged with language through content.

This is the reality behind CLIL: it maps a productive pedagogical methodology that is not restricted to language or to content, but to both simultaneously. Another goal of learning through this method is to develop student creativity and skills. Scott and

Beadle (2014) said CLIL "is about the learners creating their own knowledge and understanding and developing skills (personalised learning)" (p. 4).

There is a plethora of reasons that prove to be essential factors for integrating content and language in the areas of teaching and learning. In view of linguistic and sociolinguistic contexts, the integration of other languages can serve the students' competencies in cross-cultural skills, the ability to communicate fluidly and successfully, and awareness of one's self and surroundings. As Llinares, Morton, and Whittaker (2012) pointed out, "One of the benefits of CLIL is said to be the fact that it provides a more authentic context for language learning and, as a consequence, more opportunities for developing communicative competence in the target language" (p. 221).

Regarding cultural outcomes, CLIL helps students become familiar with other cultures and societies that differ from their own community and society, because CLIL "serves as an umbrella term embracing all scenarios and whatever combination of regional, heritage, minority, immigrant and/or foreign languages they involve" (Lorenzo, Casal, & Moore, 2009, p. 419).

Finally, with respect to cognition, the integration of an additional language makes learners more active and proactive in their thinking. Hamers and Blanc posited that "Bilinguality is considered as a relevant factor for the development of cognitive processes" (2000, p. 83). It is an important means by which to shape cognitive processes and the level of deep reflection. In a similar vein, Cenoz and Genesee (1998, p. 24) have

stated that "numerous studies have reported that bilingualism can have positive effects on cognitive development" when students are able to think of what to say, how, and when.

The main point, and what is most interesting, is that the CLIL approach resonates with good methodology. Therefore, if an educational system focuses on linguistics, communication, cultural awareness, and excellent subject content, it will see great success in educating its learners in both language and content.

2.2.3.1. CLIL classroom and planning lessons

For CLIL, the optimal place of engagement for students is within an interactive classroom. They must be engaged in activities that connect content and language. Wolff (2011, p. 76) defined "classroom interaction in bilingual education as the link between language and content". It provides the possibility for an excellent environment for both teaching and learning and, within the parameters of the school curriculum, teachers are compelled to ponder deeply about various content areas when they plan lessons incorporating the L2. Whereas most CLIL lessons are delivered in English, it is imperative for instructors to be cognizant of the inherent pitfalls of an L2: "English contains many idioms and figurative expressions that may be overwhelming to ELLs. Furthermore, the cultural background depicted in the text may be unfamiliar to ELLs" (Haynes & Zacarian, 2010, p. 26). Since each content area has its own special glossary of associated vocabulary with which, in most cases, students are not familiar, the burden

of conveying content through the L2 lies with the teacher's ability to overcome this gap in communication.

Consequently, this stage of CLIL pedagogy requires concerted effort, in order to be successful, including reflective and critical thinking, identifying, decision-making, planning, and designing and building lessons in a modernized classroom. Therefore, since teachers need to facilitate classroom learning, they should actively seek to simplify the difficulties and challenges facing students in acquiring new concepts by incorporating modern technologies, such as the Internet, social media, and computer-based instruction. Emphasizing the authenticity of the teachers' input, as well as the quality of student output, is paramount, then, in accomplishing successful lesson planning.

2.2.3.2. The role of language

It is difficult to ignore the important role of language in CLIL; in fact, it is the central focus of this approach. It is considered to be "both tool and target" (Llinares, 2011, p. 103); that is to say, it should be well organized in classroom lessons and in selecting learning strategies in order to make the language work as a tool and be a target in itself.

On the one hand, Francis (2012) acknowledged language is related to many other critical factors that might shape both linguistic and literacy outcomes. He said that "studies of language policy and planning normally focus on community, regional, and

nationwide issues; sociolinguistic concepts are naturally at the center of discussion" (p. 27).

Even though there are different theories about the nature and acquisition of language, language has two roles: communication and learning. Liddicoat and Scarino (2013) stated that "in communication and in learning, language is integrated with action in order to achieve local aims" (p. 48). Zwiers (2014, p. 22) also contended that "academic language is this: the set of words, grammar, and discourse strategies used to describe complex ideas, higher-order thinking processes, and abstract concepts".

On the other hand, with respect to language acquisition, CLIL develops a context for second language learning (SLL), or second language acquisition (SLA) for teaching and learning. This might seem to be a complicated target for stakeholders, and particularly teachers. Llinares et al. (2012) suggested that teachers should embrace language as a tool to teach the L2 and to manage other issues, such as social relationships, in the classroom. However, this linguistic counterpoint raises questions in the assessment of CLIL itself.

In order to capitalize adequately on the use of language within any educational system, we have to understand language concepts. If we know the function of language is as either a tool or a target in and of itself, then, what are the types of usage applied for that language? There are two important usages that either teachers or students can access for learning or teaching the language to meet educational needs: code switching (CS) and code mixing (CM). Lyon (1996, p. 6) demonstrated clearly that "concepts such

as language switching, language mixing, word borrowing, and language awareness have all been involved in explanations of the process of bilingual language acquisition".

From a linguistic point of view, code switching and code mixing are two linguistic phenomena in bilingualism, or multilingualism, which refer to utterance. For Appel and Muysken (2006, p. 117): "Switching is not an isolated phenomenon, but a central part of bilingual discourse". It is a "directive function" which means that the hearer is involved directly (Appel & Muysken, 2006, p. 119). Also, as pointed out by Döpke (2001), "Recognition that language mixing is a common feature in conversations among bilinguals has been slow to develop within the linguistic community" (p. 13).

Viewed through a linguistic lens, code switching involves linguistic, sociolinguistic, and psycholinguistic factors. In many cases, however, teachers or students use words, phrases or clauses from the language; this linguistic use can be influenced by the afore-mentioned factors. When switching or changing from one language to another, we have to pay attention to the idiomatic predilections of each of the languages. As Cenoz and Genesee (2001) pointed out, "Switching between the languages is also guided by pragmatic and sociolinguistic factors, and sentence-internal switches are further constrained by grammatical ones" (p. 14).

Thus, we need to internalize all of these factors in order to switch effortlessly between two, or more, languages in order to make our communication fluid and to engage in a clear, comprehensible dialogue in each, and between each, of the languages, such as the nature of code switching. As Aronin and Singleton (2012) stated:

The vast majority of human beings master language to a sufficiently high level to interact within personal and social relationships, to express and comprehend emotions and thoughts, to communicate and absorb detailed information, to share complex ideas, to tell and understand jokes, to drop and pick up on hints, etc. (p. 11)

Consequently, code switching and code mixing are two linguistic and sociolinguistic features that have influenced the process of language acquisition by fabricating a grammatical and syntactical framework on which interlanguage can occur and lead to full fluidity and fluency in a language. This, of course, allows for the development of human knowledge and interaction. The strength of these features is that they allow the bilingual learner to communicate when they are blocked in continuing to speak in one of the languages; they are, however, able to sustain development in both linguistic competence and communication.

2.2.4. CLIL rationale

Generally, CLIL is a modern approach to support students in language acquisition; it reacts against the older, traditional methodologies of language teaching. This innovation has broad support as a structure that serves the perceived need of learning another global language, and it does so through the vehicle of academic disciplines, such as Biology or Social Science, and by integrating languages or an "additional language" (Coyle et al., 2010, p. 1). This structure includes new technologies, new methodologies, and, in general, new teaching environments.

Navés (2009), reporting on earlier research, suggested:

That a second language is most successfully acquired when the conditions are similar to those present in first-language acquisition: that is, when the focus of instruction is on meaning rather than on form, when the language input is at or just above the proficiency of the learner and when there is sufficient opportunity to engage in meaningful use of that language in a relatively anxiety-free environment. (p. 25)

From this quote, we can understand that there are many reasons to rationalize the integration of CLIL as a new program for developing pedagogy, broadly, and language acquisition, specifically. The focus on meaning makes learning easier than focusing on form (i.e., syntax, grammar, or rote memorization), which better supports the students' access to comprehension and linguistic knowledge. In addition, according to Coyle, Holmes, and King (2009), learners learn naturally through the CLIL lesson planning framework and task building (scaffolding). They explain the progress that students make in gaining and developing skills in the following way:

As CLIL learners progress, they will increasingly be required to apply and develop skills across a range of subjects. The approach supports young people to become independent in their learning. They will be expected to investigate issues, research information and analyse what they hear and read. They will be encouraged to question and put forward original ideas. They will be given opportunities to make presentations and justify opinions, using language to clarify their points of view, to persuade and make a case or to express disagreement through well informed and reasoned discussion. They will work independently and in pairs and groups, learning to collaborate with others and listen and respond to views, which may challenge their own. (p. 11)

Moreover, Wolff (2011, p. 75) stated that "The student is involved in the content and this is the reason why he/she also learns the language". Education policies can benefit from this approach to providing language skills, cognitive abilities, proficiency, and fluency in languages, as well as providing exposure to languages as a conduit for learning about cultures. These are all essential for successful CLIL programming and therein lies the underlying rationale for CLIL implementation.

2.2.5. Aims of CLIL

CLIL is not comprised simply of one single underlying goal. Rather, as mentioned above when quoting Coyle et al. (2009), it seems clear that there are multiple objectives sought by the implementation of CLIL. Eurydice (2006) has reported that:

> Content and language integrated learning (CLIL) is inspired by a twofold objective. It is meant to ensure first that pupils acquire knowledge of curricular subject matter and secondly develop their competence in a language other than the normal language of instruction. (p. 22)

Although there are other goals, CLIL tries not only to fulfill the linguistic, social, and cultural needs, but also to assure students' comprehension. Kupetz and Kupetz (2014, p. 47) asserted that "the main goal is to intertwine language and content teaching and learning". There exists an extensive number of goals and objectives, such as the communicative and social purposes of CLIL, and increasing metalinguistic and metacognition awareness and motivation.

2.2.5.1. Communicative and social purposes of CLIL

Bruton (2013, p. 588) claimed that "what makes CLIL so attractive in current L2 pedagogy is that the content is expected to give the use of the foreign language (FL) a communicative purpose". This communicative purpose helps learners to interface successfully in schools and in a global society. Learning a language, as well as learning in that language, is undeniably beneficial to enriching the quality of communicative skills, personal qualities, and interests. CLIL also permits an opportunity to convey information not only from the local and national perspectives, but also from an international context. According to Clyne (2003, p. 48), the "combinations of the languages have particular social and communicative meaning".

2.2.5.2. Metalinguistic and metacognitive awareness

Metalinguistic and metacognitive awareness is inspired by learning, thinking, and speaking in two, or more, languages. These are two attributes that enable a bilingual or multilingual mind to comprehend overarching cognitive themes through linguistic acumen. According to Cenoz and Jessner (2009, p. 127), "Metalinguistic and metacognitive awareness play an important role in the development of language learning strategies". In addition, Nagy and Anderson (1995) have described that metalinguistic awareness as "the ability to reflect on and manipulate the structural features of language" (p. 2).

Metacognitive awareness involves a mental process that "can be defined simply as thinking about thinking" (Anderson, 2002, p. 2). Logically speaking, the cognitive

processes of students have to be well-monitored by teachers, with an eye toward critical analysis, to ensure an adequate grasp of student progress, especially in the context of explaining content and sociocultural perspectives. This strategy shapes both the input and output of knowledge; thus, learners are compelled to reflect on what they have learned. As Geladari and Mastrothanasis (2014, p. 98) stated, "The mental processes of writing encompass a series of stages (basically pre-writing, writing, reviewing, and rewriting) involving multiple drafts". This process helps the learner not only to write, but also to speak in order to be able to articulate and persuade readers and listeners. This develops the self-reflection and content-reflection that are needed to develop both metalinguistic and metacognitive awareness.

2.2.5.3. Motivation

When we speak of motivation as a human characteristic, or as a psychological feature, we understand that motivation deals with our needs, motives, and dispositions toward what we want and what we require. Furthermore, motivation can be influenced by our identity, ethnic, and cultural background.

As for CLIL, however, motivation is really a different thing; it can motivate students' willingness and interest to learn languages. Fernández Fontecha (2014, p. 24) has mentioned that "motivation towards language learning is the desire to achieve a language by means of effort, want or desire, and also affect or attitude". In other words, as Fernández Nogueira (2012) claimed, it "is the effort and energy exerted so as to achieve a goal" (p. 127). Pavón Vázquez and Ellison (2013) have asserted that CLIL has

been seen as a way for "renewing interest and motivation" (p. 68). It is the key element that is associated with language achievement. For example, Fernández Fontecha (2014) also emphasized the "connection between motivational factors and lexical performance" (p. 25).

Motivation can greatly enhance students' desire and their autonomy in learning an L2, and it is the key for obtaining input and producing output. It is a way of empowering English language learners. Lasagabaster (2011, p. 3) maintains that "motivation is a direct determinant of L2 achievement and is in fact one of the individual variables to which more attention has been paid in second language acquisition literature". Motivation is a prime consideration in CLIL, as a way to create a foundation on which to build knowledge.

Motivation is also a beacon which can guide and direct students when acquiring the more obscure vagaries of content knowledge and language. Finally, Fernández Nogueira (2012) claimed that "motivation is also affected by the learning style or styles of a student" (p.127). Hence, teachers should pay attention to students' individual scaffolding in order to build and plan lessons and design a curriculum that takes into consideration students' multiple intelligences and their external factors, such as their culture, home, and society.

These main CLIL objectives (communicative and social purposes, metalinguistic and metacognitive awareness, and motivation) can pave the way toward greater learning proficiency, learner autonomy, clear understanding, and logical analysis. Furthermore,

together, they can be a determining factor in the effectiveness of language acquisition, and they can advance understanding in fields such as linguistics and sociolinguistics. These objectives can also determine the role of stakeholders toward CLIL.

2.2.6. CLIL stakeholders

Breidbach and Viebrock (2013, p. 16) mentioned "Mehisto's view that stakeholders exert a decisive influence on the implementation of any educational innovation, thus also the development of large-scale CLIL programmes". Stakeholders have important roles to play and build interesting and active relationships between themselves and, among others, teachers, students, and parents, because "it is the teacher, together with the school administration, and perhaps pupils and parents, who make the decision to apply CLIL in one or more subjects" (Brevik & Moe, 2012, p. 215). Banegas (2012b) supported this notion: "What is important in implementing CLIL as an innovation is that it should be part of a negotiated enterprise amongst administrators, curriculum planners, and teachers —and it is this last group that will be responsible for the success of CLIL implementation" (p. 53).

The stakeholders must have a clear definition of CLIL, its aims and benefits, curricular models, approaches for content selection, relation to linguistics and sociocultural factors, and the function and uses of language in CLIL. Therefore, teachers, students or learners, and parental involvement go hand-in-hand in achieving advancements in pedagogy. They have to juggle a multitude of variables in order to make teaching and learning through CLIL fruitful. Together, they can build meaningful

communication that helps to increase the quality of education in their community and influence the progress of academic achievement.

2.2.6.1. The role of teachers

Teachers in CLIL are the first important stakeholders. They are in charge of teaching students content and linguistic knowledge during the learning process. Pavón Vázquez and Ellison (2013, p. 67) pointed out that "CLIL requires teachers who possess appropriate levels of linguistic competence in the foreign language and knowledge of the subject specialism". They are the first to lead students to effective learning. Milla and Mayo (2014) have explained that the role of teacher pedagogy "in the FSL [Foreign Second Language, my own development of the acronym] classroom followed mainly a communicative focus in their lessons and offered implicit types of correction, especially recasts" (p. 3).

For the success of the mainstream classroom, "teachers as technicians are viewed as the source of 'knowledge' and their communication is expected to dominate proceedings", according to Creese (2005, p. 48). However, they may be confronted with great diversity in the class or, for example, they may be "faced with a dilemma as acting as a mathematics teacher," as Chamot and Chan (2012, p. 242) commented. They have to maintain an "active role in giving commands and monitoring actions" as well (Fernández Nogueira, 2012, p. 131).

Barbero (2007) has reported that "the competence of CLIL teachers reflects their ability to create and organize learning contexts where the use of language and

cognitive demand are well integrated" (p. 291). Teachers have to carefully select and choose particular kinds of activities and interactive tasks to accomplish CLIL purposes in the classroom. Tasks, exercises, activities, and asking questions might accomplish these purposes, even though difficult. As Carder (2007) mentioned, "The task is not easy although there is much enthusiasm for multicultural awareness, intercultural conferences and having a true understanding of the many facets of international education" (p. 68). For that reason, "CLIL teachers need language competence and an understanding of 'language learning'" (Scott & Beadle, 2014, p. 11).

With respect to CLIL activities, teachers should include and adapt a variety of activities that support student success in the four framework components of CLIL (4Cs −cf. section 2.2.2) and the actual functioning of CLIL. First, CLIL teachers should be able to do a "backward design" (Haynes & Zacarian, 2010, p. 163). They have to teach an additional language by exploring CLIL ideas in which linguistic, communication competence, cognition, and cultural aspects have to be taught in the class. For instance, Sercu (2005, p. 21) has explained that "teachers relate the idea of culture teaching and learning primarily to the teaching of civilisation, that is, to increasing learners' knowledge of the facts and events of the target culture".

In summary, the role of teachers is to facilitate effective classroom learning when they teach through CLIL. They should promote student learning with activities, consider their input and output of content and language, and focus on language objectives as the first and last goal in the class.

2.2.6.2. The role of learners (Learner autonomy)

CLIL is conducive to the development of learner autonomy. It attempts to make learners the protagonists in learning strategy and encourages them to do things by themselves, which leads them to less dependence on the teacher. Lennon (2012) associated learner autonomy with cognition and motivation: "Learner autonomy is also related to cognitively-based theories of motivation, self-motivation and self-regulation, and this aspect is also given some attention" (p. 19).

Learners should be at a level where they can make decisions and evaluate their work. They must take responsibility for their learning at the practical level. Learners' personalities in the class should be characterized by self-direction, self-monitoring, self-evaluation, self-motivation. These characteristics make learners "active participants" (Coyle et al., 2010, p. 5). They are fundamental characteristics for learners; as Lennon (2012) has demonstrated, a learner should be "owner of his own learning" (p. 19).

2.2.6.3. The role of parents

Families and parents' involvement in the educational policy either at school or at home play a crucial role in shaping academic performance and impacting the educational process and success. Tabatadze (2015) affirmed that "the parent involved in designing and implementation of bilingual educational program can be the most effective mechanism for quality assurance in such programs" (p. 96). Furthermore, parents are the source of the first background knowledge or prior knowledge which a student receives. On the one hand, according to McNeal (2014, p. 564), "Parent

involvement is any action taken by a parent that can theoretically be expected to improve student performance or behavior". They are the source of value system orientation, sociocultural principles, and economic aspects that impact their children's lives and behavior.

On the other hand, "parent involvement also includes parental visits to the school to advocate for children, to learn about children's educational experiences, as well as to share their culture and expertise" (Hindin, 2010, p. 75). When parents are aware of the educational situation of their children and control their academic progress in school, it could be a great support for establishing an ideal interaction between students and teachers and for attaining good results.

The parents' participation can impact students' motivation toward learning. This participation is an effective strategy to open doors for communication and find the correct way to allow the parents to have an active role of collaboration in the educational system. Parents should maintain effective feedback with their children and teachers. Interaction, communication, and cooperative relationships between parents and students, and between parents and teachers are needed to sustain and develop children's education.

Keeping in touch especially with teachers during the academic year can expand the teachers' ideas and help understand students' desires and learning needs. They can also help them to design more effective activities and exercises in the classroom to motivate the students.

2.2.7. Information and communication technologies in CLIL

Nowadays, there is no doubt that new technologies lead the way in gathering information, communication, and maybe even learning. Particularly within pedagogy, it is imperative that new technologies are embraced by the field of education. "Our society has become a knowledge society, where information globally networked and more freely accessible than ever before needs to be processed and transformed into knowledge by those working within a technology-enriched environment" (Chan, Chin, Nagami, & Suthiwan, 2011, p. 120). Information and communication technologies (ICT) can be a powerful motivator for teachers and students alike.

Introducing ICT to CLIL students in teaching languages at educational institutions and schools makes the process of teaching and learning, in some ways, easier than before, insofar as technology presents a self-paced environment. Together, ICT and CLIL have the potential to motivate students. They can contribute to and facilitate the process of learning, for both teachers and learners, permitting them to develop their skills and knowledge to new and effective ways. The goal, here, is to contribute to the development of the highest quality of language teaching; "however, when it comes to the quality of ICT in schools, the results show that there is ample space for improvement" (Cachia, Ferrari, Ala-Mutka, & Punie, 2010, p. 37).

These new technologies currently manifest themselves in the form of digital equipment or "digital literacy" (Marenzi, 2014), such as PC's, laptops, whiteboards, and Internet connections, that can support the delivery and comprehension of content.

Reinforcement and repetition, which are key to language and content acquisition, have proven to be exceptionally susceptible to the benefits of technological innovation in education. Computing and smart devices, as well as the Internet, have made great strides in aiding educators to reinforce and enhance students' access to knowledge and to facilitate methodology delivery.

Fernández Fontecha (2012, p. 320) stated that "CLIL materials design could well benefit from the combination of ICT and CLIL". ICT and CLIL are indeed new ways to present and advance linguistic skills, to lead to creative learning, and to innovate in teaching in both content and language. They offer accelerated access to acquire interesting and useful information. Additionally, interactive opportunities have been created, as asserted by Marenzi (2014): "Online communication and other forms of transnational media such as transnational broadcasting, digital TV platforms and channels, are providing non-native speakers of English with greater communicative opportunities" (p. 76).

2.2.8. CLIL methodology

According to Alonso, Grisaleña, and Campo, "the CLIL methodology focuses on learning that requires an acquisition of concepts, skills and attitudes" (2008, p. 36). In CLIL, methodology can be looked at as a thoughtful style of teaching that should take into consideration practices, processes, and achievements. Coyle et al. (2009, p. 11) have stated that "effective CLIL methodology cannot only extend the role of language

(including first and subsequent languages) across the curriculum but also can improve teacher and learner motivation and raise the quality of teaching and learning".

Teachers should follow a clear and well-thought-out methodology containing techniques and strategies that succeed in creating a positive environment conducive to teaching and learning. The methodology has to lead to language teaching and subject teaching, with the appropriate characteristics of CLIL. As Sasajima (2013) has stated, "CLIL methodology can take account of diverse learning contexts where subject content and language learning are integrated" (p. 56).

The CLIL classroom focuses strongly on reading and writing, as two important activities within its methodology (Wolff, 2005, p. 16). This is supported by Papaja (2014): "Reading and writing are regarded as very important in the CLIL classroom" (p. 51). Teachers foster the concomitant learning of content and language, so as to gain a variety of benefits. "Tasks are carried out in a second language and they are designed to close the existing gap between the classroom and the real world" (Roldán Tapia, 2012, p. 74).

It is worth noting that, generally, students are highly motivated within CLIL methodology and, therefore, they willingly and actively interact and participate in topics and tasks. Some teachers focus on reading as a source of linguistic variation and as a means to render input comprehensible and rich. They have to provide just a brief explanation in order to set the tenor for intercommunication and to promote active acquisition and interactive learning.

Regarding the benefits for academic subjects, the integration of reading and writing tasks and exercises are graded or scaled to increase the student's comprehension level. Reading and writing are integral to the student's academic progress, permitting the student to not only exercise abilities in content acquisition and knowledge, but also in expressing thoughts and ideas about that content in another language. These two English skills (reading and writing) favor students' creativity and thinking style, by offering them learning opportunities to enhance their skills and competencies in a total immersion setting. Insofar as scaffolding is viewed as gradual academic progress based on prior knowledge, then, it could be considered one of the central characteristics of CLIL methodology.

Scaffolding is a methodological technique that a teacher can use to assist learner comprehension. As Hammond and Gibbons (2001) have explained, "scaffolding refers to support that is designed to provide the assistance necessary to enable learners to accomplish tasks and develop understandings that they would not quite be able to manage on their own" (p. 3). Marsh and Wolff (2007) went on to say that "although content and language learning are parallel processes in a CLIL classroom, the content of the content subject can serve as a kind of scaffold for the language learning process" (p. 21). Furthermore, Devos (2012) has stated that:

> The term scaffolding, coined by Wood, Bruner and Ross (1976), was defined as mechanism adults used in interactions with children whereby adults systematically controlled certain elements of a task to provide suitable supports so that a child could later complete the task on its own. (p. 365)

To put it simply, scaffolding, as a teaching strategy, serves many students' needs and learning purposes. It expands student understanding, develops their linguistic production, and expands their cognitive thinking. According to Meyer (2010), "Scaffolding done right will boost students' cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP)" (p. 15).

2.2.9. CLIL quality

It is remarkable that CLIL is an educational approach that helps students to acquire knowledge and communicative skills simultaneously. Its success depends on the level of L2 linguistic comprehension of students and the use of that non-native language in the classroom. Zwiers (2014) has explained the concept in the following manner: "one way to foster students' abilities to get academic things done with language is to think of language as an evolving set of tools and skills used to construct and communicate ideas" (p. 24).

Ruiz de Zarobe (2013) also conceded that "curricular organisation, the selection of subjects, the methodology and materials, the evaluation procedures, etc., are factors that will determine the success and the quality of CLIL" (as cited in Pavón Vázquez, 2014, p. 116). To this regard, learners can attain a level of high-quality education in their L2.

2.2.9.1. CLIL assessment

Over a period of time, and as a result of many analyses by researchers, it has been proven that CLIL has far-reaching benefits and it "has been embraced as a possible lever for change and success" (Pérez Cañado, 2011, p. 390). It is used as a way of gauging the process of teaching and learning. For example, Bruton (2011a, p. 529), after comparing non-CLIL groups with CLIL groups, demonstrated that the latter show a high level of proficiency and that students were more motivated to learn content, to the extent that "the CLIL groups attract the more proficient/motivated". He explained that CLIL is "more meaningful, authentic and relevant than 'traditional EFL' instruction" (Bruton, 2011a, p. 528). Furthermore, Roa, Madrid, and Sanz (2011) stated that:

> For Cummins (1999), bilingual programmes in most countries have been successful and the students involved have had no problems in developing their academic skills. Furthermore, there is a positive relationship between the first and second languages which are studied, which enables certain levels of transfer to take place between them, including the teaching of academic and conceptual aspects. (p. 365)

Assessment in CLIL may seem complicated when one considers that there are two fundamental issues in CLIL: language and content knowledge. For Kiely (2009) the reason behind this complexity is that the "key issues here are the extent to which language and subject assessment are integrated, that is, they are assessed at the same time and through the same tasks and activities" (p. 1). Nevertheless, this combination can and should happen, as can be inferred from Marsh, Mehisto, Wolff, and Frigols

Martín's words (2012): "a wide range of knowledge and skills relating to methodology and assessment are integrated in order to create meaningful and supportive learning experiences for students" (p. 20).

2.2.9.2. CLIL merits

With respect to the theoretical paradigm discussed above concerning CLIL, it is an approach that offers the most important aspects, best merits, and advantages of language acquisition and subject matter learning. It is not only a powerful opportunity to learn content and language, but it also sustains education consolidation and shapes students' learning responsibility. Etus (2013) summarized these merits, with CLIL at the core of ideas which qualify the individual's progress:

> CLIL is not just centred on the relation between language and content but makes cross reference to certain key notions such as 'learner autonomy', 'technology use', 'academic language development', 'intercultural understanding', 'learning to learn', 'meaningful interaction', all addressing to the need for the reconceptualization of language education which qualifies individuals to possess communication skills as well as content knowledge to become active agents of the knowledge societies. (p. 89)

All these "notions" (learner autonomy, technology use, academic language development, intercultural understanding, learning to learn, and ultimately meaningful interaction), cited by Etus, clearly outline the merits of CLIL and implicate students as involved learners.

What is more, the merits of CLIL are myriad, as per the findings and claims of numerous researchers in the field. For example, Martín de Lama (2015) pointed out that CLIL helps students "strengthen their understanding and learning motivation" (p. 30). Marsh's (2002) comprehensive research lays out how CLIL can increase students' motivation in classroom learning through CLIL-structured activities. For Adrián and Mangado (2015), "CLIL instruction clearly benefits learners in general competence, as measured via the four skills: listening, reading, writing, and speaking" (p. 53). Furthermore, Breidbach and Viebrock (2013) considered CLIL as having "the potential for foreign language acquisition, mental flexibility and higher order thinking skills, learner autonomy, reflective competences" (p. 20).

However, CLIL quality depends on creating a successful learning environment where all of its objectives are taken into consideration. The focus on learning processes, cooperative learning, outcomes and context, subjects and language teaching make the bilingual program and mainstreaming more successful. They improve the quality and the benefits of learning through CLIL. As Genesee (2004) stated:

> Research in diverse settings has consistently shown that students in bilingual programs who speak a dominant societal language acquire significantly more advanced levels of functional proficiency in the L2 than students who receive conventional L2 instruction – that is, instruction that focuses primarily on language learning and is restricted to separate, limited periods of time. (p. 6)

Finally, the specialized literature reveals that CLIL can be an effective program for learning not only other languages (e.g. L2 or L3), but also academic subjects, when implementing its various components: motivation, proficiency, individual life experience, attitudes and anxiety towards a language, and culture. It is important to take these components into account to provide high quality education for all students, including the achievement of high competences in languages.

2.2.9.3. CLIL pitfalls

In contrast to CLIL merits and benefits that encourage its use as an innovative approach to achieve linguistic and content knowledge goals, some investigators have reflected on the challenges of combining content and language in an integrated way. For instance, Pérez Cañado (2016a) suggested that the use of CLIL entails an increased workload for instructors and "it requires a great deal of initiative and effort on their part, as well as learning to collaborate and liaise with other content and/or language colleagues in order to guarantee integration" (p. 2). Within a CLIL scenario, many studies expose that teaching content areas through another language is not an easy task, especially when teachers are faced with assessment. Ravelo (2014) noted that "This question of assessment is posed as another problematic aspect of CLIL, though it seems less like a problem if teachers understand what should be evaluated and what the evaluation process should be like" (p. 78). Teachers can face the dilemma of what, when, and how they assess and evaluate the learning of their students. They have to focus on either the content or on the language. Certain authors claim uncertainties with respect to the quality of content, as well as the languages (L1 and L2) learned within the

classroom. Swain (1990, p. 34, as cited in Muñoz, 2007) also asserted that there are "some general weaknesses of immersion including no focus on form, functionally constrained, selective listening as a result of a focus only on meaning and dearth production skills of the learner". (p. 22)

Another pitfall of CLIL is related to teacher training. Poor training can threaten the technical aspects of the methodology that are meant to ensure attainment of its objectives. Banegas (2012b) claimed that "teachers sometimes do not know what it is expected from them, especially when CLIL means putting content and foreign language teachers working together" (p. 47).

Furthermore, non-linguistic subject teachers find it difficult to teach through English or the L2. Some teachers may have a low of level of English proficiency, which can limit student comprehension and impede production. As a result of their lack of proficiency in the language of instruction, they are, in turn, handicapped in their ability to convey content. On the other hand, Paran (2013) is critical with respect to the characterization of CLIL, saying that it "is afflicted with a high lack of terminological clarity" (p. 319).

CHAPTER 3

CLIL IN EUROPE, SPAIN AND MADRID

This section will deal with the status of CLIL within some European countries and how it has been gradually introduced as a potential pedagogical approach. First, it will review research about CLIL in the European contexts and some European policies towards teaching languages. Second, it will make reference to CLIL across Spain and, particularly, its implementation in both bilingual and monolingual settings. Third, it will focus on bilingual projects in Madrid, explaining in some detail their organization, objectives, and methodology. Finally, some empirical research that has already been conducted on CLIL will be mentioned.

3.1. Content and Language Integrated Learning across Europe

As was mentioned in the previous chapter, North American immersion and bilingual programs have paved the way for another approach towards learning content and language at the same time. They can be considered the precursors to European CLIL and the inspiration for a new model of enhanced language education. Although immersion programs in Canada and bilingual programs in the United States are two labels that set the tone for learning additional languages in the mainstream, the appearance of CLIL in Europe is becoming one of the most dominant approaches "since the early 1990s" (Llinares and Whittaker, 2010, p. ix).

Darn (2006) has described CLIL historically as "having originally been defined in 1994 and launched by UNICOM [Universal Communications] in 1996, emerging as the most promising and beneficial approach" (p. 1). Later, Madrid Fernández and Pérez Cañado (2012) argued that "CLIL has been coined, launched, and applied in the European context" (p. 184). Recent research found that "There has been a CLIL

explosion across Europe in many schools where the school curriculum is being organized so that parts of the school day can operate using another language, usually English" (Coyle, 2012, p. 27).

Within the European context, CLIL has been extraordinarily successful in becoming the leading pedagogical approach, replacing other older, more traditional approaches. Pérez Cañado (2013) stated that "numerous authors testify to this rapid and widespread adoption of CLIL in the European arena (Marsh, 2002; Coonan, 2005; Dalton-Puffer & Nikula, 2006; Lorenzo et al., 2007; Smit, 2007; Coyle et al., 2010)" (p. 15).

Therefore, CLIL has gradually become an innovative approach in European educational systems. As Ruiz de Zarobe et al. (2010) claimed, "several European projects have recommended the implementation of reforms to develop learners' communication skills in several languages and to encourage innovations in language teaching and teacher training" (p. 11).

The European continent is well known for its diversity, both of language and culture. Multilingual and multicultural policies have existed for centuries, if not millennia, in Europe. Although the political situation has become more complex across the continent, with respect to the diversity of ethnicity and the languages of nations and minorities, the political policies being implemented recognize the importance of unifying these diversities. Dalton-Puffer, Nikula, and Smit (2010, p. 4) have explained it as follows:

A political union of some 490 million citizens, organized into 27 nation states, featuring 23 official languages (plus numerous regional and minority languages) has no choice but to be multilingual and language policy has a crucial role in implementing the EU's 'unity in diversity principle'.

However, regardless of the various diversities of ethnicity and language in Europe, it is imperative that there be a single, unifying language, aside from one's mother tongue, in order that the people of all the European nations may be mutually intelligible, so as to carry out governing, business, and day-to-day interaction across the continent's many borders.

Changing education policies has been seen as an excellent way to serve the purpose of unity. Thus, the continent began to implement CLIL. It is currently one of the most popular approaches to language teaching on the European continent. According to Ament and Pérez Vidal (2015), "CLIL is defined and discussed as a European approach to multilingual education that has been in use at primary and secondary levels for some time now" (p. 49) to respond to the demands of European societies.

In education policy, bilingualism and multilingualism within the European Union and individual nations, especially over the last 20 years have become a widespread focus. As Dalton-Puffer (2007) documented, "During the last fifteen years or so, it has become increasingly commonplace for mainstream schools in many European countries to use English as a medium of instruction in some or all non-language subjects" (p. 57).

CLIL has been adopted as a "European solution to a European need" (Marsh, 2002, p. 11). Navés (2009) stated that "in Europe and Asia, most of the programmes are designed to improve the learning of foreign languages" (p. 22). Thus, the methodology intended for the implementation of these programs is a match for the demand for learning languages, as well as achieving academic objectives.

In 1995, the European Commission's *White Paper Teaching and Learning*: *Towards the Learning Society* emphasized the idea of leaning academic disciplines through a foreign language. It launched the push for European citizens to master three European languages and, as a byproduct of this push, it spurred research into the effects of CLIL on foreign language and mother tongue competence.

Authors such as Coyle (2007), Marsh (2002), and Pérez-Vidal (2009) also stressed the value of learning other languages. Ruiz de Zarobe and Lasagabaster (2010) reported that "in fact one of the main recommendations of the European Commission is the need for European citizens to communicate in at least two other languages of the European Union ('Mother tongue plus two foreign languages' objective)" (p. 12).

In this regard, many European countries and societies adapt their educational systems to ensure that students achieve a high level of communication in other languages and learn about other cultures. They seek to be at the forefront of innovative and active change, which they perceive demands an additional world language. Therefore, "the CLIL approach 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, p. 15).

In Finland, Marsh has been the foremost expert in this field and has advocated for the establishment of a network across Europe at all the educational levels. Fortanet Gómez and Ruiz Garrido (2009) argued the need for Marsh's expertise for the creation of a CLIL Consortium, as well as developing materials and organizing conferences. However, other authors (De Graaff, Koopman, & Westhoff, 2007) focus on the most important questions recurrent in CLIL debates such as its effects on L1 and L2 development subject learning, and effective CLIL teaching performance. They have reported significant indicators for CLIL classes and pedagogy, concerning teaching foreign language (FL) competence.

Italy has also deployed the CLIL label to innovate in the school system. First, CLIL was implemented in 1990 in international or European schools. Later, with the Reform Law, and thanks to the project National Digital School Plan (NDSP), the educational system fostered the link between CLIL and new technologies in all Italian schools. The Erasmus Plus program was also a golden opportunity for both bilingual teachers and students to develop language skills and the ability to integrate students into the world of professional oportunities (Cinganotto, 2016, pp. 382-384). Although CLIL challenges teachers and students, the Ministry of Education in Italy is working to sustain the development of this approach by providing teachers with new courses and programs, and students with exchange programs to assure their progress and their integration.

3.1.1. European policies towards teaching languages

Many, if not all European countries, adapt CLIL for different academic subjects, hoping "to guarantee social cohesion and integration among its members" (Gallardo del

Puerto, Gómez Lacabex, & García Lecumberri, 2009, p. 63). European policies are enacted for learning other languages and preserving cultural diversities through the ebb of political and social issues and the flow of immigration. For Kaplan and Baldauf (2005), "the development of the EU holds great promise for more effective recognition of multilingualism and multiculturalism and for the development of more effective remedies in first and second language education and literacy" (p. 10).

In the same vein, Eurydice (2008) reported that "In almost 20 countries and essentially at secondary level, the central (or top-level) education authorities require schools to include at least one foreign language among their core curriculum options" (p. 31). Moreover, the *Consejería de Educación, Juventud y Deporte* (2011) confirmed that "the whole of Europe today aims at introducing the teaching of foreign languages" (p. 50). The need of another language has become vital in Europe. Citizens are socialized into acquiring languages to foster easy communication within their society and with other societies. The attractive thing about European language policies is that Europe has an eye toward the future that has one global language, which is, more often than not, English. English has a privileged position in Europe, as a tool for international communication. Smit (2007) asserted that "there are a growing number of post-secondary English-medium programs in mainland Europe" (p. 227). Many European countries are extending the exposure time of students learning English with the objective of creating a workforce which can communicate within a global economy.

3.1.2. European schools

Another setting that clearly advocates the demand for learning a global language is that of European schools. Over the last few decades in Europe, according to Vez (2009), European Schools (ES) have been seen as models for developing languages and bilingual/multilingual education. In other words, ES have been considered as a way to achieve advanced linguistic levels and tangible academic goals. Their function and outcomes are well known across Europe. Remarking on the latter, Hufeisen (2007) affirmed that:

> In many of today's societies we must acknowledge that, besides the official or unofficial fact of bi- and multilingualism, there are a growing number of individuals who speak not only the language of wider communication but also one or more heritage or migrant languages. (p. 117)

Those individuals shape society through their linguistic differences and similarities.

Europe is a continent rich in diversity and cultural heritage, where a multitude of languages is spoken by both majority and minority groups. Therefore, it makes sense that ES policies have given rise to a number of language outcomes, including new models for teaching global languages which "serve the needs of students from diverse backgrounds" (Mehisto, 2013, p. 28).

3.2. CLIL in Spain

We have already painted a portrait of CLIL in the European context. We now narrow the focus on the history of bilingual projects in Spain. CLIL has some unique characteristics within the Spanish context. Llinares (2011) remarked that "the CLIL scenario in Spain is very varied" (p. 102) because there are several environments where Spain has adopted a second, or even a third language, to recalibrate educational policy and reach out, in some greater extent, to a bilingual or a multilingual community and to bridge the gap of learning languages.

The introduction of the term CLIL in Spain began when "in 1996 the Ministry of Education and Science and the British Council signed an agreement to introduce an integrated curriculum in Spanish state schools" (Dobson, Pérez Murillo, & Johnstone 2010, p. 5). Bruton (2011b) also acknowledged that Spanish society had started to change linguistically and "a number of autonomous administrations have adopted CLIL initiatives" (p. 236).

The implementation of CLIL normalizes the idea of acquiring and communicating in a global language. Such policies support preparing students for internationalization and workforce mobility, through multilingual language competence. Students now communicate in two languages (e.g. Andalusia and Madrid) or three languages (e.g. the Basque Country and Galicia), and benefit from related academic growth such as gains in cognitive abilities, increased communication competency, and appreciation of cultural diversities.

In brief, the introduction of CLIL, either in a bilingual or multilingual environment, gave rise to more educational policies and methodological strategies that increased "the time devoted to language alongside improving the quality of teaching practice" (Ruiz Gómez, 2015, p. 14). Increased attention to learning language provided greater exposure for students to acquire a second or a foreign language and practice the target language, resulting in an increase of academic achievement at all levels.

3.2.1. Why follow CLIL in Spain

Spain, due to its geographical location in the midst of contemporary global geopolitical and socioeconomic changes, has proactively looked at new strategies for teaching languages in order to support its students and citizens in becoming bilingual, or even multilingual. Therefore, bilingual programs have reflected the national value placed on language acquisition for the purpose of improved global communication globally within a diverse society. Martínez Adrián (2011) has claimed that "in the Spanish context, we have a great diversity in the implementation of CLIL programmes, but even so, all of them share the aim of achieving communicative competence in second and foreign languages across the curriculum" (p. 99).

Although some communities in the Iberian Peninsula have enjoyed being bilingual or multilingual over the years, the new bilingual programs have been seen as an innovative and "effective way to provide students with linguistic skills in an additional language (mainly English) that are absolutely essential in today´s job market" (Pavón Vázquez & Gaustad, 2013, p. 84). The development of a program such as CLIL

has been needed since there are many ways learners and communities have benefitted, more than they would have with older programs.

Among other reasons for implementing bilingual programs in Spain, learning another language (mainly English) can help students to increase their linguistic competences, offering opportunities for both communication and mobility, and for success in multilingual and multicultural societies. The newer bilingual programs also allow students to overcome communication barriers by learning about language and culture, both globally and, very often in the Iberian Peninsula, locally.

Additionally, CLIL provides students with a new educational system that promotes working collaboratively and thinking critically, engagement with interactive technology, including online resources and information and communication technologies (ICT). Furthermore, CLIL promotes integration, encouraging student mobility through international exchange programs (international and domestic) in order to develop communicative and cultural competences.

3.2.2. The linguistic landscape of Spain

During the most recent decades of Spanish history, "Spain is a mixture of heterogeneous language situations that lead to different ways of understanding and managing L2 education" (Fernández Fontecha, 2009, p. 4). The most important language has been Spanish (Castilian). Most areas of Spain speak Spanish as the main language of daily communication. For example, in Andalusia, Castilla La Mancha, Castilla y León, and Madrid, only Spanish is spoken. In Catalonia, the Basque Country,

or Galicia, there are two co-official languages, one of which is Spanish, along with the regional language. Catalan is spoken in Catalonia and Euskera in the Basque Country. Lasagabaster and Huguet (2007) have pointed out that "in Spain 40% of the population live in bilingual areas, as Galician is spoken in Galicia, Catalan in Catalonia, the Valencian Community and the Balearic Islands, and Basque in the Basque Autonomous Community and Navarre" (p. 2).

It is worth noting that Spain faces two separate challenges related to language policy and language learning. Some regions have two official languages, and English is taught as a third language, such as "Galician (Gallego), Catalán, the language of Barcelona and some nearby regions (e.g., Majorca and Valencia), and Basque (a linguistic isolate, apparently unrelated to any other European language)" (Field, 2011, p. 2). Those regions reap the benefits of having a language policy that incorporates their bilingual programs with two co-official languages. This bilingualism is advantageous for the success of CLIL; as Ruiz de Zarobe and Lasagabaster (2010) have acknowledged, "in bilingual communities CLIL has evolved as the best approach to incorporate foreign languages in a system where already two languages need to be accommodated in the curriculum" (p. x).

Conversely, other communities are monolingual, such as Andalusia, Extremadura, and Madrid. They have only one language: Spanish. Today, however the Spanish Ministry of Education has encouraged all monolingual communities to integrate a foreign language into their educational institutions. According to Lorenzo, Casal Madinabeitia, De Alba Quiñones, and Moore (2007), "the Plan de Fomento del

Plurilinguismo in Andalusia and the Bilingual network in the Comunidad de Madrid encompass meaningful instances of the emergence of foreign languages as vehicles of instruction in state education" (p. 12).

The demand for bilingualism and trilingualism throughout the Spanish educational system has become strong and the diversity of linguistic variation has become increasingly broader. Durán-Martínez and Beltrán-Llavador (2016) acknowledged that "after the British Council/MEC agreement, most autonomous communities in Spain started to regulate bilingual education, spreading the model throughout the country" (p. 80). Immersion programs and, in particular, CLIL have become the most popular language acquisition programs within the educational system. In a very short time, the English language has taken on an important role as a language of instruction in bilingual schools and universities in Spain.

As Coyle (2010) documented, "Spain is rapidly becoming one of the European leaders in CLIL practice and research" (p. viii). It is vital to recognize the growth of using English as an additional language in every region of Spain, the increase of bilingual schools in both monolingual and bilingual regions, and the gradually increasing enrollment of students into those schools. Pérez Cañado (2011) has underscored this notion by indicating that this new lingua franca has taken center stage,

> In both bilingual communities where English is a third language taught through CLIL (The Basque Country, Catalonia, Valencia, the Balearic Islands, Galicia) and in monolingual communities conspicuous for their lack of tradition in foreign language teaching (e.g. Extremadura, Castilla-La Mancha, or Andalusia). (p. 392)

Consequently, Spain has been challenged with adopting a new approach to learning language (English), not only as a policy change in monolingual or bilingual regions, but also as a way to enhance education and advance the welfare of it citizens. It is apparent that "mastering English, no doubt, has innumerable advantages to students, educators, civil servants, and professionals worldwide, irrespective of ethnic background or nationality" (Obiakor, Bakken, & Rotatori, 2010, p. 59).

In present-day Spain, Fernández Fontecha (2009) stated that "mirroring the European language policy, Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) or bilingual education is nowadays receiving increasing attention in Spanish education" (p. 3). Today's educational environment in Spain is characterized by an increased use of the L2 (English) to teach the curricula. For example, in mainstream classrooms there are a large number of students interested in learning English as a way to achieve success and acquire economic prosperity. This increased use of the L2 (English) results from the need to communicate in another language, as mandated by the Spanish government, and also from the recognition that communicating in English is a means to economic independence.

Learning English has become an important goal used to achieve many learning objectives. For instance, the government has worked hard to create a policy that revamps teaching and learning methodology by introducing an additional language. Therefore, it is evident that both bilingual and monolingual autonomous communities in the country have been adopting English in their respective educational systems. Teachers are compelled to create an effective learning environment with greater

86

exposure to English in which the learners must perform in that language (English), whether it is their L2 or L3.

3.2.2.1. CLIL in bilingual areas

3.2.2.1.1. The Basque autonomous community

Cenoz (2009) has indicated that the Basque Country is recognized for its three-language model, which emphasizes the existence of multilingualism in this society. There is no doubt about the existence of bilingual and multilingual education in the Basque country. Apart from Spanish and Basque, English has been introduced as a foreign language (EFL), making the Basque autonomous community a multilingual society.

The existence of Basque as a native language, Spanish as an L2, and English as an L3 makes clear the significance of languages in this region and how they shape the linguistic landscape of the area. Lasagabaster and Sierra (2009) pointed out that "the widespread social interest in FLs is rather recent in Spain, in general, and in the Basque Country, in particular" (p. 7). Students are educated primarily in Basque and Spanish. Later, they are required to study English and Spanish, while having to maintain their native Basque language (the minority language). According to Garcia Gurrutxaga, del Nozal, Villa, and Aliaga, (2010) "the Basque Autonomous Community (here-after BAC), is a bilingual community (Basque-Spanish) where the first foreign language (English in most cases) is the third language of instruction in schools" (p. 271).

This language diversity and educational construct within the Basque community, a multilingual community, necessitates students to function in three languages. They are pushed to be bilingual by mastering Spanish and Euskera, the official languages of the Basque community, and further pushed to be multilingual by adding a third language. The third language, English, has been cultivated in that community's educational system to be a new vehicle of communication. De Houwer and Wilton (2011) stated that "English is becoming increasingly important for Basque citizens as a tool for communication both in Europe and in other parts of the world. In the Basque Autonomous Community (BAC) in Spain, English is considered a third language" (p. 16). The English language, therefore, is the key used by students to access many educational benefits which will likely translate into social and economic benefits for them as adult citizens. The increasing role of English in Basque education permits students to obtain significant results and they are "doing better" (Cenoz, 2009), and "secondary schools in the Basque country have implemented CLIL in order to promote bilingual education, a content-driven approach, par excellence" (Banegas, 2012a, p. 119).

3.2.3.1.2. Catalonia

With respect to Catalonia, Huguet (2007) has declared that "nowadays most of the educational system in Catalonia is bilingual" (p. 19). It is an educational system that is well-known for its linguistic diversity, because of the two active languages in use in that region: Catalan and Spanish. At the present time, "the Statute of Autonomy of

Catalonia establishes that the official languages in Catalonia are Catalan, Castilian and Occitan" (Arzoz, 2012, p. 169).

On the one hand, the history of teaching in Catalan has been related to the political situation in Spain. Therefore, delivering instruction in Catalan did not start until two years after permission was granted through a change to the Spanish Constitution that introduced indigenous languages (and dialects) into the schools. According to Muñoz (2000), educational immersion in Catalan began when

> The Spanish democratic constitution of 1978 permitted the introduction of Catalan in schools, and this began just two years later: first as a language subject for three hours a week, then for four hours, and soon as the language of instruction for a number of other subjects. (p. 157)

On the other hand, Castilian has played an important role in Catalonia. As a result of the flow of Castilian-speaking people settling in the region of Catalonia, the Spanish language was also being integrated into the region. It has become a dominant language at home and in schools. Muñoz (2000) has also mentioned that "the very strong social presence of Castilian guaranteed a very high command of Spanish" (p. 158).

Later, the region introduced English into its educational system, as one of the main goals of the new educational policies in the community. Muñoz (2007) reported that "English language instruction in Catalan (and Spanish in general) state schools now begins at age 8 in the third grade" (p. 161). Currently, English is being taught in addition

to Spanish and Catalan, while most of the schools are exploring ways to allow learners to come into greater contact with the target language(s).

3.2.3.1.3. Valencia

Valencia is another autonomous region of Spain which has two official languages. Apart from Spanish, there exists another language that has "spread mainly by means of education, at schools, and also by its use in the administrative and economic activity of that territory" (Jordà, 2005, p. 87): Valencian, a language similar to (and some would contend a dialect of) Catalan which is used throughout administrative, political, and social areas of life.

Therefore, since there are two languages already in place, that community is a bilingual society. However, the situation in Valencia is still more complex, for the community is, in fact trilingual. Current changes to the region's language policy have paved the way for a third language (English language) to be used within the educational system. According to Frigols Martín (2008), Valencia started to implement a new bilingual program called 'Bilingual Teaching Enriched Programme' (PEBE). It began "in Primary education in 1998; since then two hundred and ninety more schools have joined" (Frigols Martín, 2008, p. 228).

The third language, in this case, is English. It is presented as another medium of instruction to enable the students to become trilingual easily. The purpose of this program is to expand the linguistic repertoire of students, with the expectation that being trilingual will help them to integrate into other areas in Spain and globally.

Frigols Martín (2008) asserted that the Bilingual Teaching Enriched Program (PEBE) "will aim at getting pupils to acquire competence in communication in Spanish, Valencian, and in a foreign language" (p. 227). The PEBE program strives to educate students about their own ethnic, linguistic, and cultural identity and to maintain and enrich their knowledge about that identity, as crucial to permitting students to integrate successfully into society locally and in the world.

3.2.3.1.4. Galicia and the Balearic Islands

Galicia and Balearic Islands are two bilingual communities where two languages coexist in daily life. In Galicia, the Galician language is spoken especially in the rural milieu, while Spanish is the language of the citizens in the city (Paulston, 1988, p. 470). In the Balearic Islands, Catalan and Spanish are spoken. Moreover, these two autonomous communities turn attention to integrating a third language as a language of instruction to learn and teach the content subjects. There has been an increased interest in using English language in the curriculum to develop multilingual and multicultural policies and to make changes in the school system.

On the one hand, Galicia is considered by San Isidro (2010, p. 56) as "one of the regions fostering minority language learning, with an evidenced experience in immersion bilingual programmes involving its regional language". Thus, the educational authorities place emphasis on introducing CLIL into schools. On the other hand, in the Balearic Islands, "The first experiences with CLIL in the Balearic Islands took place in 1996" (Bros Pérez, 2015, p. 56). For example, the CLIL program was

implemented at the university level "through an initiative called 'Study in English at the UIB'" (Pérez-Vidal & Juan-Garau, 2010, p. 126).

3.2.2.2. CLIL in monolingual areas

3.2.2.2.1. *Andalusia*

Marsh (2012) stressed that "Andalusia has historically been a monolingual Spanish-speaking region" (p. 435). This means that the only language that Andalusian citizens speak is Spanish. According to Lorenzo (2010), the Andalusians are "characterised by a monoglot mentality. Spanish has traditionally been the first and often sole language for virtually all the autochthonous population" (p. 3). However, subsequently, in 1998, Andalusia began to give great attention to bilingualism. Casal and Moore (2009) have claimed that "the implantation of bilingual sections in Andalusia began in 1998 with the setting up of 18 French and eight German bilingual schools" (p. 37).

In parallel, Pérez Cañado (2011) also affirmed that "Andalusia is a clear instance of a monolingual community striving to jump on the bilingual bandwagon, particularly over the course of the past five years" (p. 392). In this respect, Andalusia has started to implement and design new policies in education and linguistics proceeding from the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (Ramos Ordoñez and Pavón Vázquez, 2015). In 2005, the Andalusian community launched the Plan to Promote Plurilingualism in Andalusia (*Consejería de Educación de la Junta de Andalucía*, 2005). According to Llinares (2011),

The Plurilingualism Promotion Plan in Andalucía was launched in 2005 and is being implemented in about 4,000 schools. Its ultimate aim is to produce a shift from social monolingualism to multilingualism through education. The aim of the programme is to incorporate one, or even two, foreign languages as the medium of instruction. (p. 103)

Therefore, Andalusia's objectives have been clearly established in that region. A re-visioning of this initial program with the more current Andalusian linguistic scenario has been provided by the more recent *Plan Estratégico de Desarrollo de las Lenguas en Andalucía* (PEDLA) (*Consejería de Educación de la Junta de Andalucía*, 2017). This strategic plan has been launched in February 2017 with four overarching goals: to improve Andalusian students' communicative competence in all languages (mother tongue and foreign languages), to increase the students' level according to the CEFRL in at least one foreign language, to upgrade language teaching methodologies, and to augment the amount of stakeholders with a C1 level (Pérez Cañado, 2018a). Pavón Vázquez and Rubio (2010) highlighted the main goals behind changes in the educational system in Andalusia. They have explained how education in that context fosters the use of the foreign language when we transfer knowledge as a way to acquire that language (p. 46).

With respect to academic achievement, the level of comprehension, and communicative abilities, bilingual students, generally, demonstrate high achievement and linguistic production performance. Numerous studies have been conducted to investigate the development and improvement of bilingual learners in Andalusia. Most of the time, there have been favorable results. According to Pérez Cañado (2011), CLIL

in Andalucía has been successful and "the results are exclusively positive. In terms of linguistic outcomes and competence levels, the Primary and Secondary students outperform their mainstream peers at statistically significant levels" (p. 394).

3.2.2.2.2. Castilla y León

Castilla y León is one of the Spanish autonomous communities that has also introduced a bilingual program in its community. It is situated in the north-western part of Spain. Castilian is the only official language that is spoken in this Community.

In 2006, Castilla y León implemented bilingual programs in many schools throughout its educational system. Bilingual education was initiated by, and has been regulated by, the Order EDU/6/2006 (Durán-Martínez & Beltrán-Llavador, 2013, p. 314). The region began a new phase of language learning that was distinct from the previous ones. It was implemented gradually to permit students to have ample time to adapt to learning a second language and becoming bilingual. The project introduced language acquisition as a vehicle by which to learn content. Many educational institutions teach 50% of their courses in English and the remaining 50% in Spanish, as regulated by the aforementioned order. Later, Durán-Martínez and Beltrán-Llavador (2016) have stated that:

> the Order EDU/154/2013 recently authorized an additional group of 46 schools to start a bilingual section so that in the academic year 2013/2014 Castile and Leon reached a total of 444 primary and secondary schools with an official offer of content and language integrated programmes. (p. 80)

As for the teachers involved in that program, they must demonstrate sufficient English proficiency to teach and interact academically, as well as colloquially. Durán-Martínez and Beltrán-Llavador (2016) affirmed that "for teachers in Castile and Leon to be involved in CLIL programmes a CEFRL B2 language accreditation has been required since 2012 (Resolution 7 November 2013), even if when they were first launched a B1 level was sufficient" (p. 80).

3.2.2.2.3. Extremadura

The autonomous community of Extremadura has turned its attention to implementing a bilingual section in its educational program. Manzano Vázquez (2015) has stated that "the Extremaduran Education Authority (*Consejería de Educación de Extremadura*) has adopted various measures such as the Bilingual Section Projects or the Plan Linguaex in order to foster a growing awareness of the need for multilingualism among its students" (p. 139).

The community has established bilingual sections for Primary and Secondary Education. It has developed strategic policies to ensure the learning of foreign languages; for example, "a Spanish–Portuguese section is found in Extremadura" (Fernández Fontecha, 2009, p. 13). Furthermore, other languages such as French and English are also regarded as an instrument for teaching content.

In the Extremaduran community, the educational authorities seek to promote a positive integration of students in the class and guarantee high quality teaching. They urge non-linguistic teachers to be qualified to teach the content subjects through the foreign language. In this sense, "the secondary teacher should have obtained the

corresponding certificate of the EOI [Official School of Languages, our own translation of the acronym] fourth or fifth year, have the Advanced English Certificate or equivalent, the Diplôme Approfondi de Langue Française (DALF), or the Diploma Universitario de Português Lingua Etrangeira (DUPLE) in each case (DOE, 2007)" (Fernández Fontecha, 2009, p. 14).

Regarding CLIL research in the region, the most relevant studies include a 2014 investigation by the Extremaduran educational authorities on FL proficiency, Alejo González and Piquer Píriz's studies on the rural/urban divide (2016a) and on the assessment of productive vocabulary (2016b) and, finally, Lancaster's (2018) more recent contribution on the effects of extramural exposure in a CLIL context. The former investigation constituted the first attempt of the local government to carry out stocktaking of CLIL student progress at both Primary and Secondary levels. Very positive outcomes were found as regards the level of foreign language proficiency attained by the pupils, which was mainly an A2 level by the end of Primary Education and a B1 level upon completion of Secondary Education. The study also documented a shortage of qualified teachers and a pressing need for further teacher training opportunities.

In turn, Alejo González and Piquer Píriz (2016a) analysed the influence of social milieu (urban/rural divide) on two groups of CLIL learners in 3rd grade of CSE from public CLIL schools located in a rural and in an urban context in Extremadura. The outcomes revealed that the urban students received more support (mainly in the form of private English lessons), had an earlier start and outperformed the rural group on all the linguistic aspects considered (receptive and productive vocabulary, grammar and

general EFL grades). However, the motivation and informal extramural exposure to the target language was similar for both groups. The rural/urban divide was the factor which explained most of the variance in FL attainment outcomes.

That same year, Alejo González and Piquer Píriz (2016b) also evaluated the adequacy of a vocabulary testing tool called Lex30 in a CLIL context. The sample of the study was made up of 48 individuals from two Secondary schools in Extremadura and data was gathered at two different moments in time: when pupils were in their 3rd and 4th year in a program with three CLIL subjects. The researchers were able to confirm this tool appears to be a reliable instrument to measure young learners' productive vocabulary in the L2, although the reliability scores obtained were not very high. In addition, their findings evinced significant, albeit moderate, correlations between the pupils' scores for Lex30 and the other FL proficiency measures, in line with prior studies that link productive vocabulary to language proficiency.

The latest addition to the body of research on Extremaduran CLIL is Lancaster's recent study (2018). Her investigation analyses the effects of CLIL and extramural exposure to English on FL achievement. The study worked with a sample of 318 Primary and Secondary students from public and charter schools who were matched in terms of motivation, verbal intelligence and FL proficiency to guarantee the homogeneity of the sample. The findings suggest that CLIL instruction encourages more extramural exposure to English than traditional EFL settings. However, differences between cohorts did not reach statistical significance in Primary Education; it was only at Secondary level that CLIL students had substantially more extramural exposure as compared to non-CLIL students.

3.2.2.2.4. Castilla-La Mancha

In the monolingual community of Castilla-La Mancha, the bilingual program has been established as a new educational approach. According to Fernández Cézar, Aguirre Pérez, and Harris (2009),

Castilla-La Mancha first introduced bilingual programmes in 1996 when the Spanish Ministry of Education signed agreements with the British Council and the French Government regarding the establishment of "bilingual" education programmes in state schools. This resulted in two separate programmes: Spanish-English and Spanish-French, which were implemented in a limited number of schools in the region. (p. 21)

A teacher training program has been organized through the collaboration between the Ministry of Education of the central government of Spain and the regional Education Authority: *Consejería de Educación y Ciencia* of the JCCM, as Fernández Cézar et al. (2009) point out. This program is known as *Programa de Apoyo al Aprendizaje de Lenguas Extranjeras* (PALE). It allows bilingual teachers to follow a training methodology and language courses about how to teach content through language. Furthermore, teachers have more opportunities to meet other bilingual teachers where the program has already been implemented. They learn from their experiences and acquire information about the bilingual program in those centers.

As regards the exposure of time to the target language, English teachers must teach in English all the time, while non-linguistic teachers are allowed to use this language of instruction between a third and three quarters of the lesson. The Regional

Department of Education in this community has promoted English and French as two important languages to enhance their learning at school. Fernández Fontecha (2009, p. 13) has asserted that "the foreign languages involved in this programme are mainly English and French".

The considerable advances in CLIL program implementation in this community have not been accompanied by a comparable body of research. Nieto Moreno de Diezmas (2016) reports the lack of empirical investigations on student outcomes in this autonomous community and seeks to fill this niche with her 2016 and 2018 investigations.

Nieto Moreno de Diezmas (2016) carried out a study on the acquisition of English language competence (reading, writing, listening and spoken production and interaction) in CLIL and non-CLIL students in Castilla-La Mancha. The participants were the whole census of 4th grade of Primary Education in the region (almost 20,000 students), divided into two cohorts: the CLIL students enrolled in European Sections, and the non-CLIL control group, which was almost ten times larger. The data for this study were obtained during a three-year Diagnostic Assessment of the Educational System of the aforementioned region. Results showed there was not a substantial difference when the performance of CLIL and non-CLIL learners were examined and contrasted. Spoken production and interaction were the only communicative competence in which differences in favor of CLIL students were statistically significant. Regarding reading and writing, the CLIL strand outperformed their non-CLIL partners, albeit not to a significant extent. Lastly, the non-CLIL students outperformed the

experimental group in the listening test, although these findings were not statistically significant.

This same author has another extremely recent study (Nieto Moreno de Diezmas, in press for 2018) at Primary level on the impact of CLIL on the acquisition of digital competence. Nieto Moreno de Diezmas' study (2018) evaluates the performance of CLIL and non-CLIL students in the following dimensions of digital competence: "communicate and participate in collaborative networks" and "search, collect and process digital information". The study sample included all the CLIL and non-CLIL students enrolled in 4th year of Primary Education. The outcomes confirmed that CLIL contributes to the acquisition of digital competence in Primary Education since the experimental group performed significantly better on the two dimensions analysed. In this vein, the author concludes that CLIL learning environments appear to be especially adequate for the integration of all key competences, due to the teaching innovations that this methodology demands.

3.2.2.2.5. La Rioja

CLIL has also been implemented by the regional government of La Rioja. Learning another language such as English or French has an important status in the school curriculum. It was explained by Arribas (2016) that

Bilingual Sections, a different way of CLIL in schools in La Rioja, are also introduced and explained in Fernández Fontecha (2010) and, in this type of instruction, at least two

subjects can be taught in a FL so long as the total number of hours taught in the foreign language does not surpass the 50% of the total hours of the curriculum. (p. 272)

The PILC Project has two modalities to develop CLIL in schools and teachers can choose between "Type A, which consists of the teacher's use of greetings, instructions, routines, and frequently used words in the foreign language, and Type B, in which part of the subject is taught in the foreign language by the content teachers", as Fernández Fontecha. (2010, p. 81) has stated. She also confirmed that this autonomous community has worked to enhance languages by introducing them via several projects,

> such as the early introduction of English as a foreign language in the second cycle of Infant Education, specific Official Language School (Escuelas Oficiales de Idiomas, EOIs) programmes addressing Secondary school learners, or immersion-based stays abroad by 6th Primary school pupils, among others. (2010, p. 80)

The goal behind this implementation of CLIL in this context is to sustain communication competences, promote linguistic skills, as well as achieve academic results. These objectives are parallel to those of Castilla-La Mancha and Extremadura. Additionally, La Rioja, among other communities, has adopted the same project of teacher training (PALE) that has been taken on by Castilla-La Mancha. In this project, teachers have to improve their skills in English, French, or in both languages (Fernández Fontecha, 2010, p. 84).

The majority of the research consulted in this region has been carried out mainly by the *GLAUR* group (Grupo de Lingüística Aplicada de la Universidad de La Rioja), coordinated by Jiménez Catalán, and has focused on vocabulary acquisition in CLIL.

From the studies summarised below it transpires that vocabulary has been examined from different angles with heterogeneous and sometimes discrepant findings.

In La Rioja, Agustín Llach and Jiménez Catalán (2007) studied the effects of CLIL and non-CLIL instruction types with a focus on vocabulary, more concretely, lexical reiteration. The authors found that CLIL learners perform slightly better than mainstream ones in four aspects: language level, lexical variation and their use of general nouns and antonyms, as reported by Fernández Fontecha (2010). A year later, Jiménez Catalán and Ojeda Alba (2008) measured the English vocabulary production of 86 students (44 CLIL and 42 non-CLIL learners) attending their last year of Primary Education in two charter schools in Logroño. Contrary to what might have been expected, the EFL strand obtained better results than the CLIL group on both tests. These results do not tally with the outcomes of the other vocabulary-centered studies that generally tend to favor CLIL learners.

Still regarding vocabulary, a group of studies jointly executed by La Rioja and The Basque Country particularly stands out. They yielded positive results for CLIL, albeit presenting notable methodological pitfalls. One example of these joint studies between the two regions would be that by Jiménez Catalán and Ruiz de Zarobe (2009). The scholars worked with a sample of female students from CLIL and traditional EFL streams, in Bilbao and La Rioja, respectively. A totla of three language tests were taken by the participants and data revealed slightly higher scores for the CLIL students' receptive vocabulary.

The same year, Ojeda Alba (2009) conducted a study that compared general vocabulary use in CLIL and non-CLIL streams, obtaining inconclusive results. She analysed several lexical fields and found that the non-CLIL branch presented in many cases more varied vocabulary choices in their compositions, implying higher lexical richness. Noentheless, the output produced by the CLIL stream included more abstract terms, demonstrating more developed linguistic skills.

More recently, Jiménez Catalán and Fernández Fontecha (2015) have published another joint research project between La Rioja and The Basque Country. The study focuses on the use of lexical phrases in written compositions by CLIL and non- CLIL students.The authors found a strong positive correlation between the number of lexical phrases and the language level in both groups, although overall CLIL and non-CLIL groups made a scarce use of these expressions. Language level in the CLIL stream was significantly higher; however, the researchers claim this could be explained by the increased exposure to English and not necessarily by the CLIL methodology, since they consider these two variables cannot be separated.

To finish the characterisation of CLIL in La Rioja, there is a study which departs from the vocabulary-oriented ones thus far reviewed. Agustín Llach (2009) carried out a quantitative and qualitative investigation that aimed to analyse the influence of the mother tongue or L1 on the writing of CLIL and EFL learners. Outcomes revealed a higher percentage of language transfer inmainstream learners, who made more L1-oriented lexical errors and resorted to 'borrowings' from Spanish more frequently than their CLIL counterparts.

3.2.2.2.6. Asturias

In addition to the above-mentioned monolingual communities, we have another example of bilingualism that emerged in Asturias in 2004. In 2009, bilingualism experienced an exponential growth across Asturian schools. It was regulated by the Official Bulletin of the Principality of Asturias (BOPA). In order to meet the need of a good integration of Asturian citizens, the BOPA established the need to master languages, learn efficient communication, and improve awareness of other cultures.

Regarding teacher quality in Asturias, the Regional Education Department states that Asturian teachers should accredit at least a B2 level of the CEFRL. As for type of teacher in Primary Education and CSE, according to Fernández Costales and Lahuerta Martínez (2014, p. 22), "there is an overwhelming majority of language teachers in CLIL programmes in primary education (normally with a diploma in teaching), while graduates in arts, chemistry or maths are more frequently engaged in CLIL programmes than philologists".

It is precisely Fernández Costales who stands out as a leading researcher within this community. He conducted an initial relevant investigation (Fernández Sanjurjo, Fernández Costales and Arias Blanco, 2017) quite recently. These scholars researched CLIL students' competence in Science and factored in the type of school and students' socioeconomic status as variables. The sample was quite representative (709 Primary Education students) and the main finding regarding students' performance by type of school (CLIL vs. non-CLIL) was that students learning contents in their mother tongue obtained better results. Moreover, pupils from less privileged backgrounds obtained

significantly lower scores than participants with higher or medium socioeconomic status in both CLIL and non-CLIL groups. In view of these results, Fernández Sanjurjo et al. (2017) underscore the need for new measures to improve CLIL results in content acquisition and make suggestions with regard to re-designing the curriculum of CLIL subjects, to increasing the teaching hours in bilingual streams and vis-à-vis teacher training.

3.3. CLIL in the region of Madrid

3.3.1. Introduction

In recent decades, Madrid also has promoted a shift from monolingualism to bilingualism, as an instrument of innovation in the language policy of the community. "This project consists of a CLIL model" (Fernández Fontecha, 2009, p. 14). CLIL became the name recognized for a new educational program (Spanish/English) that focused on a need for learning languages and it has been integrated in the educational institution. Fernández and Halbach (2011) stated that:

> In March 2004 the regional government of Madrid issued a decree through which it set up a bilingual project to be implemented gradually in primary education, starting with the first year of primary and moving upwards to eventually cover the six years of primary education. (p. 241)

The region has adapted its own bilingual project: "although different bilingual projects are located in different Spanish Communities, here we are specifically referring

to the Bilingual Project carried out in the Autonomous Community of Madrid" (Fernández Fontecha, 2009, p. 14).

Its implementation, according to the Order from the regional government of Madrid, is necessary due to the perceived need to acquire languages and to promote knowledge about other cultures. "Being able to develop their daily and professional activities using English as a second language opens new perspectives and new relationship possibilities to students of bilingual schools in the Autonomous Region of Madrid" (Brindusa, Cabrales, & Carro, 2012, p. 1205).

Consequently, bilingual programs have become one of the government's top priorities, through targeted use of time and money, resulting in rapid program growth in schools. Furthermore, through bilingual programing, there has been an attempt to empower the learning of curricular subjects, such as Natural Sciences, Social Sciences, Art, Crafts and so forth, in English (*Orden 3245/2009*). Indeed, for the past several years, Madrid has been one of the regions of Spain that has given more importance to implementing CLIL in urban and rural schools alike, in order to further develop linguistic and academic competences.

The *Consejería de Educación de la Comunidad de Madrid* first announced a course of bilingual sections beginning in 2004-2005 with implementation in 26 public schools. In 2011-2012, 32 new bilingual Secondary schools opened their doors to the first students finishing Primary Education. To date, over 100,000 students have been receiving bilingual education in the community of Madrid both in Primary and

Secondary Education (*Consejería de Educación, Juventud y Deporte de la Comunidad de Madrid, 2016, p. 31*).

Thus, CLIL already permeates half of the Secondary schools in Madrid and English, clearly, has become the dominant language in bilingual education. The majority of public[1], charter[2], and private[3] schools in Madrid have designed Spanish/English bilingual programs to create new opportunities to learn languages, especially English, in a natural and effective way (*Orden 1317/2015*).

3.3.2. Bilingual Compulsory Secondary Education

Regarding bilingual program structures in Madrid, in general, the *Comunidad Autónoma de Madrid* (*CAM*) Bilingual Project organizes and implements these programs. According to Relaño Pastor (2014),

---

[1] Public or state school are regulated by the Ministry of Education, Culture and Sport. All the autonomous regions of Spain control their own education systems and have the right to teach in the regional language instead of Spanish (retrieved from https://www.expatica.com/new/es/education/children-education/primary-and-secondary-schools-101446/).

[2] Charter schools *(concertados)* are semi-private schools. They are subsidized by the Spanish Government, combining their funds between scholarships and family contributions. Although they have a high freedom of management, they have to follow certain conditions established by the Government. A religious orientation is also present in the vast majority of charter schools (retrieved from http://www.school-finder-spain.com/differences-public-concertado-private-schools-spain/).

[3] Private schools are known as independent schools or non-governmental schools. They are not administered by the local or national government. They are funded by parents (retrieved from https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Private_school).

Two different bilingual education initiatives have been implemented since the mid-90s. The first one, known as the MEC/British Council Project, was signed in 1996 by the Spanish Ministry of Education and The British Council, and the second one, known as the Comunidad Autónoma de Madrid (CAM) Bilingual Project, was put into effect by the local administration of the Madrid Region in 2004. (p. 132)

The CAM bilingual project in Madrid "works with two modalities of bilingual education: The Bilingual Programme and the Bilingual Section" (Vázquez, 2015, p. 145). All bilingual schools offer both modalities, which give students new opportunities to learn English language actively and passively. These two types of programs intend to teach a greater number of hours during the day in English, involving subject areas as well. Many of the schools (public, charter, and private) select for themselves which subjects to teach.

It is also important to point out that bilingual schools are compelled to follow the *Orden 3245/2009*. The schools are required to base their bilingual programs on prescribed, fundamental criteria. The order mandates that each school teach five hours of English per week, and students should receive 30% of the academic course in English. Within the same line, Fernández and Halbach (2011) have explained,

To implement the project, the number of teaching hours for English was extended from three to five, and schools were required to teach at least 30% of their teaching hours through the medium of English. Any subject could be chosen for this, except for Mathematics and Spanish language. (p. 241)

According to Cabezuelo Gutiérrez and Fernández Fernández (2014), bilingual Compulsory Secondary Education started in 2010. They have stated that "in 2010, the Madrid bilingual project was extended to secondary education" (p. 53). From 2010/2011 to the 2015/2016 academic year, the number of bilingual Secondary schools increased dramatically, as did the number of CLIL programs, especially in public and charter schools. "There are 118 Secondary Bilingual Schools. These schools will be assigned over 450 English-speaking Assistants, who will collaborate 16 hours a week with their teachers" (*Comunidad de Madrid, Consejería de Educación, Juventud y Deporte*, 2016, p. 3).

Bilingual Compulsory Secondary Education schools have coordinators who oversee the subjects that are taught in English, as well as the language assistants who help foster English language learning among students. The objective is to continue developing teaching and learning activities that CLIL outlines and to attain the English language level set by the Spanish government. The goal is also to keep students learning some content subjects in English as a way of language reinforcement and success. This educational strategy is considered as a successful way to learn English.

As mandated by law, in Bilingual CSE students have to choose between two types of bilingual modalities. The aim of this learning strategy is precisely "to cater for the learning needs and diversity of the student body, all the pupils enrolled in Bilingual Secondary Education will study either in the Bilingual Section or in the Bilingual Programme" (*Consejería de Educación, Juventud y Deporte*, 2016, p. 5).

3.3.2.1. Bilingual Program Group

With regard to the Bilingual Program (*Programa Bilingüe*), students learn English both as a subject and through other subject areas taught in this language. They have to learn at least one non-compulsory subject in English, such as Art, Music, or Physical Education, which are optional for schools. Additionally, when students reach the fourth grade of Secondary Education, they must study Economics or Science in English and take one class taught in English each day. In other words, the Bilingual Program students have fewer subjects that are taught in English than the Section Group ones.

3.3.2.2. Bilingual Section

In line with the foregoing, under the Bilingual Section (*Sección Bilingüe*), students have to study additional subjects in English, such as Science, History and Geography. English is used in these subjects as the medium of instruction and it is also used for other optional content areas. Overall, there is much more time devoted to teaching and learning in English. Each day, students take one hour of advanced English in order to expand their linguistic level, as well as their academic performance. In tandem, they develop learning strategies and skills.

Moreover, the demand by students and families to enroll in this type of bilingual education is increasing. The Bilingual Section students have a moderately advanced level of English. In general, Bilingual Sections are sometimes small, made up of

between 15 and 20 students. They are taught most of their subjects in English, except for Spanish Language and Math, which must be taught in Spanish.

In Bilingual Sections, the teachers are bilingual and there is a native English conversation instructor. Natural and Social Sciences are the main subjects that each bilingual school is required to teach via English. Also, Art and Physical Education are optional subjects that can be taught in English.

3.3.2.3. Advanced English Curriculum

The Advanced English Curriculum has been regulated in Secondary schools of Madrid by a series of Orders. The *Orden 2462-01/2011* states the application of the English Advanced Curriculum for the second grade in Compulsory Secondary Education (2011-2012), in compliance with a couple of former Orders (p. 2). This curriculum only has to be followed by the Bilingual Sections.

The English Advanced Curriculum focuses on higher level linguistic issues aimed at improving students' L2. It enables the student to be competent in learning skills and English. It is an additional curriculum that fosters cultural knowledge and strengthens cognitive abilities. "The English Advanced modality is an instrument for the development of social competence and citizenship, because it serves the speakers to get involved socially" (*Orden 9961/2012,* p. 4) (my own translation). Furthermore, "in the Advanced English Curriculum, students will be developing their reading and writing skills to a greater degree, and consequently more attention should be paid to the assessment of these two skills" (*Orden 9961/2012,* p. 24).

Teachers who want to teach the Advanced English Curriculum have to pass an exam. First, they have to prove their English proficiency at a C1 level. This exam allows them to teach students in Secondary Education (*Orden 1317/2015*). The Advanced English Curriculum is rigorous for teachers. They have to teach the art of literature and they must master all the skills that are needed for teaching. The legislation (*Orden 9961/2012*) mandates that a "pertinent part of this time allotment will be devoted to the study of Literature in its diverse manifestations, written by authors from English-speaking countries" (p. 20).

3.3.3. Teacher training

Teacher training is one of the plans encompassed in Madrid's bilingual project. This training qualifies teachers while focusing on teaching skills and pedagogical methods (CLIL, in particular). The region of Madrid recommends that "these teachers either have a sufficient level of English or have to train specifically to start teaching the course in English" (Quecedo, 2015, p. 161).

Therefore, teacher training and a high level of English proficiency are imperative for teachers to be involved in a bilingual program in the community. Fernández and Halbach (2011) reported that "teachers involved in the project were given a three-month training prior to starting on the project" (p. 242). In addition, according to Brindusa et al. (2012), the teachers' English level

> is verified either with some official certificate (such as those awarded by the University
> of Cambridge) that accredits a sufficient level of command of the English language or

by an evaluation done directly by the education department of the regional government. (p. 1206)

English proficiency for teachers must be at least of a C1 level and "only teachers with an accredited C1 level of English can teach in bilingual schools" (Durán-Martínez & Beltrán-Llavador, 2016, p. 80).

3.3.4. Bilingual Project objectives

Although the decision to implement bilingual programs in the *Comunidad de Madrid* (CAM) is aiding students in becoming bilingual in Spanish and English, "the target is to prepare the students in the Comunidad de Madrid to become fully competent in English" (Gerena & Ramírez-Verdugo, 2014, p. 121). Students need to reach a high level of proficiency to meet the challenges and demands of the future. Offering a practical method to learn the languages through bilingual education also, without doubt, fosters cultural awareness and supports cognitive skills. The rise of English as a second language in Madrid's schools serves the educational need of most of the students to communicate and to participate as global citizens, while concomitantly learning academic content.

Furthermore, because of the strong interest in modernization and globalization, the necessity for cultural and diversity awareness through school is essential, locally, regionally, and globally. Lessons about culture have been introduced as techniques to reinforce effective and fluid communication skills. An important aim of the project has been to encourage both teachers and students to participate in exchange programs

outside of Spain and to promote opportunities to contact and to interact with native speakers, allowing Spaniards to experience a real integration into other societies and to gain a deeper understanding of cultural differences and similarities.

3.3.5. Bilingual Project methodology

To ensure an English-only environment within certain classrooms in Madrid's bilingual schools, the Ministry of Education has recommended various pedagogical techniques for teachers. Speaking in English at all times, even during lessons and especially when explaining subject content has become the first tenet. Thus, according to Halbach (2014), "the status and importance of the language has changed radically in the school context" (p. 4). Language teaching has become the target of any methodology used in the classroom. The teacher's method should foster the parallel development of the L2 and the academic subjects. The methodology in the classroom should include ICT applications that increase student participation, communication, and motivation in learning in a bilingual program; this facilitates easy access to information. The Internet should be viewed as a source of ample teaching materials in support of learning and an essential tool for fulfilling the goals and outcomes of the curriculum.

As always, there is a need for continuous improvement of teaching strategies in order to incorporate innovations and advancements in pedagogy. Teachers begin by teaching vocabulary, lexical form and structure, as well as pronunciation to students to develop their communication fluency. The four skills (speaking, listening, reading, and writing), both receptive and productive, are targeted in the classroom. Authentic and

original materials are important tools used to develop students' language skills and to encourage authentic communication.

Furthermore, CLIL methodology fosters cooperative learning and enables students to prepare projects and discuss ideas collaboratively in groups and with their peers. Lessons utilizing these kinds of methodologies increase time intensity for language learning and lead to the students' accuracy and fluency.

3.3.6. Bilingual Project evaluation

It is important to acknowledge that the evaluation of bilingual education in Madrid may be a complex task. Differences between bilingual schools in adapting the CLIL model and even from one teacher to another may also require different evaluations. Indeed, evaluation should be geared at quantifying the language level of the students, with a focus on assessing learning content and knowledge as priority goals. In addition, some foreign language teachers prioritize linguistic knowledge with a focus on speaking and communicative competence.

Almost all CLIL teachers check whether the attitudes of students towards learning with CLIL are high or low and they tend to value written exams where students' motivation and attitudes are typically revealed. Second, bilingual teachers evaluate oral participation, participation in-class activities, and homework effort and completion. Third, most schools prepare students for exams that are used to certify the level of English of the student according to Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFRL).

3.3.7. The new teacher roles

In any challenging bilingual course, instructors and educators play a very important role in the students' successful learning. In spite of their experiences and their training, in daily practice, teachers face many challenges while dealing with the academic and linguistic needs of emergent bilingual students. Cabrera (2012) acknowledged that "teachers are undeniably the main agents responsible for the true success of the methodological revolution that the introduction of CLIL brings with it" (p. 119). Also, Xu (2010) noted that "no matter how well a program is designed to help ELLs, it is you, the teacher, who makes the program work for students" (p. 4).

Accordingly, Olmedo (2010) stated that "the bilingual teacher must move beyond teaching only survival English to teaching academic language so that children can communicate" (p. 56). In addition, teachers have to take into consideration the broad cultural and linguistic diversity of their students. Their diversity makes the process of teaching so complex that it demands that teachers prepare themselves for classroom diversity and solicit support and team teaching opportunities with their bilingual language peers. All teachers have been mandated to support new school systems and to face the challenges of bilingual education programs.

3.3.7.1. Coordinators

Bilingual coordinators promote and develop the CLIL program, specifically, and they support the teachers' knowledge and experience about the best approaches needed in the classroom and generally ensure that CLIL functions properly within their school

system. Accordingly, the role of the coordinators is essential to any bilingual school in the community. They play a crucial role in making CLIL understandable. They provide the school with information about the curricular development of linguistic goals and levels required. They offer guidance to bilingual teachers and inform them of programmatic updates. In Madrid, bilingual coordinators and teachers, together, hold a meeting each month to discuss bilingual issues affecting the school and to provide mutual support to one another.

3.3.7.2. Language teachers

Foreign language teachers are responsible for teaching the official Curriculum and usually design their own materials to teach English. They focus on presentation and discussion, selecting topics that will promote students' classroom participation and creative development.

It is of vital importance for language teachers to speak only in English and push their students to do so as well. It is their responsibility to maintain the students' focus and interest in the L2, while integrating students linguistically in all situations. Furthermore, language teachers need to ensure the learners are highly engaged in a cooperative learning style, thus furthering the students' cultural awareness and enriching their foundational knowledge of the language and culture.

In addition, foreign language teachers are typically aided in their classrooms by teaching assistants (TAs). Teachers and assistants work together to foster the linguistic

repertoire of the students and to make the teaching environment more dynamic. This collaborative work, in turn, influences students' language learning.

3.3.7.3. Non-linguistic area teachers

Non-linguistic area teachers are also required to use the target language for teaching the curriculum. They are obliged to use only the target language in the classroom to teach the entire content subject, and to continue improving their own non-native language proficiency. Therefore, students are immersed in learning the academic content totally in English.

In order to guarantee the students' comprehension of the subjects, the non-linguistic teachers have to facilitate the use of the English language. They have to focus on interaction and learning in the classroom. It is also noteworthy that subject teachers foster, simultaneously, L2 acquisition, literacy, and the subjects' contents. They have double the work, resulting in an increased workload.

More importantly, in contrast to teaching assistants, "it is the subject teacher who is able to interrupt conversation, allocate speaking turns and interpret what is significant" (Creese, 2005, p. 4). Therefore, subject teachers, or non-linguistic teachers, are the fundamental source of information and knowledge of the field of content, working as the experts in the classroom most of the time with the selected textbook, workbook and/or other supplementary materials.

3.3.7.4. Teaching assistants (TAs)

All bilingual schools in Madrid are required to use native L2 conversation assistants, who can come from various Anglophone countries. According to Gerena and Ramírez-Verdugo (2014), "most language assistants working in bilingual programs in Spain were natives of the United States, but there were many from Great Britain and Ireland as well" (p. 120). For example, the schools visited for this study had hosted conversation assistants from various parts of the United States, England, and Ireland (see Graph 12 on teachers' nationality).

The conversation assistant's work supports the teacher's work in the classroom. According to the *Consejería de Educación, Juventud y Deportes de la Comunidad de Madrid* (2015) "these Language Assistants help the foreign language teachers in the classroom for 12 hours a week, supporting the work of foreign language teachers" (p. 3), and their main goal is "to provide direct teaching under the guidance of the teacher" (Vincett, Cremin, & Thomas, 2005, p. 13).

In this regard, the auxiliary conversation teachers contribute effectively in the classroom and they support the teachers in the planning and delivery of learning activities. "They support teachers in the classroom, collaborating so as to develop the various activities to their fullest" (*Consejería de Educación, Juventud y Deportes de la Comunidad de Madrid*, 2015, p. 4). Conversational assistants have to meet the needs of bilingual students to promote positive behavior and to support language learning and communication. Both students and teachers benefit from the work of the bilingual

teaching assistants, especially with respect to cultural background, pronunciation and vocabulary.

3.4. Research

This section expounds on quantitative and qualitative research. Firstly, it outlines research about the effects of CLIL on the L2 and the L1, and on content learning. Secondly, it reports in detail on the main research that has been conducted qualitatively on teachers', students' and parents' perspectives about CLIL and teacher training, so that it can be compared in chapter 5 with the results of our own study.

It is obvious that research on CLIL has increased recently in many countries because of its potential and its positive results. Alluding to some quantitative research that examines the effects of CLIL on the learning of the L1, L2, and content, many studies reveal positive results. A longitudinal study held by Admiraal, Westhoff and de Bot (2006) reported that bilingual Secondary students who had received CLIL education for four years demonstrated a high level in oral proficiency and reading comprehension.

Ruiz de Zarobe (2008) addressed the issue of the effects of CLIL on the L2. The prevailing conclusions in her study were that CLIL Secondary students, especially from the third and the fourth grades, exhibited competences and proficiencies in both oral and written compression. Ruiz de Zarobe and Lasagabaster (2010) also reported that immersion programs everywhere "have undoubtedly demonstrated that using the L2 (or L3) as a means of instruction –when the language is used to teach school subjects and not just as a language subject– yields very positive and encouraging results" (p. 279).

Other numerous studies have explored how students develop literacy and other learning skills. According to Baker and Lewis (2015),

> A more recent "quality" example of individual program research was undertaken by August, Calderon, Carlo, and Nuttall (2006) who examined differences in reading outcomes for three groups of grade five Spanish-speaking students (instructed in Spanish only; instructed in English only; instructed in Spanish with a transition into English-only in grade 3 or four). (p. 111)

The results behind this investigation show highly positive findings in terms of bilingualism, biliteracy, and curriculum achievement.

In Madrid, Llinares and Whittaker (2010) conducted some research on analyzing first year Secondary student achievement and difficulties in learning the Spanish/English curriculum. They focused on CLIL students' expression of content and on their oral production of History in English. The study collected written data and recorded students individually to describe their development in oral skills. Overall, they obtained promising results and CLIL learners reached a very adequatelevel of linguistic competences and proficiency.

Llinares and Dafouz (2010) have shared positive outcomes concerning collaborative work, students' confidence, and awareness of culture. They acknowledge that "affective gains are evident in this type of education, with students showing more willingness to work collaboratively, higher personal confidence, ability to confront challenges and awareness of cultural differences" (p. 97).

In turn, Lasagabaster and Doiz (2016) have stated that bilingual programs are effective and positive for foreign language improvement. They found that:

CLIL offers very good results in terms of foreign language improvement (Dalton-Puffer, 2011; De Graaff, Koopman, Anikina, & Westhoff, 2007; Lasagabaster, 2008, 2011; Lorenzo et al., 2010). Similarly, the research which has been conducted in the Spanish context has shown that CLIL students outperform their non-CLIL peers on various language proficiency competences and measures. (p. 3)

Pérez Cañado (2018b) reported on the effects of CLIL on the L1 competence and content knowledge. Her empirical evidence relied on a sample of 2,024 Primary and Secondary students in 12 monolingual provinces in Spain. First, she provided qualitative results that attested the positive effects of the program on content learning. Pérez Cañado (2018b, p. 26) detected that bilingual Secondary students show development in their content knowledge and "CLIL students whose Natural Science subjects are delivered in English outperform their peers who receive instruction in the mother tongue, especially in the long term".

Second, Pérez Cañado (2018b) revealed that there are no significant differences between bilingual and non-bilingual groups in the case of L1 proficiency. According to the author "the effects of CLIL program are unsubstantial on this dependent variable, something which points to the fact that CLIL programs are not detrimentally impacting L1 learning" (p. 26).

Also recently, Pérez Cañado (2018c) has published research concerning foreign language learning with the same large sample mentioned above (1,033 CLIL students and 991 EFL learners). In her longitudinal study, she ascertained that CLIL has marked differential effects on bilingual laerners' linguistic competene, which were particularly conspicuous towards the end of Compulsory Secondary Education and Baccalaureate. Thus, the boraoder take-away here is that the longer a student has been involved in a CLIL program, the more pronounced the effect on his/her learning of the foreign language (in this case, English).

In a similar vein, Pérez Cañado and Lancaster (2017) carried out a study in the province of Jaén where they presented quantitative outcomes about the students' oral comprehension and oral production skills in terms of grammar, vocabulary, fluency, pronunciation, and task-fulfilment. The authors observed that CLIL students had achieved an improvement in both oral comprehension and production, and that they specially showed a high ability in spoken interaction, task-fulfilment and fluency.

In terms of qualitative research, numerous studies have been conducted to provide a clearer insight into teachers', students', parents' perspectives, plus teacher training. Pena Díaz and Porto Requejo (2008) revealed the needs and feelings of teachers involved in the bilingual program in Madrid. This piece of research was carried out with Primary bilingual teachers. It showed that teachers' attitudes and expectations were extremely positive toward the program. Teachers admitted that students were learning culture, linguistic abilities, as well as acquiring content and adapting to

different situations. Students were practicing communication, learning culture, and sharing experiences thanks to the Twin School Project with UK schools.

Pena Díaz and Porto Requejo (2008) asserted that only a few bilingual teachers complained about dedicating a high amount of work to this venture. Furthermore, just a few teachers confessed that they had problems during the organization of the project and problems in accessing bilingual materials and resources. Pena Díaz and Porto Requejo also asserted that the majority of teachers highlighted that CLIL students developed cognitive abilities and strategies for learning linguistic issues. As regards the development of students' L1, the researchers mentioned that teachers' perceptions held mixed views. Half of the teachers believed that learning a second language in such early ages would negatively affect the acquisition of the L1, while the other half emphasized the idea that learning through a second language would enforce the learning of the first language.

Leyva and Díaz (2013) undertook an empirical study about Secondary teachers involved in the CLIL project in Madrid. The researchers attempted to show the real perceptions of teachers about the organizational aspects, training courses by the community, the communication approach, materials and resources, as well as the pros and cons of the new methodology. All in all, findings were positive. Teachers were very satisfied with all the aspects that were analyzed in this study. They had no challenges or difficulties in teaching through the CLIL program. Teachers also informed about the high level of students' motivation to learn a second language.

Another parallel study has been conducted by Gerena and Ramírez-Verdugo (2014). Both researchers investigated bilingual teachers, teaching assistants, and Secondary students' perceptions toward the development of the bilingual program in the region of Madrid. The data of the research was collected using "mixed methods: quantitative surveys, descriptive and analytical field observations, and qualitative interviews and written reflections" (Gerena & Ramírez-Verdugo, 2014, p. 122).

The broad research overview has proved that there is an important improvement. Teachers and teaching assistants were mostly enthusiastic about the program. Their perceptions were optimistic toward motivation and interest in being bilingual teachers. Teaching assistants played a very dynamic role in the class. They were well integrated and motivated to make advances in linguistic and cultural knowledge. Furthermore, the majority of teachers and teaching assistants affirmed that there was insufficient training to improve CLIL methodology or linguistic issues.

Students are very motivated and interested in this program. They were aware of the considerable benefits of bilingualism for their future. Furthermore, they valued the teaching assistant's role in developing their communicative skills, intonation, fluency, and preparing them for exams.

Concerning effective pedagogy, Gerena and Ramírez-Verdugo (2014, p. 125) revealed that there were effective practices in the classroom and

> Most lessons included some comprehensible input, such as demonstrations, modeling, videos, use of realia and visuals. Vocabulary development was paramount in most

lessons, and listening skills were developed more than speaking skills. Clarification and scaffolding support were provided when needed, and technology, such as smart boards, was present in most classrooms and used to varying degrees. (2014, p. 125)

Woore (2015) visited four public schools in Madrid (two Primary schools and two Secondary schools). He observed 12 subject areas, as well as English classes. He also held conversations with teachers, head teachers, teaching assistants and regional ministry officials. Woore (2015) aimed to describe "the nature of students' learning, both of English as an L2 and within other academic subject areas; the pedagogical approaches taken; and some of the successes and challenges of teaching through English as experienced at the school level" (p.1).

According to Woore (2015), findings at the Secondary level were satisfactory. Students were high attaining, well-motivated, and able to communicate spontaneously in English. Teachers considered teaching in the Bilingual Section an inspiring experience. Although the majority of teachers had an adequate level of English, Woore noted that a few teachers had low proficiency in teaching the subject in English.

Turning now to Andalusia, Lancaster (2016) reported on stakeholders' perspectives on CLIL in the province of Jaén, Spain. Her investigation was conducted with 692 students and 53 teachers from bilingual Secondary schools. Lancaster collected data concerning the following factors: students' use, competence and development of English in class; methodology; materials and resources and ICT; evaluation; teachers' use, competence and development of English in class; teacher

training; mobility; improvement and motivation towards English; and coordination and organization.

These aforementioned factors are also in line with the objectives of this dissertation. This qualitative study in nature identified mainly positive outcomes. On the whole, there was an optimistic outlook on behalf of both students and teachers. Lancaster (2016, p. 163) concluded that students in the Andalusian bilingual program

> Appear to have responded more positively to aspects with reference to their own use, competence and development of English and the methodology employed in the bilingual class. Motivation levels in the CLIL classroom are high mirroring outcomes yielded in the investigation undertaken by Lorenzo et al. (2009) and student perspectives identified within the CAM bilingual program in Madrid. (Lancaster, 2016, p. 163)

On the other hand, with respect to the teacher cohort in the province, Lancaster (2016) stated that "Their satisfaction with the APPP is derivable from contrasting components relating to materials, resources and ICT, evaluation, teacher training, and mobility" (p. 163).

Similar results were found in Infante, Benvenuto, and Lastrucci (2009) in Italy. They focused on the effects of CLIL from the perspective of teachers and the impact of CLIL on teachers' achievement. Although the results were positive in general, teachers suffered from many problems such as lack of bilingual materials, absence of collaboration in the planning phase, and lack of interest of non-linguistic teachers to

integrate in this project. Furthermore, teachers claimed that they had difficulties in the way they should teach both language and content. As a consequence of these difficulties that teachers had to face during CLIL implementation, teachers were improving their level of reflection and abilities to solve problems and motivate changes in the CLIL context.

Again in some southern Spanish provinces, namely Granada, Almería, Jaén, and Córdoba, Milla Lara and Casas Pedrosa (2018) conducted a qualitative study on the satisfaction of bilingual teachers. They worked with 101 (NLA teachers, English teachers, and language assistants) to evaluate teachers' attitudes and satisfaction with CLIL. Their results revealed positive impressions about students' L2 competence in CLIL class, how they apply different methodologies and employ new materials in the class, and how diverse evaluation procedures are practiced. Although it was extra work for teachers, they demonstrated high motivation in and appraisal of the CLIL program. Finally, they were not satisfied with the training program that was programed for them.

We can also refer to another study by Tobin and Abello-Contesse (2013), which examined the experience of teaching assistants in bilingual schools. They conducted interviews with the participants to gauge their experience working in bilingual schools. Tobin and Abello-Contesse (2013) stated that teaching assistants had frequent interaction and engaged in cultural topics with students. They had a positive impact on linguistic and intercultural competencies among their students.

We can report on another qualitative study about students' perspectives on CLIL programs by Oxbrow (2018). She identified the same main fields of investigation

reported by Lancaster (2016). Questionnaires were administered to 221 students in the Canary Islands (Spain). As a result, Oxbrow (2018) elicited optimistic global results and "a pleasing amount of harmony in their perceptions of their CLIL experience as a means for FL improvement" (p. 157). She detected also some shortcomings in the methodology used by non-linguistic area teachers and teaching assistants, in the use of new materials and resources, in participating in mobility programs, in programs of training and support especially to non-linguistic teachers, as well as in the need of more coordination between bilingual teachers and their EFL counterparts.

Regarding students' motivation about CLIL and language achievement, Navarro-Pablo and Jiménez (2018) presented a comparison between CLIL and non-CLIL Primary and Secondary students (352 learners) in seven public schools and one charter school. Five were urban and three rural. The investigation revealed that CLIL students were highly motivated and they outperformed non-CLIL students. The findings demonstrate that CLIL Secondary students improve their English level on both receptive and productive skills and outperform the other students.

Fernández Costales (2014) conducted another study on how to raise students' motivation and promote independent learning. He departed in his results from teachers' assumptions on the use of subtitles and translation activities. According to his conclusions, motivation is effectively increased by the application of these activities. Students evince a notable acquisition of vocabulary and positive attitudes in learning the foreign language.

Cabezas Cabello (2010) aims to highlight outcomes with regard to strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats of implementing Andalusian Plurilingualism Promotion Plan (APPP). The study took place in 30 Primary and Secondary schools in the eight Andalusian provinces. According to this author (2010: 84), "hundreds of teachers involved in the APPP of English, French and German were interviewed. We also interviewed 30 APPP school coordinators (CBS), all of them working in English sections except for two schools in French and two in German". To sum up, the main results accruing from this investigation identify many issues of paramount importance for the APPP to continue working in the Andalusian context.

Research about teacher training is very sparse. According to Pérez Cañado (2016a) "only two studies which marginally focus on teacher training actions can be detected in European countries other than Spain" (p. 3). Cabezuelo Gutiérrez and Fernández Fernández (2014, p. 52) stated that "unfortunately, there are still not enough studies to properly analyze these teachers' concerns". Furthermore, these two authors claimed:

> Also in Madrid, but focusing on a different area, Johnson (2012) has offered a valuable and innovative perspective analyzing the beliefs of university lecturers delivering content-subjects in English and through the CLIL approach in a teacher education college in Madrid. (p. 53)

Most practitioners are claimed to have no training or skills for teaching CLIL. Whittaker and Llinares (2009) reported that "the teachers themselves at Secondary school are usually content specialists with a high command of the foreign language, but

no training on how to teach content in a foreign language" (p. 216). Other research has demonstrated some negative results concerning the teachers' qualifications to even teach language. For example, Pérez Cañado (2016a) has documented, "A final oft-cited problem which needs to be circumvented is the qualification of teachers: their insufficient mastery of the target language has surfaced as a major concern" (p. 2). Despite these qualification needs, Pérez Cañado (2016a) found that teachers have high competencies in both linguistic and intercultural awareness.

Llinares and Whittaker's (2010) results pointed out that teachers in Madrid need training to learn how they can integrate linguistic features, in this case spoken and written skills, when they teach the subject content. Pena Díaz and Porto Requejo (2008) also detected that not all teachers need a training program, but a third of teachers in the sample needed to improve their level of English.

Fernández and Halbach (2011) evaluated the implications of bilingual program in Madrid. They investigated 56 teacher attitudes after four years of the implementation of the program. Fernández and Halbach administered a questionnaire in 15 schools in order to gather information about four important aspects: (1) training received; (2) type of resources used or needed; (3) project affects on teaching organization; (4) general evaluation of the project.

The main results obtained from this research showed that teachers were aware about their needs and difficulties. As regards the training received, they had few training opportunities, most of them in their free time, which demotivated them. They also

indicated that they needed appropriate training suited to their needs and to address their problems in teaching.

When it comes to materials and resources, the research reavels that teachers suffer from a lack of materials and ICT resources. They struggle to create their own material, which means extra work for them and is thus time-consuming. Most teachers base their teaching on traditional textbooks in the classroom. As for organizational issues, Fernández and Halbach (2011) concluded that the admission to the program, the size of student groups, and bilingual materials need more attention in order to make them suitable and appropriate for a successful learning and teaching.

Overall, Fernández and Halbach (2011) highlighted that teachers were motivated, hard workers, and very enthusiastic to continue working in the program, and the CAM project offered them many opportunities to grow professionally and work proficiently.

Similarly, Cabezuelo Gutiérrez and Fernández Fernández (2014) have examined closely the bilingual teacher's perspective with regard to the Madrid bilingual program. They gathered opinions from 17 teachers about learning a foreign language and methodological training. The results showed that teachers were eager to improve their level of English, skills needed to teach, as well as the program competencies. The majority of teachers stated that they had received no language training or courses about the methodological way to teach through CLIL.

In turn, Fernández Costales and Lahuerta Martínez (2014) addressed the need and challenges for teachers in the framework of CLIL. The two authors highlighted that teachers should be specialists in the subject area, mastering the additional language in which they have to teach, and being familiar with methodology of CLIL. As a result, Fernández Costales and Lahuerta Martínez (2014, p. 23) mentioned that bilingual teachers "need specific training in language skills, integration of content and language teaching, and methodology".

More recently, Pérez Cañado (2017) presented the outcomes of a large-scale program evaluation in monolingual settings. She used questionnaires and semi-structured interviews carried out in Andalusia, Extremadura, and the Canary Islands with 2,633 participants. Her main objectives were to determine student, teacher, and parent perceptions of the main training needs required for successful CLIL teaching.

According to Pérez Cañado (2017), the outcomes showed that CLIL teachers, especially the non-linguistic area (NLA) ones, still need more training and participation in exchange programs. In particular, they need further linguistic training in fluency and communication. They also underscore that there is insufficient time to meet up and coordinate didactic aspects.

The opinions gathered from students were very positive. For them, FL teachers, NLA teachers, and TAs have a high linguistic competence and intercultural knowledge. However, when it comes to collaboration issues, students valued negatively the collaboration of teaching assistants with the other bilingual teachers. As for parents, they were extremely satisfied with both teachers' qualifications and their children's

achievement. They affirmed that bilingual teachers had a high level of oral and written skills. For them, practitioners also had a high intercultural competence.

Pérez Cañado (2018a) has recently reported on further outcomes of her large-scale program evaluating L2 competence development, methodology, materials and resources, evaluation, coordination and organization, and teacher training and mobility. The author's objective was to determine teacher perspectives on these seven blocks. According to the researcher, this study painted a comprehensive picture about the functioning of CLIL programs. Teachers reported positive effects on students' language level and motivation, interest, and participation within the bilingual classroom; and on teachers' linguistic proficiency improvement. In contrast, NLA teachers still needed to improve their linguistic competence, as was mentioned above.

Results also showed that methodology and evaluation are effective. Teachers reinforced them by introducing cooperative learning, task-based language teaching, and employing activities that demand understanding and analysing. Teachers focused on varieties of evaluation (diversified and formative) that award importance to linguistic aspects and to subject content. Concerning materials, teachers considered them innovative, interesting, and motivating. With respect to training, teachers demanded more, as well as participation in exchange programs. Parents asked for guidelines and support to help their children, and they also complained about the insufficient support from the authorities.

Ráez-Padilla's (2018) recent investigation focuses precisely on parents's perspectives, concretely, in Cádiz and Málaga. He administered questionnaires to 237

parents. The goal of this study was to identify the results in relation to L2 competence development; methodology; materials and resources; evaluation; training and information; mobility; and improvement and motivation towards English; and finally, overall appraisal of bilingual programs. The outcomes provided a very positive outlook about the issues mentioned above, except for the fact that parents need further guidelines in Spanish to help their children, and demand more mobility programs for students.

After framing the topic of bilingual education in Europe, Spain and in the region of Madrid, as well as dealing with the implementation of CLIL and its characterization in those contexts, it is now time to expound on our own empirical research, which was conducted to find out students', teachers', and parents' perspectives on CLIL program implementation in the autonomous community of Madrid.

CHAPTER 4

RESEARCH DESIGN

4.1. Justification of the investigation

Let us look more closely, from a variety of educational perspectives, at the outcomes of bilingual education and CLIL. The acquisition of, teaching of, and effect of being taught through a second language has attracted the attention of many European countries in recent years. Many experts such as Coyle (2012), Dalton-Puffer et al. (2010), or Marsh (2009a), among others, still debate and discuss the implementation of Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) in education. Although the CLIL model is encouraged increasingly in schools, CLIL is "still in the stages of exploration and discovery" (Marsh, 2009a, p. vii). These experts now call for more research to examine the efficiency of CLIL programs in educational contexts and whether or not "it is imperative for the field to explore what content and language integration entails both at theoretical and empirical levels" (Dalton Puffer et al., 2010, p. 288). However, Coyle (2012) has argued that "there is an urgent need for more rigorous longitudinal research into the effectiveness of CLIL which goes beyond simple evaluations of pilot studies" (p. 31).

Some surmise that there is insufficient research on empirical evidence documenting the success of bilingual education. Brindusa et al. (2012, p. 1204) have stated that "There is much less evidence regarding the effects of bilingual education in English for countries whose official language is not English". Pérez Cañado (2011) has also declared that studies of this nature will offer relevant conclusions about the practical effects of CLIL instruction and will contribute to the sustainability of future programs. In a similar vein, Flores (2001, p. 256) stated that "Although bilingual

education teachers are in direct contact with minority language learners, few studies have examined these teachers' beliefs".

In addition, Marsh (2009b, p. 18) pointed out that "there is not yet solid empirical evidence from EU countries on which to base definitive claims about the educational (or other) advantages of multilingual education" which is needed to scrutinize CLIL more closely because educational stakeholders are facing an increased and demands that need further research. Breeze, Saíz, Pasamar and Sala (2014) supported this view by observing that "advantages and benefits were still proposed without empirical basis" (p. 295).

In the region of Madrid, and especially in bilingual Secondary Education, there has been a lack of research on CLIL since its introduction in some schools in 2004-2005. The first bilingual Secondary students started this compulsory stage in the academic year 2010-2011 (*Consejería de Educación y Deportes, Comunidad de Madrid,2011*). Thus, the CLIL model was introduced gradually, over a period of seven years, and its use is still increasing in high schools. If we take this situation into consideration in the community of Madrid, and especially in the year 2015, having over "50% of primary and 30% of secondary schools fully developed as bilingual centres" (Gerena & Ramírez-Verdugo, 2014, p. 121), means that the other 50% of Primary and 70% of Secondary schools are still working toward this target.

In the same vein, Llinares and Dafouz have described bilingual education as a "recent teaching phenomenon" (2010, p. 95). Most CLIL studies have been conducted at the *Universidad Alcalá de Henares,* the *Universidad Autónoma de Madrid,* and the *Universidad Complutense de Madrid.* Fernández Fontecha asserted that "In Madrid, we

should address the research carried out by a team of professionals at the University of Alcalá" (2009, p. 8). Llinares, who led the UAM-CLIL Project at the *Universidad Autónoma de Madrid*, and Whittaker (2010) have declared that "the UAM-CLIL project started in 2005 with the aim of offering secondary school CLIL teachers some support in their new task by identifying students' linguistic needs in specific subjects" (p. 126). Now Llinares and Dafouz (2010) have mentioned the need for further analyses to encourage effective CLIL practices in different settings.

We can also turn our attention to a variety of other shortages in research related to bilingual education: teacher training, language policy, content subject acquisition, the CLIL classroom, and motivation towards teaching and learning in the bilingual context in Madrid. These issues are of vital importance and need to be investigated in depth.

Cabezuelo Gutiérrez and Fernández Fernández (2014, p. 52) lament that "little research has been carried out to gain an understanding about the evolution of teacher training aspects within the bilingual program in the Autonomous Community of Madrid after nine years of implementation". Furthermore, "research conducted in Madrid has found out that there are specific areas in which CLIL teachers feel they need further training" (Vázquez, 2015, p.148). Teacher training research should also investigate both the cultural background and the linguistic competence of the bilingual teachers. Pena Díaz and Porto Requejo (2008) declared that "few studies have examined teacher perceptions for culturally and linguistically diverse populations" (p. 153).

Whittaker and Llinares (2009) provided reference for linguistic practices and content subject improvement in the CLIL classroom. They worked, with groups of Secondary bilingual education in Madrid and analysed the main achievement of Content

and Language Integrated Learning in the area of Social Sciences. They have declared that "more work focused on language is needed in specific areas" (p. 232). Moreover, they noted "few studies have investigated CLIL students' competence in their use of the foreign language to express academic meanings" (Llinares & Pascual Peña, 2015 p.16). Research by Woore (2015) deals with classroom observation and suggests:

> The extent to which some principled use of L1 might be helpful for students' learning, both in English and in other subject areas; and the extent to which students are able to develop their knowledge of technical terms in L1 as well as in English. (p. 14)

In the light of this scarcity of research, this Doctoral Thesis a timely examination of teachers', students', and parents' perspectives. The phenomenological approach of the study provides a complete picture about CLIL in the monolingual region of Madrid, Spain. It pinpoints the nature of bilingual education in 18 schools and evaluates CLIL and the stakeholders' satisfaction with the new educational method. In Pérez Cañado's words about similar research in other regions of Spain (2016b), this investigation analyzes important variables such as gender, age, setting of schools, or type of school and "will undoubtedly contribute to fostering successful learning" (pp. 19-20).

4.2. Objective and research questions

This study aims to examine the perspectives of the three chief stakeholders (teachers, students, and parents) involved in the Spanish/English program in the community of Madrid. It includes a comprehensive evaluation of how CLIL is working in a monolingual context where English has very little presence inside or outside of the

school setting, since most of the parents and the community are minimally familiar with the English language.

The analysis measures the satisfaction generated by CLIL for all three stakeholders. It seeks to identify the main weaknesses, strengths, opportunities, and threats (SWOT) of the program. The data gathered are completed with classroom observation conducted by the author. The following curricular and organizational levels affected by CLIL programs are investigated: competencies; methods; materials and resources; evaluation; teacher training; mobility programs; workload; and, coordination and organization.

Furthermore, the study's broad objective of measuring stakeholder satisfaction can be broken down into sub-objectives, listed here as concrete research questions:

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

2- Are the results obtained from the interviews and the classroom observation conducted in line with those gathered from the stakeholder questionnaires?

3- Are there any statistically significant differences among the perceptions of the three stakeholders?

4- Within the student cohort, are there statistically significant differences in perception in terms of the identification variables considered (age, gender, nationality, type of school, setting, years of bilingual section experience, English level, time of exposure within and outside school)?

5- Within the teacher cohort, are there statistically significant differences in perception in terms of the identification variables considered (age, gender, nationality, teaching experience, bilingual teaching experience, administrative situation, type of school, setting, type of teacher, English proficiency level, and coordinator of the bilingual section)?

6- Within the parent cohort, are there statistically significant differences in perception in terms of the identification variables considered (age, gender, nationality, type of school, setting, and level of studies)?

4.3. Methodology

4.3.1. Research design

This study uses mixed methods to evaluate the way in which CLIL programs develop and function in bilingual schools. The methods include: questionnaires given to teachers, students and parents; interviews with teachers and students only; and an observation protocol of subject content classes taught in the second language and of English classes. These research methods allowed for the collection of a great amount of data that can be applied to understanding CLIL education and answering the research questions mentioned above.

This project is an example of primary research and, within it, of survey research, as it includes interviews and questionnaires (Brown, 2001). Multiple triangulation, (Denzin, 1970) is employed, specifically the following four types:

- ***Data triangulation***, as multiple sources of information were consulted to mediate biases interjected by people with different roles in the language teaching context: students, parents, and teachers (and within the latter, non-linguistic area teachers, English language teachers, and teaching assistants).

- ***Methodological triangulation***, since multiple data-gathering procedures were drawn on: questionnaires, interviews, and classroom observation.

- ***Location triangulation***, as language learning data were collected from multiple data-gathering sites, involving rural and urban Secondary schools.

4.3.2. Sample and participants

The research was carried out during the second term of the 2015-2016 academic year. The author spent four months visiting 18 bilingual Secondary schools in the autonomous community of Madrid. The schools in the study are divided into three types: public (six), charter (six), and private (six). Nine of the schools are located in urban areas and the other nine are in rural areas.

The sample consists of 908 participants: 754 of them are bilingual students attending grade two of Compulsory Secondary Education (CSE). All of the students belonged to a bilingual section. Equal numbers of teachers and parents took part in the investigation: 77 teachers and 77 parents. Although they represent a lower percentage, they are also essential participants in the study.

4.3.2.1. Students

Beginning with the student cohort (754 bilingual students), the two graphs below show that the three types of bilingual schools (public, charter, and private) and the two kinds of settings (urban and rural), are very well represented (cf. Graphs 1 and 2).
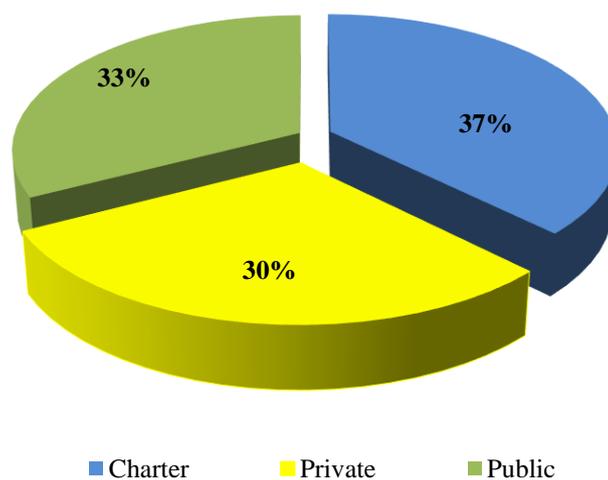
Graph 1. Breakdown of students in relation to type of schools
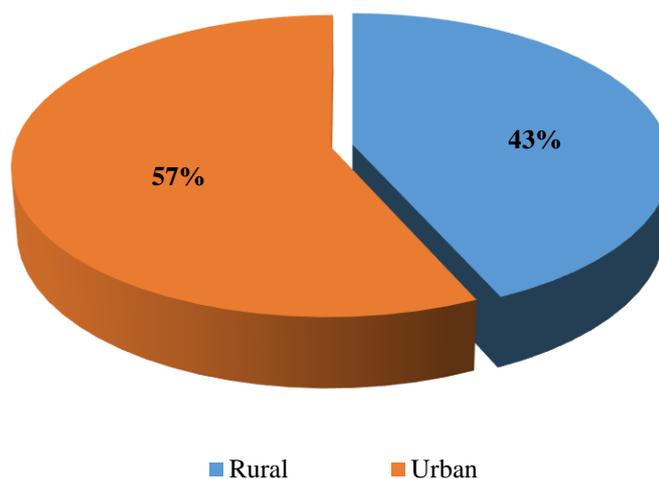
Graph 2. Breakdown of students in relation to school setting

On examining the age of the participants, most of the students sampled range between 13 and 14 years old. 70% of students are 13 years old, 29% are 14 years old, and only 1% is aged 11, 12, or 15 years old (cf. Graph 3).
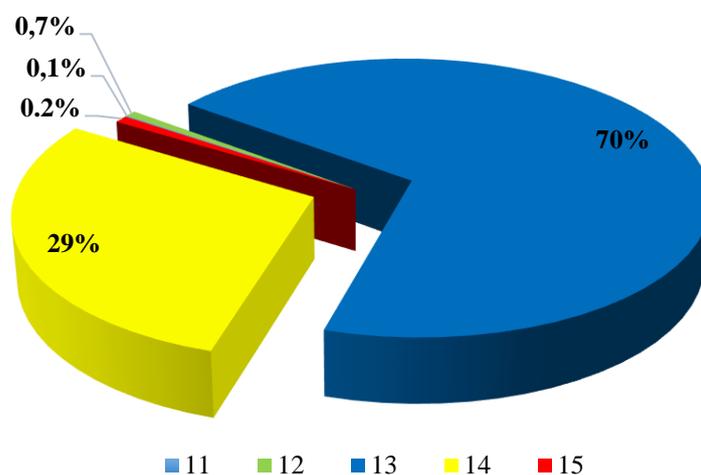
Graph 3. Age of students

In relation to gender, there are 53% female participants and 46% male students.
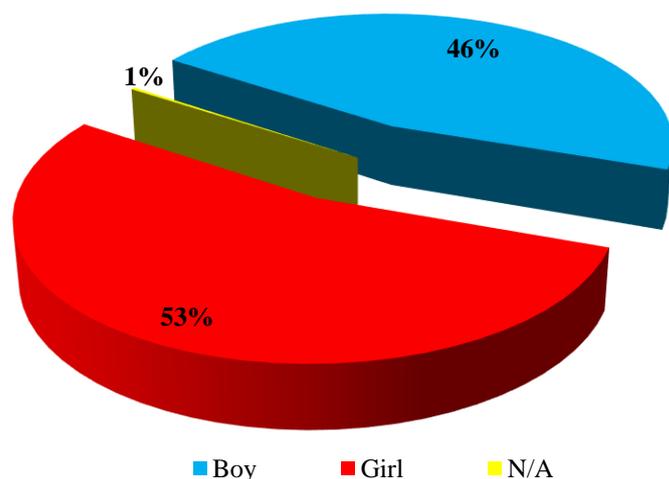
1% did not reply to the corresponding item (cf. Graph 4).

Graph 4. Gender of students

In terms of nationality, Spanish (95%) represents the largest number of participants, followed by Venezuelan (1%), and, finally, other (4%) (cf. Graph 5).
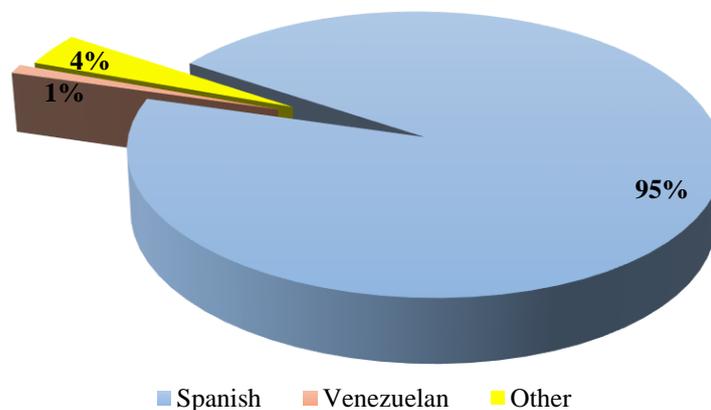
Graph 5. Nationality of students

On the whole, 86% of the students who took part in this research have had more than seven years of experience in bilingual programs. 10% of the participants have had less than four years of experience and 4% have had from four to six years of experience in bilingual education (cf. Graph 6).
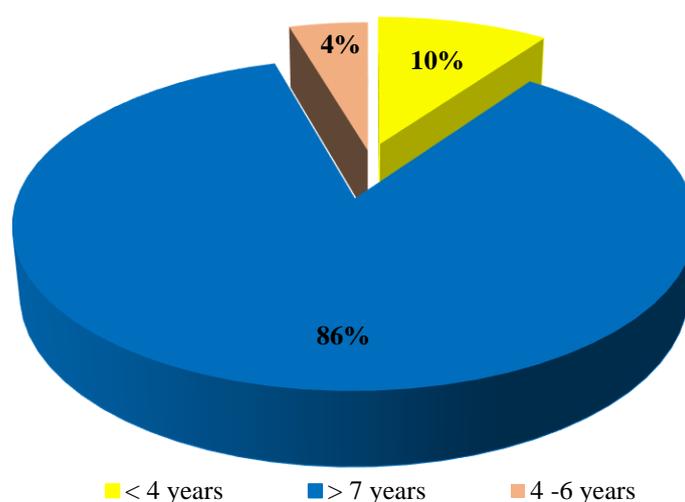
Graph 6. Years of bilingual section experience

With respect to the number of subjects taught in English, it varies from one school to another. It is obvious that all the bilingual schools respect the regulations of the *Consejería de Educación* with regard to not teaching Math or Spanish in English. Of the 18 schools that the author visited, each school had its own policy on how to select which subjects are taught to the students (cf. Graph 7).
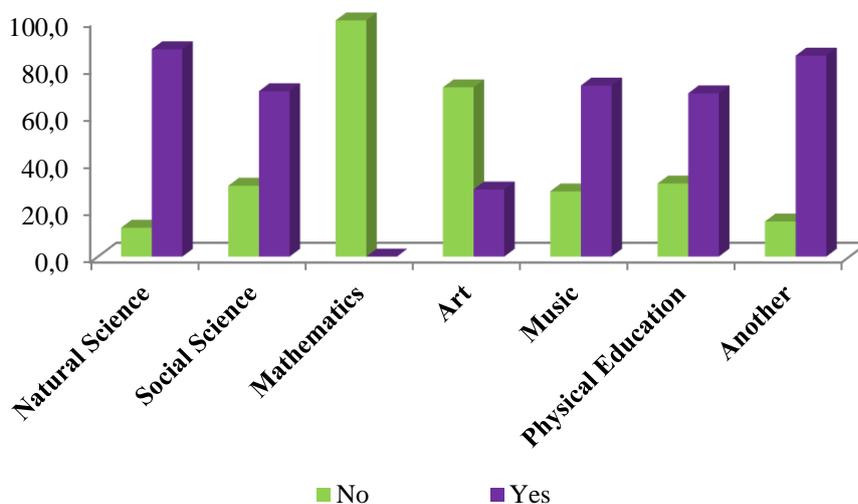
Graph 7. Subjects students take in English

As to the exposure to English in the bilingual sections, the data gathered from the corresponding question in the student questionnaire was insufficient. Fortunately, learners gave some information about this in the interview protocol. Also, the classroom observation provided a clear idea about the percentages of English use in the classroom (cf. sections 5.5.2 and 5.6).

4.3.2.2. Teachers

As seen in the graph below, the split is almost equal: 48% of teachers belong to rural areas, and 52% of teachers represent the urban areas (cf. Graph 8).
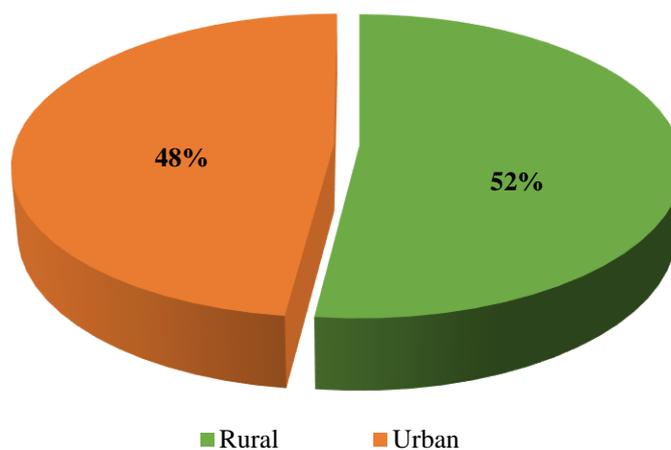
Graph 8. Breakdown of teachers in relation to school setting

Congruent with the school type, the public schools represent 39% of the sample. Over a third of the participating teachers are from charter schools (34%), and the
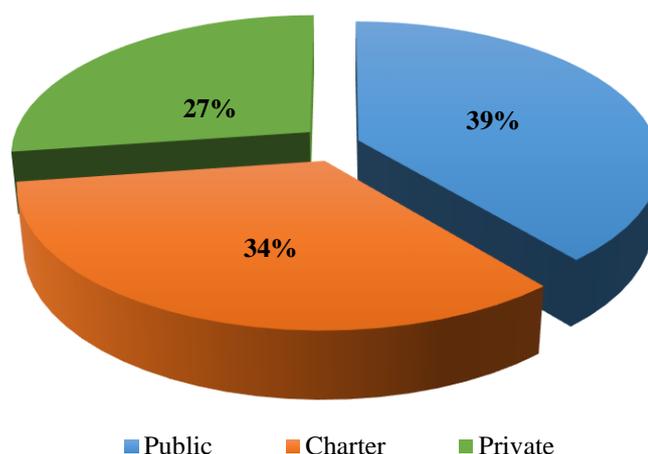
remaining (27%) are private schools instructors (cf. Graph 9).

Graph 9. Type of school

Concerning age, the majority of teachers (65%) are less than 40 years old or exactly that age. Contrarily, slightly over than a third of them (35%) are more than 40 years old (cf. Graph 10).

35%

65%

■ <=40   ■ >40
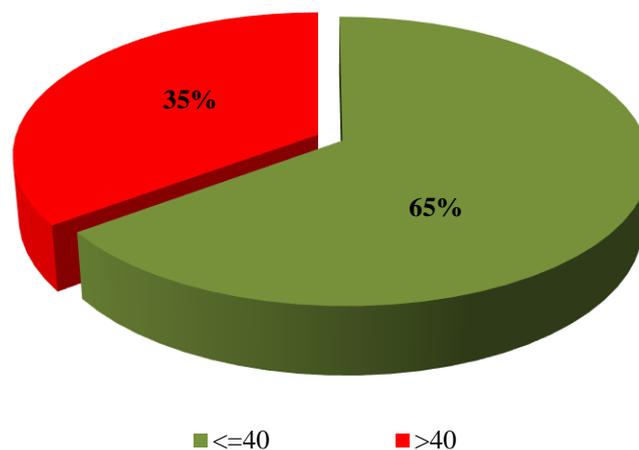
Graph 10. Age of teachers

Regarding the participants' gender, the sample is comprised of more females (58%) than males (42%) (cf. Graph 11).

42%

58%

■ Man   ■ Woman
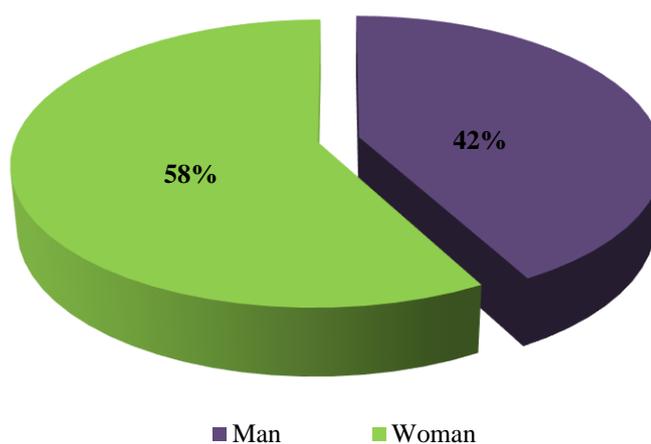
Graph 11. Gender of teachers

In relation to the teachers' nationality, the participants are of various nationalities: Spanish, North-American, British, or from other Anglophone countries. Spanish, with nearly 83%, constitutes the largest proportion of stakeholders, followed by North-Americans, with 11%. The smallest percentage of teachers were from other
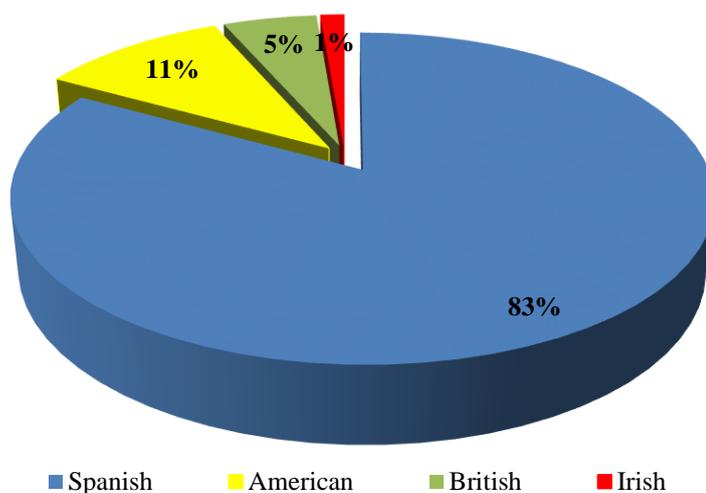
Anglophone countries, such as Britain (5%), and Ireland (1%) (cf. Graph 12).

Graph 12. Teachers' nationality

In accordance with the type of teachers, the cohort includes non-linguistic teachers, foreign language teachers, and teaching assistants, who belong to the bilingual sections of the three types of schools. The foreign language teachers (44%) and teachers from non-linguistic areas (43%) represent the greatest number of participants. The remainder are teaching assistants (8%) or other (5%) (cf. Graph 13).
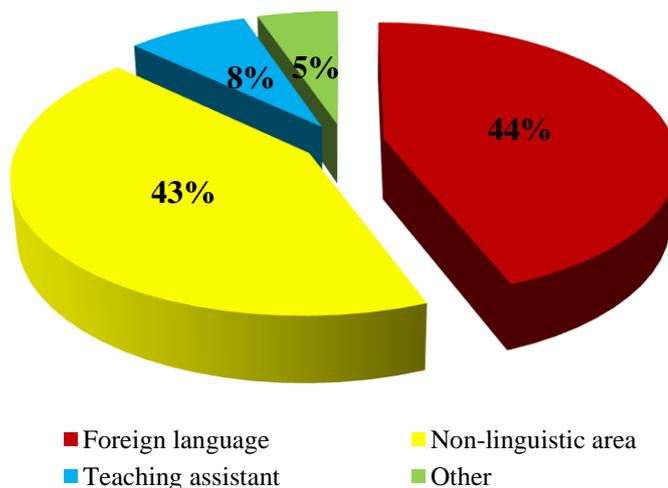
Graph 13. Type of teachers

Regarding the administrative situation of teachers, 55% of teachers gave no information about it. The other 45% of teachers identified different administrative situations, which included: civil servants (14%), civil servants with permanent posts (12%), supply teachers (12%), and teachers who are in another situation (6%). Teachers who were civil servants with a temporary post were only 1% (cf. Graph 14).
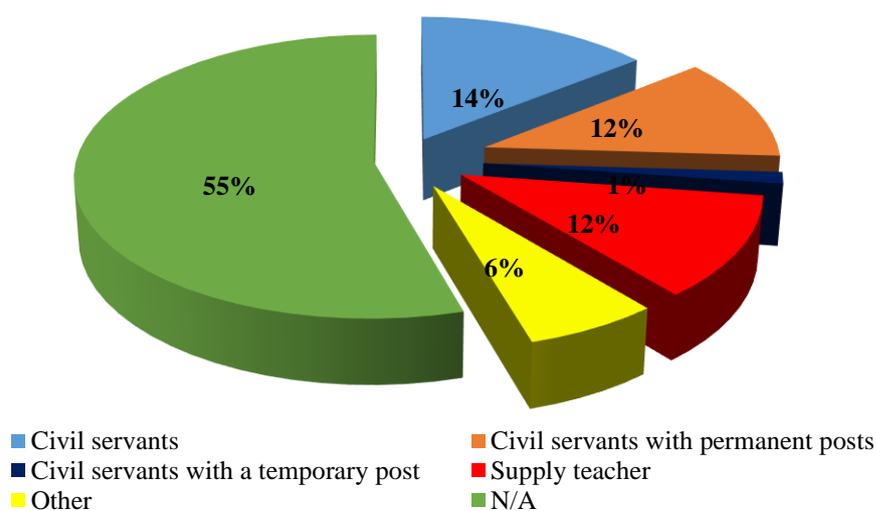
Graph 14. Administrative situation of teachers

It is important to note that although a large proportion of teachers are Spanish, most of them have a high linguistic level of English. Their level of proficiency is measured according to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages. The answers given reveal that 90% of the teachers are proficient users of English, as their level ranged between C2 (38%) and C1 (52%). However, 3% and 5% affirmed having a B2 and B1 level, respectively. To our total surprise (it must have been a mistake), one teacher replied that s/he had an A1 level (cf. Graph 15).
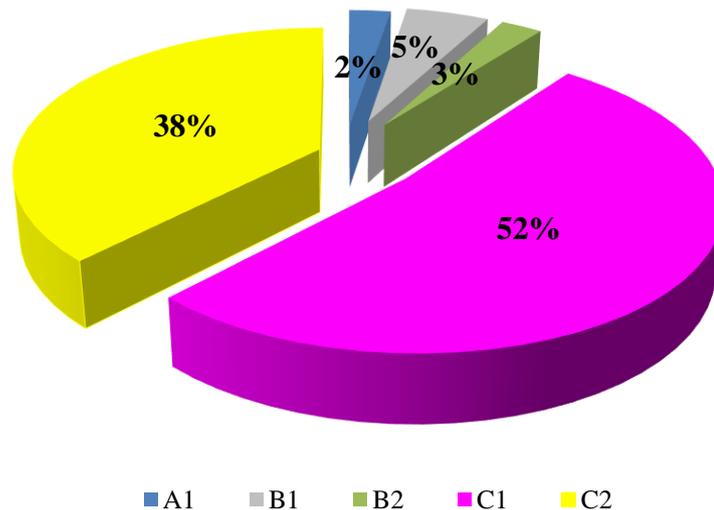
Graph 15. Teacher's English proficiency level

In relation to subjects taught in English and exposure to English by teachers of the bilingual sections, there is insufficient data to report on that question. Almost none of the teachers answered this question. Since they are specialized teachers of Compulsory Secondary Education, they may not have answered it because most of them teach only the content of one subject.

The majority of teachers (84%) are not coordinators within their program, whereas the remainder (16%) do coordinate the bilingual section (cf. Graph 16).
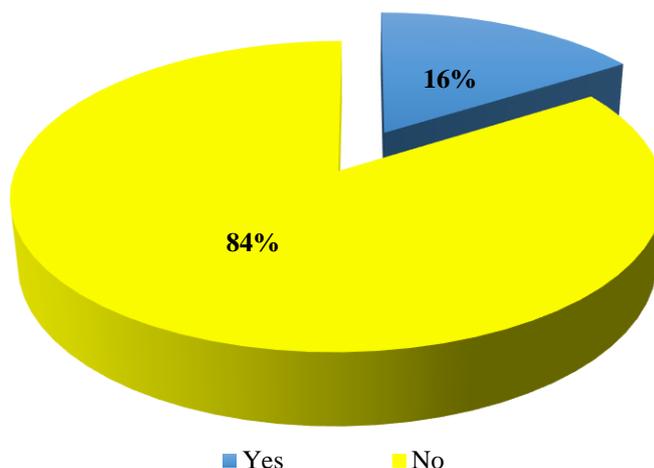
Graph 16. Coordinator of the bilingual section

In addition, the overall years of teaching experience of teachers vary: 52% of the instructors have between one and ten years of experience, 26% have between 11 and 20 years, 13% have between 21 and 30 years, 3% have more than 30 years, and only 6% have less than one year of experience (cf. Graph 17).
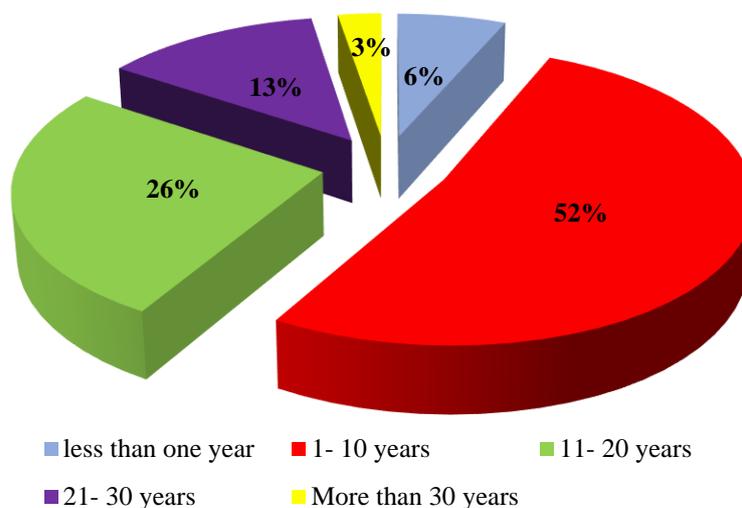
Graph 17. Overall teaching experience of teachers

Finally, teachers can also be grouped in terms of experience in bilingual teaching. The process of being a bilingual teacher gives us relevant and reliable evidence from which the teachers' viewpoints can be examined. As can be seen from the graph below, 52% of teachers have from one year to five years of experience, 26% have between six and ten years, 9% have between eleven and 15 years, 3% have more than 15 years, and 10% have less than one year of experience as a bilingual teacher (cf.

| ■ Less than 1 year | ■ 1- 5 years | ■ 6- 10 years |
| ■ 11- 15 years | ■ More than 15 years | |
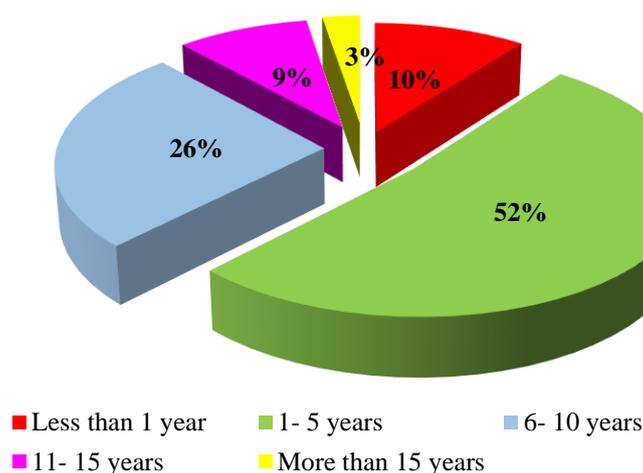
Graph 18).

Graph 18. Bilingual teaching experience of teachers

4.3.2.4. Parents

The sample of parents will now be considered. The findings show that the parents who participated come from the two different settings, urban and rural, in almost equal amounts: 47% urban and 53% rural (cf. Graph 19).
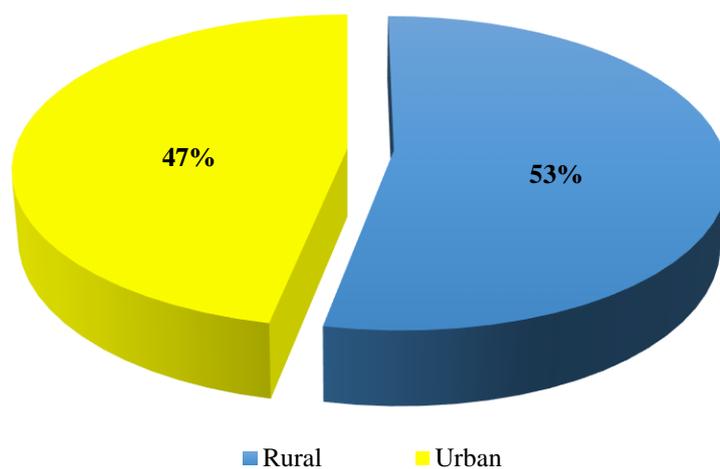
Graph 19. Breakdown of parents in relation to school setting

They also belong to the three types of schools: public, charter, and private.
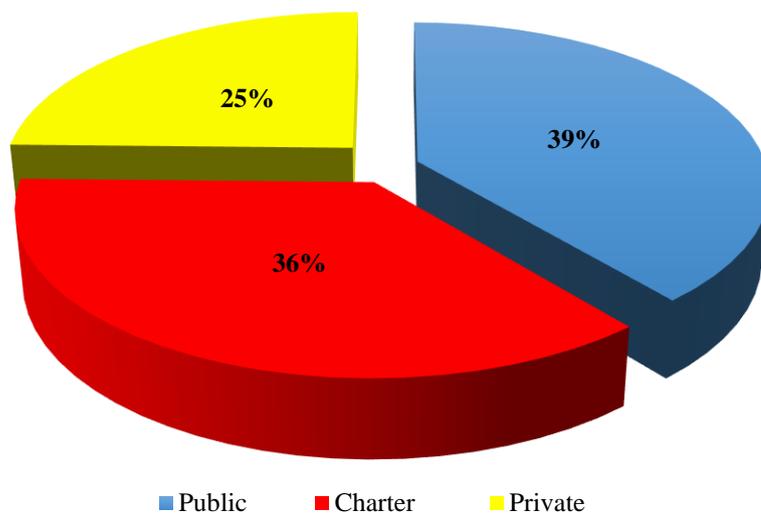
Parents at public schools represent 39% of the whole sample, an amount only slightly larger than those with their children in charter schools (36%). Private school parents represent only 25% of those surveyed (cf. Graph 20).

Graph 20. Parents in relation to type of schools

The majority of parents (60%) are between 40 and 50 years old, 14% are younger than 40 years old, 4% are older than 50, and 22% did not respond to this question about their age (cf. Graph 21).

- Less than 40 years old
- From 40 to 50 years old
- More than 50 years old
- N/A
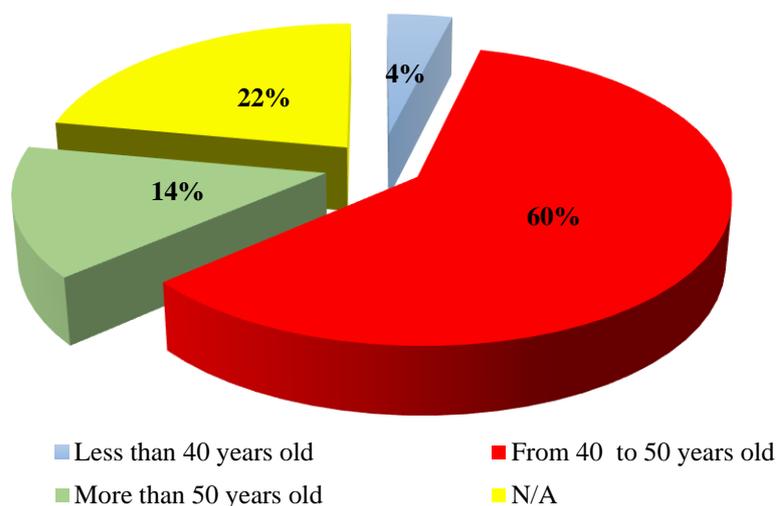
Graph 21. Age of parents

Regarding their gender, responses indicate that most of the participants are female (60%) and the rest are male (40%) (cf. Graph 22).

- Man
- Woman
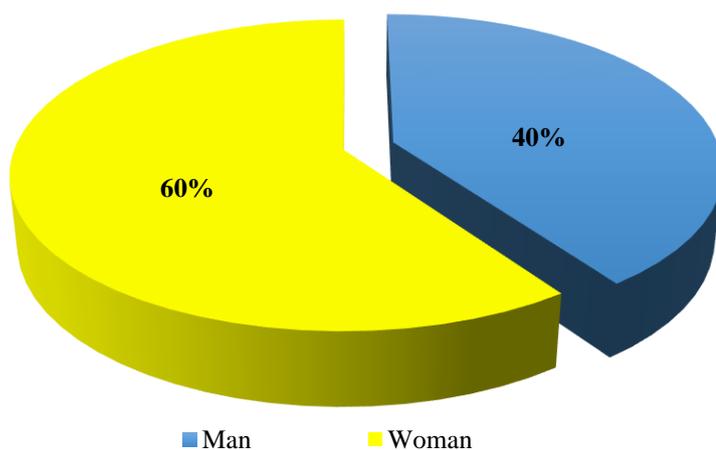
Graph 22. Gender of parents

The largest percentage of these participants are Spanish (96%); American, New Zealander, Romanian, and those who did not provide an answer represent 1% each (cf.

1% 1% 1%

1%

96%

■ American ■ N/A ■ New Zealander ■ Rumanian ■ Spanish
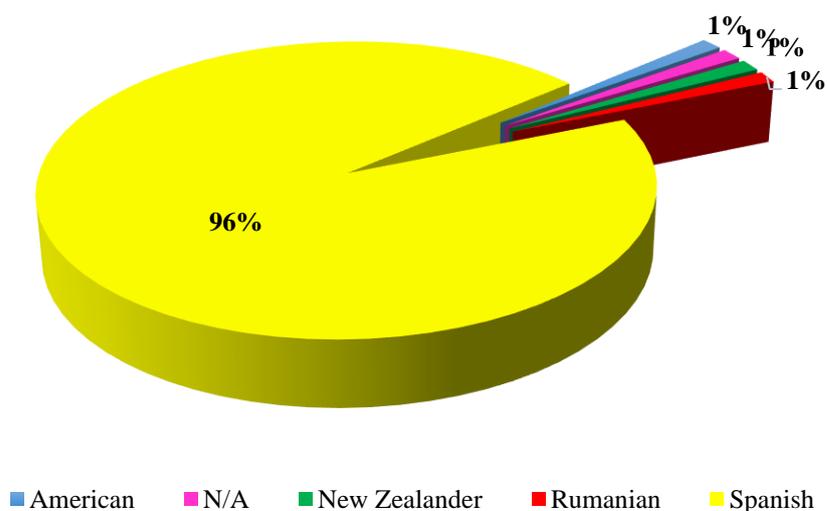
Graph 23).

Graph 23. Nationality of parents

As far as the level of education completed by parents is concerned, levels vary from having no diploma to a doctorate. The majority of parents surveyed have a university degree or a diploma (61%); 12% hold a baccalaureate certificate; 9% hold a certificate of Secondary Education; 7% hold a certificate of vocational studies; 6% hold a PhD; 1% have no diploma or degree; and 4% did not answer (cf. Graph 24).

Legend:
- Certificate of Baccalaurate
- Certificate of Vocational Studies
- No studies
- Certificate of Secondary Education
- N/A
- PhD
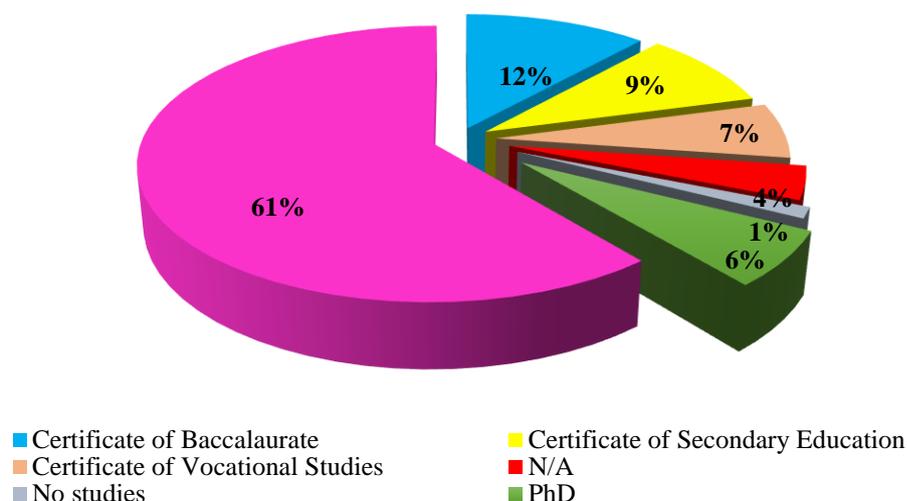
Graph 24. Level of studies of parents

4.3.2.5. Classroom observation

During the investigator's visit over the second term of the 2015-2016 academic year, 36 CLIL classes were observed —two classes in each of the 18 participating schools— in the second grade of bilingual Compulsory Secondary Education. Regarding the subjects chosen for this study, advanced English curriculum (foreign language class) and content classes were observed, especially Natural Science taught through English. Natural Science is the subject most often taught in CLIL in these 18 bilingual schools, except for two schools that do not teach it in English. In these two instances, the observation was conducted in the Social Science classes instead.

Thus, overall, the survey was conducted in 36 CLIL classrooms in total: 18 advanced English classes, 16 Natural Science classes, and two Social Science classes (cf. Graph 25).
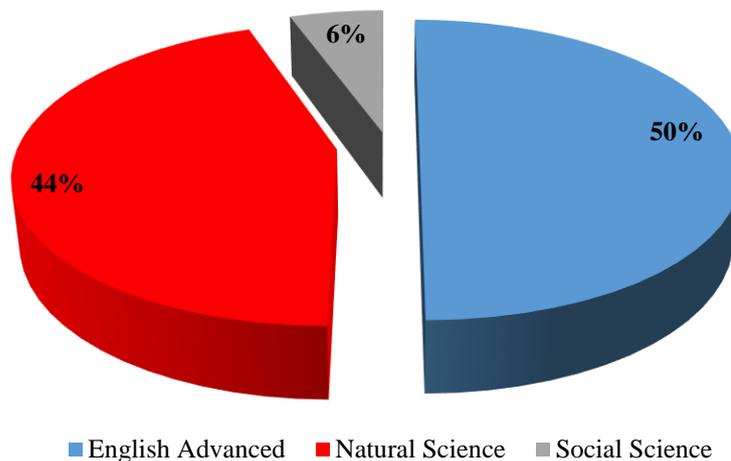
Graph 25. Subject observed

With respect to the type of teachers, it can be said, to begin with, that 36 were observed. They can be divided in these two groups: non-linguistic area and foreign language teachers. The graph shows that the number in each of these two groups of teachers is equal: 50% are non-linguistic area and 50% are foreign language or

Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL): A Qualitative Study in CSE in Madrid
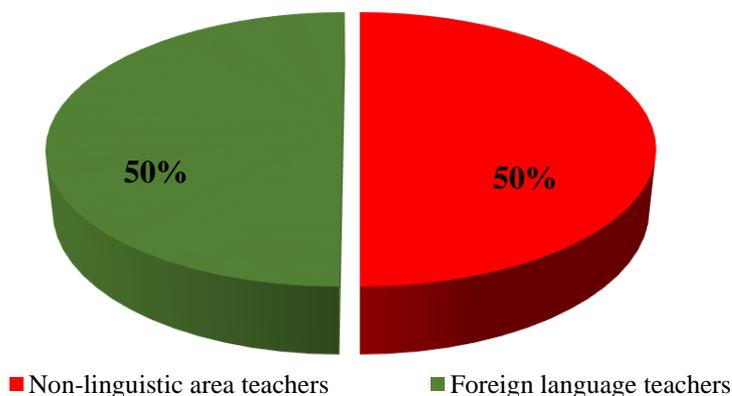
advanced English teachers (cf. Graph 26).

Graph 26. Type of teachers

Most of the participating teachers are not coordinators in their bilingual programs: 83% of them said that they are not, as opposed to the remaining 17%, who

17%

83%

■ No   ■ Yes
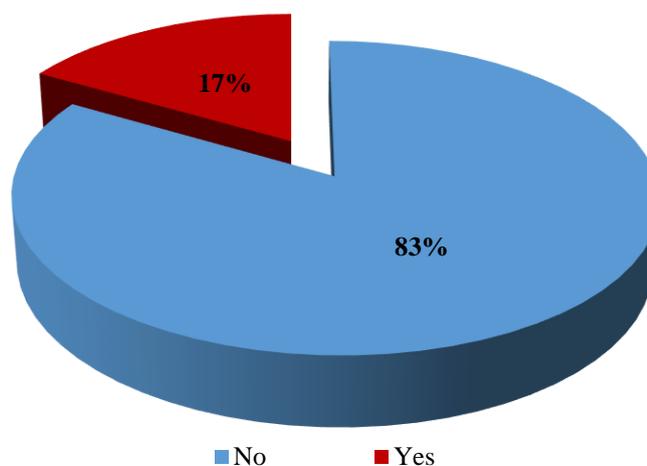
claimed to coordinate the bilingual programs at their school (cf. Graph 27).

Graph 27. Coordinators vs. non-coordinators

Examining the teachers' ages, the bilingual teachers can be classified in two groups: one of teachers who are less than or equal to 45 years old, who represent the majority of the participants (71%); and a second group of those who are more than 45

29%

71%

■ <=45 years   ■ >45 years
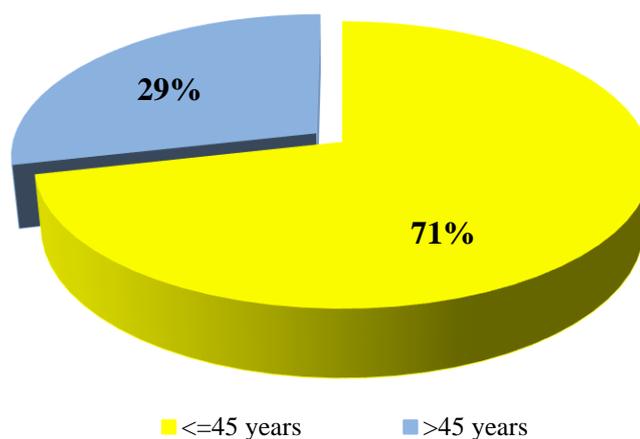
years old, who represent a third (29%) of the practitioners observed (cf. Graph 28).

Graph 28. Age of teachers

Regarding the gender of teachers, more than a half of the participants (61%) are

39%

61%
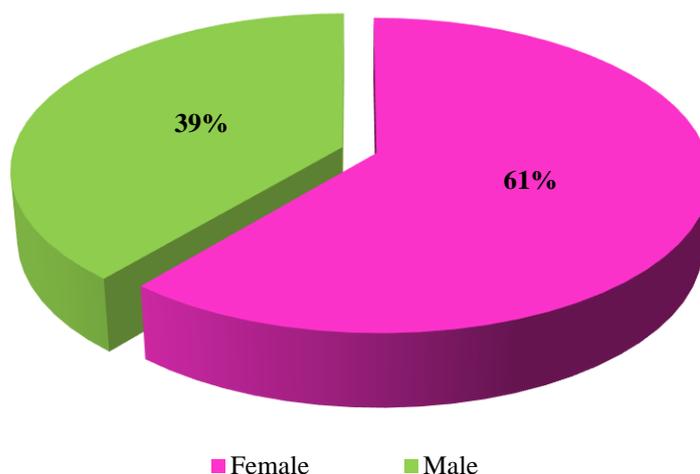
■ Female   ■ Male

female teachers, while only 39% are male (cf. Graph 29).

Graph 29. Gender of teachers

Regarding the nationality of the stakeholders, all 36 participants are from Spain.

Perusing the administrative situation of teachers, it can be noted that half of

teachers (50%) are categorized as others, 14% are civil servants with a temporary post,

14% are supply teachers, and civil servants with a permanent post represent 22% of the

participants (cf. Graph 30).

22%

14%

50%

14%

■ Civil servants with permanent post   ■ Civil servants with a temporary post
■ Supply teacher   ■ Other
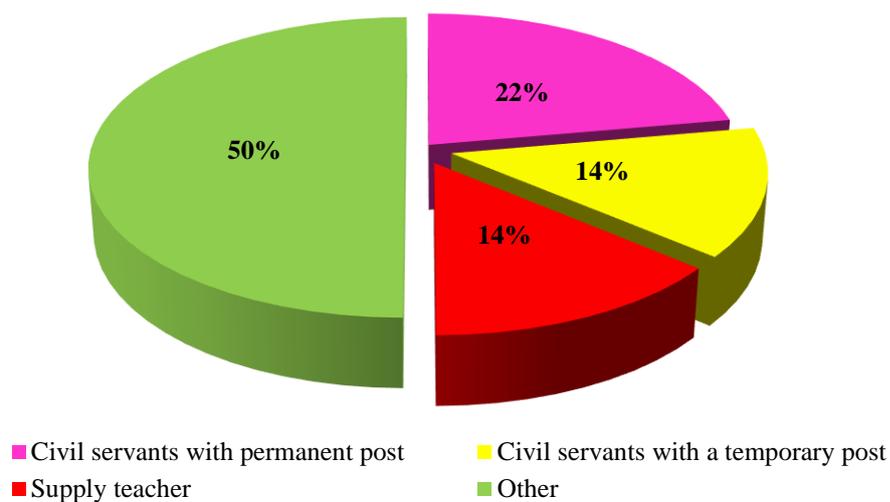
Graph 30. Administrative situation of teachers

In terms of overall teaching experience, 58% of them have from one to 30 years of experience. There is just a slight difference between the 11 to 20 year group (17%) and the 21 to 30 year group (19%). Concerning those groups with less than one year and more than 30 years of experience, they demonstrate an equal percentage of 3% each (cf.

3% 3%

19%

17%

58%

■ Less than 1 year   ■ 1-10 years   ■ 11-20 years
■ 21-30 years   ■ More than 30 years
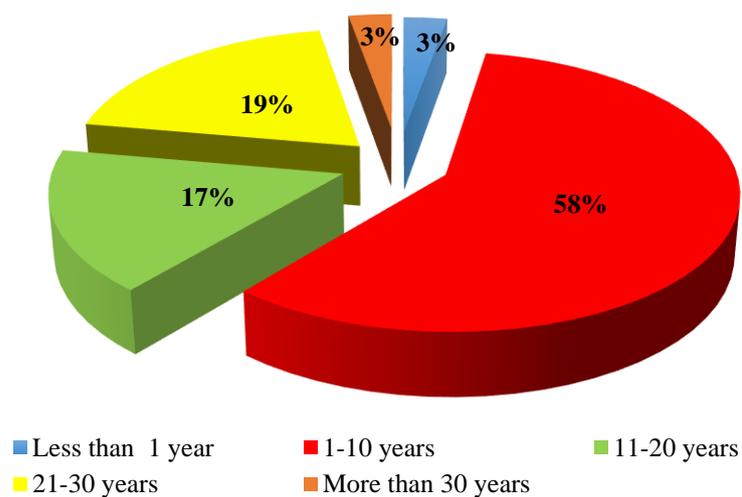
Graph 31).

Graph 31. Overall teaching experience of teachers

The graph below illustrating bilingual teaching experience includes roughly the same distribution as the graph above reveals, except for the last group. As for years of experience in bilingual education, 61% have from one to five years of experience, followed by 25%, who have from six to ten years of experience. Those with less than one year of experience and between 11 to 15 years of experience have equal percentages (5.5%). The last group, those with more than 15 years of experience, is the smallest one, with only 3% (cf. Graph 32).
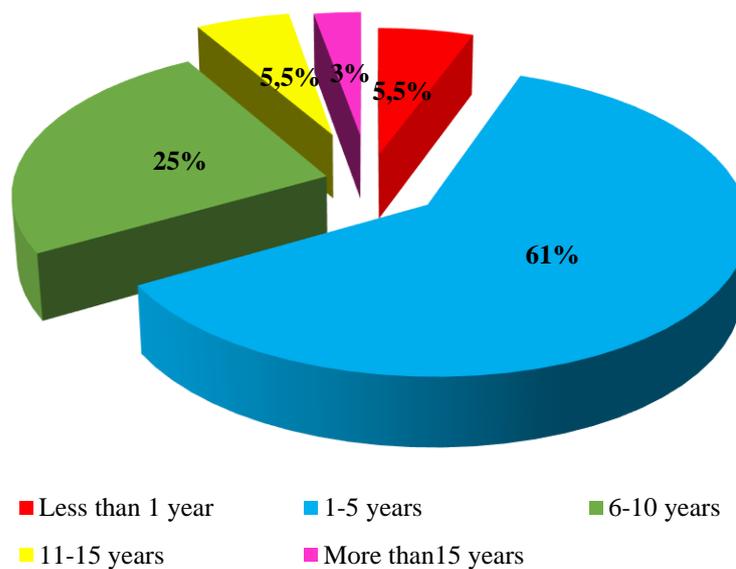
Graph 32. Bilingual teaching experience of teachers

4.3.3. Variables

A series of *identification (subject) variables* have been considered, related to the individual characteristics of the three different stakeholders who have responded to the questionnaire. The modulating effects exerted by these variables on the aspects considered within the teacher/coordinator, student, and parent questionnaires have been gauged via research questions 4, 5, and 6. The identification variables examined for each collective are specified below:

Students:

- Age

- Gender

- Nationality

- Type of schools (public, charter, private)

- Setting of schools (urban, rural)

- Years studied in a bilingual program

- Subjects studied in English

Teachers:

- Age

- Gender

- Nationality

- Type of teacher (foreign language teachers, non-linguistic area teachers, and teaching assistants)

- Administrative situation of teachers (civil servant with permanent destination, civil servant with provisional destination, intern)

- English level (measured through the official certificates, their personal view of their level, previous experience in mobility programs such as language programs abroad, or participation in teacher exchange programs)

- Bilingual coordinator

- Overall teaching experience

- Years of teaching experience in bilingual education

- Type of schools (public, charter, private)

- Setting of schools (urban, rural)

Parents:

- Age

- Gender

- Nationality

- Level of studies of parents (degree and diploma)

- Type of schools (public, charter, private)

- Setting of schools (urban, rural).

4.3.4. Instruments

The instruments of the sample are a battery of tools designed by Pérez Cañado as part of two research projects, entitled *Los Efectos del Aprendizaje Integrado de Contenidos y Lenguas Extranjeras en Comunidades Monolingües: Un Estudio Longitudinal (FFI2012-32221)* and *The effects of Content and Language Integrated Learning in monolingual communities: A large-scale evaluation (P12-HUM-2348).* They have been funded by the Spanish Ministry of Economy and Competitiveness, and the Andalusian regional government, respectively. The instruments used were questionnaires, interviews and classroom observation protocols. These qualitative research tools have already been used in other studies in Spain. For example, Pérez Cañado (2016c, p. 93) has cited several MA students' research for using the same instruments:

"Stakeholder perspectives on CLIL development in a monolingual context: The case of Jaén" by Nina K. Lancaster; "A SWOT analysis of CLIL implementation: A case study in the province of Jaén" by María del Mar Gálvez Gómez; and "Stakeholder

perspectives on CLIL functioning: A SWOT Analysis in the province of Jaén" by Javier Espejo López.

These methods are considered to be standard and be able to provide the necessary data to perform a descriptive statistical analysis. For the rigorous methodological reasons mentioned below, their validity and reliability can be confirmed. The justification behind our use of these instruments was twofold: first, they had previously been rigorously validated, and second, they were related to the main research questions targeted about CLIL in the region of Madrid. This doctoral thesis intends to be a replication of similar studies conducted in Andalusia, Extremadura, and the Canary Islands.

4.3.4.1. Questionnaire

The first qualitative instrument used to gather data is a *questionnaire*, which was designed and validated in Spanish and English, and in slightly different versions for teachers, students, and parents (see appendices I, II and III and Pérez Cañado, 2016c for the full final version of the surveys). In line with Patton's (1987) questions types, it included *demographic or background questions* to elicit biographical information from the respondents (which corresponds to the identification variables of the qualitative study) and *opinion or value questions*, to probe the respondents' thoughts, reactions, attitudes, and outlook on the CLIL programs in which they are partaking.

The former types of questions were *fill-in* and *short-answer* (following Brown's, 2001 typology) and the latter, *alternative answer* and *Likert-scale* ones (from 1 to 4, in order to avoid the central tendency error). *Closed-response* items

predominated, for ease and speed of applicability, although some *open-response* questions were also included at the end of each questionnaire for the cohort to elaborate on those aspects they deemed necessary. This combination allowed the author to obtain general information in an objective and uniform way and obtain related follow-up details simultaneously. The interviews and observations complemented each other and combined provided complete data. The initial version of the surveys was carefully edited and validated via the expert ratings approach, providing opinions on possible problems with questionnaire content, vague directions, clarification or rewording of questions, missing information, specification of data, or length of the questionnaires. Furthermore, a pilot study with a representative sample (263 respondents) was conducted and the Cronbach alpha was calculated for each of its thematic blocks and for the survey as a whole, in order to guarantee its reliability or internal consistency. The extremely high coefficients obtained "0.940 for the student one, 0.931 for the teacher equivalent, and 0.895 for the parent survey", (see Pérez Cañado, 2016c, p. 87) allowed confirmation of the latter reliability.

The student's questionnaire contains 49 items built on seven important thematic blocks. These thematic blocks examine and evaluate the following factors: students' use, competence and development of English in class (13 items); methodology (4 items); materials and resources (11 items); evaluation (4 items); teachers' use, competence and development of English in class (10 items); mobility (3 items); and finally, improvement and motivation towards learning English (4 items).

In turn, the teacher's survey contains 60 items divided in seven domains: students' use, competence, and development of English in class (13 items);

methodology (7 items); materials and resources (12 items); evaluation (4 items); teacher training (15 items); mobility (4 items); and, finally, coordination and organization (5 items).

Finally, the parent's questionnaire contains 40 items pertaining to seven blocks: students' use, competence and development of English in class (9 items); methodology (3 items); materials and resources (8 items); evaluation (5 items); training and information (6 items); mobility (3 items); and finally, improvement and motivation towards learning English (6 items).

4.3.4.2. Interview protocol

The interview protocol, in turn, included several blocks of questions that complemented the questionnaire items. It was *semi-structured*, consisting of clear-cut questions aimed to further expose both the students and the teachers' perspectives revealed through the completion of the questionnaires. All the participating students and teachers were interviewed in groups and most of these interviews were audio recorded. However, a few schools refused to allow the recordings.

Student and teacher interview protocols (see appendices IV and V and Pérez Cañado, 2018a for the full final versions) were structured using ten thematic blocks parallel to the broad areas of the questionnaires: first, L2 use in class; second, L2 development in class: discursive functions; third, competence development in class; fourth, methodology and types of groupings; fifth, materials and resources; sixth, coordination and organization; seventh, evaluation; eighth, teacher training and mobility; ninth, motivation and workload; and tenth, overall appraisal.

4.3.4.3. Classroom observation protocol

Another instrument that was employed to collect data is the classroom observation protocol (see appendix VI and Pérez Cañado, 2016b for the full final versions). It was, again, parallel in contents to the previous two instruments employed and it was structured in the following seven broad areas: first, L2 use in class; second, L2 development in class: discursive functions; third, competent development in class; fourth, methodology and types of groupings; fifth, materials and resources; sixth, coordination and organization; and seventh, evaluation.

It used an ascending scale with four categories: "a lot," "sufficient," "little," and "nothing". Data were written up at the end of each visit, and then they were analyzed.

4.3.5. Procedure

This empirical study can be considered a timely study of CLIL/bilingual sections in the community of Madrid. However, there were challenges in conducting it. One major challenge was getting the opportunity to explain the project and what it was about. Many schools were contacted to request a visit, and sometimes the author was not even given the chance to explain the research proposal.

The project started by contacting all three types of bilingual Secondary Education schools, in both urban and rural areas of the region of Madrid, to obtain permission for a visit. Each school received a booklet, written in Spanish, in which the project was explained in detail. Permission was requested to hand out questionnaires to the three main stakeholders (students, teachers, and parents), to interview students and teachers, and to observe bilingual section classes.

Unfortunately, after more than a month spent waiting for responses from these schools, none were received. It became apparent that gaining access to schools would be one of the most difficult aspects of carrying out this research. However, in the end, access was granted to 18 schools in the community of Madrid, Spain. This was possible thanks to the help of the *Viceconsejera de Educación no Universitaria, Juventud y Deporte,* Ms. Carmen González Fernández. A few days after sending out emails to the principals of those schools, permission was granted to carry out this empirical study in their institutions.

Most of the schools which became part of this study offered a great deal of help gathering rich data about CLIL/bilingual programs. Once access was granted to a school, we were put in contact with the heads of the bilingual programs. They provided us with extensive information about how their program works. Together, arrangements were made vis-à-vis when, where, and with whom we would be working. In addition, they provided a reliable summary about the history of the implementation of the bilingual project in their schools.

Consequently, we were able to gather a lot of important information and specific data about CLIL in each of these institutions.

As mentioned above, visits were made to public, charter, and private schools in both urban and rural areas. Thanks to the help of Mr. David Cervera Olivares*, Subdirector General de Programas de Innovación Dirección General de Innovación, Becas y Ayudas a la Educación Consejería de Educación, Juventud y Deporte, Madrid, Spain*, schools participating in the bilingual program project could be sampled. All the urban schools were located in different areas of Madrid, with different access to metro

stations for ease of researcher access and with varying socio-economic populations. The rural schools selection was based on reasonable access to public transportation for the researcher.

Large population towns were avoided because they are not considered rural, for example, Fuenlabrada, Leganés, Alcalá de Henares, Torrejón and Villalba. They are considered medium city environments, given the size of the population. Also, it was very difficult to find many rural bilingual schools. There are Primary schools in rural areas of Madrid, but few Secondary schools, which we were able to secure for participation near the end of the data collection phase of the study. In Madrid, there are a total of 110 public bilingual schools but only 98 offer Compulsory Secondary Education (CSE) and most of them are urban schools (Cervera Olivares*, Subdirector General de Programas de Innovación Dirección General de Innovación, Becas y Ayudas a la Educación Consejería de Educación, Juventud y Deporte, Madrid, España, personal communication).*

The charter schools selection was complex, as only 17 offer bilingual education in English in Secondary Education. Fortunately, urban charter schools were easier to access in the capital of Madrid as compared to rural charter schools.

When requesting access to centers of private education, two important organizations that coordinate private education centers were contacted and asked for advice about whether this study would be of use to those centers with a British curriculum. They responded that their curriculum is not the same as the one of the bilingual program project of the community. The British curriculum does not follow the language learning regulations of the Ministry of Education. In the end, only a few

private schools had suitable characteristics for the study, as compared to public and charter schools. Still, we requested to visit them and were well received by their head teachers.

Implementation with the instruments began, focusing on evaluating CLIL instruction in the bilingual schools in the region of Madrid. Qualitative data and reliable information were gathered on the perceptions and experiences of bilingual teachers, bilingual students, and their parents.

Since most of the bilingual schools available in the region of Madrid had just started teaching the second grade of Secondary Education with CLIL methodology, we focused on this group of mostly 12- and 13-year-old students. They came from three types of schools: public, charter, and private, located in both urban and rural areas. Although each school type followed its own policy and procedures to implement CLIL in the classroom, for instance, selecting which subject would be taught in English, they tended to follow the mandate of the Ministry of Education in Madrid.

4.3.6. Qualitative data collection process

This dissertation provides qualitative results from the participants' perspectives. The stakeholders' responses to the questionnaire items and interview questions (only teachers and students were interviewed), provided qualitative data for the study which reflected their perspectives and beliefs. Direct classroom observation was also carried out.

The resulting data reflect the three cohort groups' satisfaction with the program. Analyzing these data contributes to identifying the program strengths, opportunities, weaknesses, and threats.

4.3.6.1. Questionnaires

The questionnaire was given to the three participating stakeholder groups in this study: students, teachers, and parents. The questions were slightly different for each of them. Concerning the students' questionnaire, two classes in each school were sampled. The time allotted to fill in the survey was one hour in each class, at the end of which all the questionnaires were collected. The researcher was present in the classrooms when the students filled out the survey to provide clarification, when requested.

Teachers often completed their questionnaires at the same time as their students. If the teachers were unable to complete the questionnaires at the same time, they gave them to the researcher in the interview meeting, or in the researcher's next visit to the school.

Due to a variety of circumstances, parents posed a challenge in data collection. The researcher was generally unable to meet them personally, so the school principals or the teachers gave the parents the questionnaire in an envelope. They were then collected in the same envelope in the following visit to the school.

4.3.6.2. Interviews

Conducting interviews was the second way of gathering qualitative information. There was flexibility in the process, allowing further elaboration on each of the areas

of concern. The interviewees explained their ideas on the curricular and organizational aspects of CLIL programs. Specific interview protocols, in both reduced and extended versions, provided detail that corresponded with the questionnaire data.

All of the interviews were face-to-face. In the case of the teacher ones, an average of five instructors per school participated. The foreign language teacher, non-linguistic area teachers, and teaching assistants) composed each group (to foster a greater degree of confidentiality and trust) and roughly one hour per group was allocated to the interview process. The researcher recorded the main ideas, which came to the fore in the extended protocol, and digital recordings were made with prior authorization by interviewees. More often than not, they were interviewed at their monthly bilingual meetings, as that was the easiest way to accommodate the teachers with scheduling difficulties.

In turn, the students were interviewed in focus groups which stretched over approximately one hour per CLIL class. Each class was divided into two subgroups of 10 to 15 students each, with which an average of 25 to 30 minutes of discussion time was devoted to all the items. Subsequently, a global examination was carried out again with the entire cohort with the intent of foregrounding the main ideas and adding value to the experience. The information collected has been encoded to ensure data validity and consistency. Additionally, detailed discussion notes and digital recordings were made of each group intervention interview.

4.3.6.3. Observation protocol

Direct observation was employed as the third data-collection technique. An hour of EFL instruction and another hour of subject matter teaching in English were observed per school. The classes were not videotaped because nearly all the teachers refused to record their classes. However, direct observation was conducted through the aforementioned protocol.

A total of 36 CLIL classes of the second year of Compulsory Secondary Education were visited during the second trimester. Eighteen foreign language classes were observed by the researcher, as well as 18 subject content classes (cf. section 5.6 for further detail).

4.4. Data analysis

A range of techniques and procedures have been used to discover the reliability, validity and consistency of the data obtained. Central tendency measures such as mean, median and mode, and dispersion measures such as range, low-high, standard deviation have been calculated for the generic descriptive analysis. The mean scores and the standard deviation have helped us to describe results in a meaningful way. For the across-cohort and within-cohort study, the mean, standard deviation, R effect and p value will be provided in tables.

To make the contrasts of hypotheses, a non-parametric test has been employed, given that the categories of variables are ordinal. The Mann-Whitney U test has been applied in the study of qualitative variables with two categories such as gender and

setting. When the variable has more than two categories such as age, nationality, and type of school, the Kruskal-Wallis test was applied. From it, the effect size (Rosenthal's R) was also obtained to indicate how different the groups were.

Concerning the across-cohort comparison, the Rosenthal R test was deployed to to detect the significant differences among the three sample groups. The results will be analyzed and compared here according to the common items of the three questionnaires.

Afterwards, the interview protocols are analyzed from the perspectives of students and teachers. In this stage, Grounded Theory Analysis (Glaser & Strauss, 1967) is applied. It is a qualitative methodological strategy that helps to collect data systematically. It offers a clear description and explanation about the analysis. This method is used for coding, memoing, and drawing conclusions from students' and teachers' opinions, as well as from the direct classroom observation. Categorizing, synthesizing, and identifying emerging patterns in the open-response data are intended in these phases of the study.

CHAPTER 5

RESULTS AND DATA DISCUSSION

As has been shown in the previous section, all the information was gathered to pave the way for valuable results and discussions. This section will discuss qualitatively the findings and will make across-cohort and within-cohort comparisons. The chapter ends with a full exploration of the results of the classroom observation in terms of both the subject content and the English language classes, and how these data can or cannot synchronize with the outcomes of the administration of both the questionnaire and the interview.

5.1. Students' perspectives

Students' perspectives reveal that they see bilingual education or CLIL in the Madrid area in a positive way. In a similar vein, research conducted by Llinares and Dafouz (2010) also found positive attitudes and improvement by CLIL students. The data uncover the main achievements and the great progress they make in a monolingual setting, within both urban and rural areas, and in all three types of schools. The results provide insight into the following factors: students' use, competence, and development of English in class; methodology; materials and resources; evaluation; teachers' use, competence, and development of English in class; mobility; and, finally, improvement and motivation towards learning English.

5.1.1. Global results

In terms of students' use, competence, and development of English in class, the majority of students (91%) state that they either agree or strongly agree with all the items, except for items 4 and 11, with which, contrarily, a considerable percentage (53.2%) of students disagree; almost half of the students think that their mother tongue (Spanish) has not improved due to their enrolment and their participation in the

bilingual program (item 4), and nearly the same percentage (around 53.3%) of the students do not welcome the use of more English in the bilingual class (item 11). This last finding coincides with Lasagabaster and Doiz (2016, p. 12), who have posited that "As the younger students progress in their CLIL instruction, the importance they attached to these language aspects decreased slightly, although they were still deemed to be relevant". Students strongly believe that they are developing and improving basic competences in the classroom, and their English has improved. These findings fall in line with other researchers such as Madrid and Hughes (2011) and Lancaster (2016). Content knowledge and understanding of subjects taught have therefore improved due to their participation in bilingual education (items 1, 2, and 5). Learners (more than 86% learners) not only understand how the language works, and the connection between English and Spanish, but they have also improved in these concepts (items 6 and 7). High percentages (between 73.9% and 91.9%) of students have gained confidence because they are participative and enthusiastic within the CLIL stream, and they are interested in the bilingual class (items 8, 9, and 10). Regarding items 12, and 13, the vast majority of students (92.8%) replied that they have highly adequate listening and speaking, as well as adequate reading and writing skills in English. They have a high positive input and output of linguistic level. These results also coincide with Woore's (2015) findings. He found that in Madrid, "students' oral language production – both when answering teachers' questions, and when asking questions of their own – demonstrated an impressive facility with communication and command of the language, in terms of both syntax and lexis" (p. 4). Moreover, 81% of the participants admit they have acquired an adequate knowledge of socio-cultural and intercultural awareness in the target language (item 14) (cf. Graph 33).
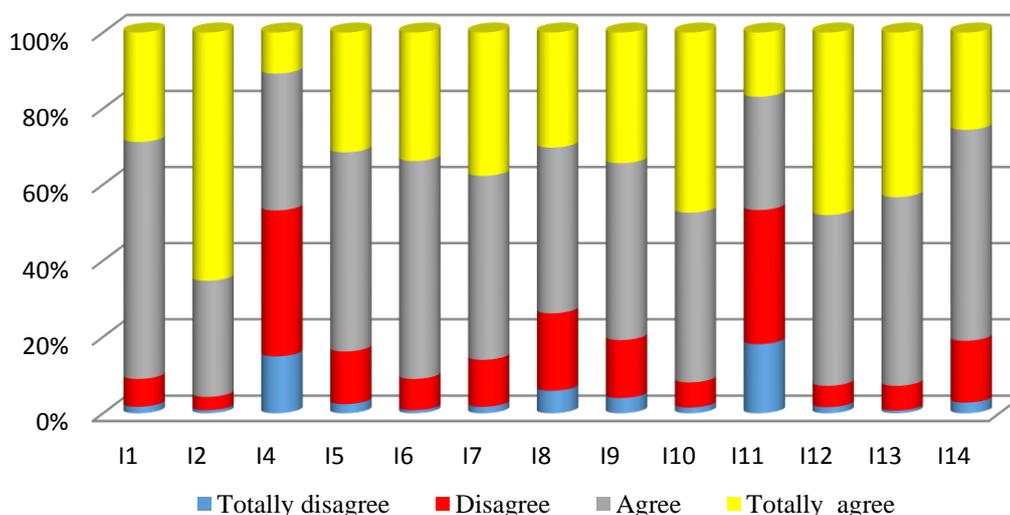
Graph 33. Students' use, competence and development of English in class (students)

In regards to *methodology*, a high percentage of students (between 79.2% and 95.1%) strongly agree that teachers develop a new educational methodology based on working in small groups to integrate content and language successfully. In the bilingual class, tasks, projects, and cooperative work (items 15, 16 and 18) are highly applicable by CLIL teachers. Simultaneously, students (92.8%) admit that they are learning more vocabulary in the bilingual class (item 17). All these findings to a great extent align with other earlier and current studies in some Spanish communities, especially with those by Cabezas Cabello (2010), Lancaster (2016), Oxbrow (2018), or Woore (2015) (cf. Graph34).
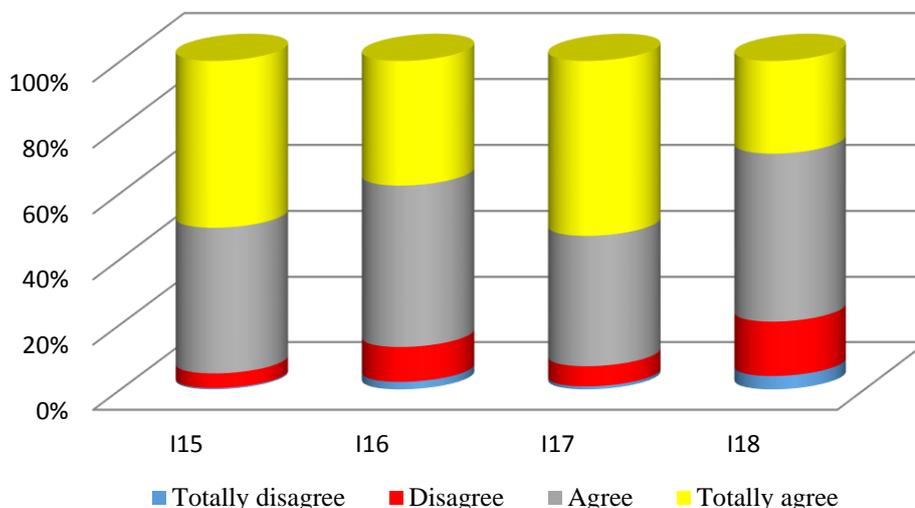
Graph 34. Methodology (students)

Vis-à-vis responses to the items about *materials and resources*, the data demonstrate that the rich variety of CLIL materials is supporting the process of sharing information, and resources are achieving the main purposes of CLIL. Indeed, the majority of students (79.8% and 76.8%, respectively) agree that teachers use and adapt authentic materials (items 19, 20), and a significant percentage (66.4%) strongly agree that teaching materials are interesting and innovative (item 21). In fact, 85.9% of learners agree that bilingual teachers work in collaboration to deliver the bilingual teaching materials in the class (item 22). Students (82%) state that bilingual teaching materials not only encourage them to communicate and interact in English in class (item 23), but for 73.3% of students the materials are adapted to cater to all of the students' needs and levels within the class (item 24). Regarding multimedia educational materials and on-line references, students' opinions vary (items 25 and 26). Blogs, wikis, and

webquests are generally used little by slightly more than half of students (54.5%) (item 27). However, the majority of learners (76.3%) assert that interactive boards are used in class (item 28), and only a quarter disagree. When commenting on the use of computer-mediated communication (item 29), a high percentage (61.6%) of the participants strongly disagree that this material is used in the classroom. Meanwhile, a 38.4% of learners agree or totally agree that they have had opportunities to use and work with this method of communication, such as eTwinning. These outcomes are in line with those of Cabezas Cabello (2010); Cabezuelo Gutiérrez and Fernández Fernández (2014); Fernández and Halbach (2011); Lancaster (2016); Lorenzo et al., (2009); Pérez Cañado (2018a); and Pérez Cañado and Lancaster (2017). These researchers also detected positive and negative findings concerning the use and availability of materials. They
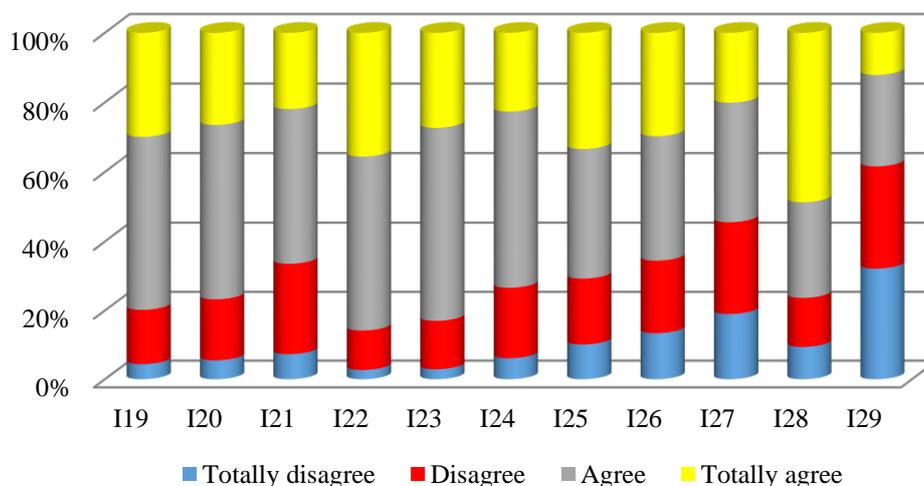
admitted that teachers' materials improve students' knowledge. Teachers work in collaboration to deliver materials in the class. However, they agree that there is a clear scarcity of technological equipment (cf. Graph 35).

Graph 35. Materials and resources (students)

Apropos *evaluation*, our research shows that most of the participants agree about the evaluation and assessment process that take places during their learning. Nearly all the participants (90.1%) affirm that all bilingual content knowledge learned is evaluated (item 30), and 70.9% of learners confirm that bilingual content knowledge in English is prioritized over English competence in evaluation (item 31). Furthermore, 77.6% of students declare that English oral skills are evaluated (item 32), and a large number (92.8%) strongly believe that both ongoing and final evaluation are practiced in the classroom (item 33) (cf. Graph 36).
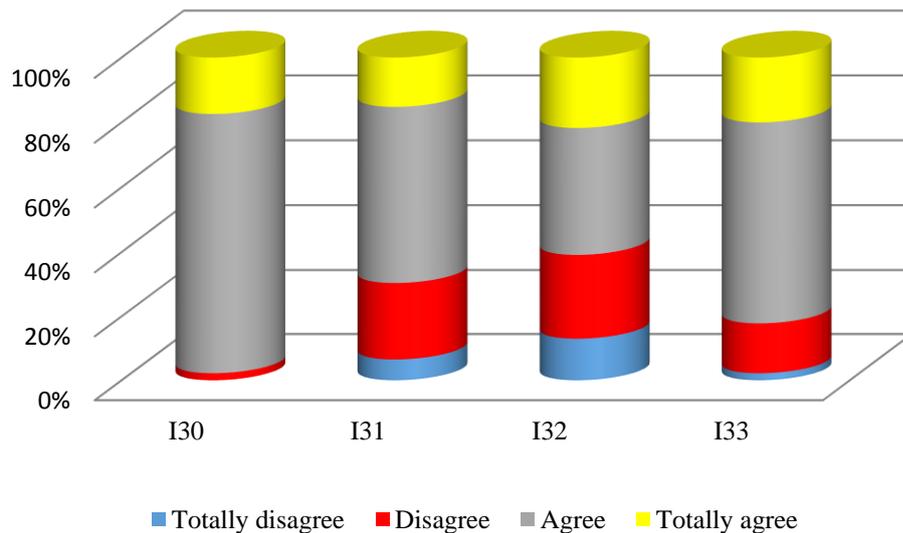
raph 36. Evaluation (students)

As for *teachers' use, competence, and development of English in class,* a large percentage (more than 82%) of students confirm that language teachers, non-linguistic teachers, and teaching assistants are successful in developing their classes (items 34, 35, and 36). Also, most participants (between 65.4% and 70.8%) hold positive opinions about the role of these three groups of teachers in motivating them, while only a third of

students disagree (items 37, 38 and 39). These perceptions coincide with those gathered by Lorenzo et al. (2009), and Pérez Cañado and Lancaster (2017). The overarching conclusions of their results revealed that students are very satisfied with all the teaching figures. In item 40, the number of students (79.1%) who agree that teaching assistants work successfully with them in the bilingual class increases. The majority of respondents (more than 87.3%) are in total agreement that their teachers have an adequate language level concerning listening, speaking, reading and writing skills in English (items 41 and 42), together with an adequate knowledge and awareness of the
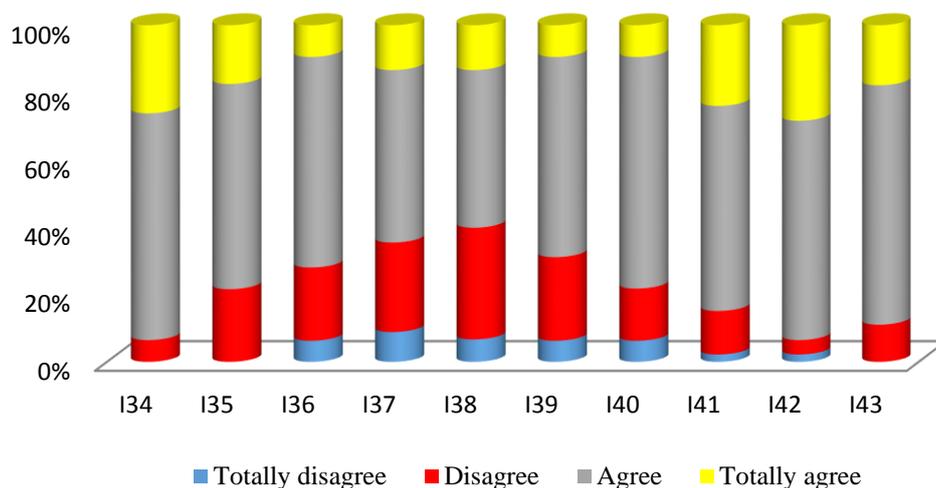
socio-cultural aspects of English (item 43). Gerena and Ramírez-Verdugo (2014); Lancaster (2016); and Pérez Cañado (2018a) reached similar evidence. They found that, generally, students are satisfied with all their bilingual teachers' English level. Their teachers have a high level of English and they are qualified for teaching content and language. They also revealed that some students considered that the teaching assistant plays a crucial role in developing linguistic skills and cultural aspects (cf. Graph 37).

Graph 37. Teachers' use, competence and development of English in class (students)

Regarding the *mobility* block, even though a large number of students (74.9%) have not participated in exchange programs within bilingual modules (item 44), between 58.6% and 74.3% of the participants admit having been encouraged to do so, either by bilingual education teachers or by their families (items 45 and 46). These findings are in line with those of Lancaster (2016) and Oxbrow (2018). They have demonstrated that there is scarce participation in mobility programs and that this area needs further attention. However, although there are insufficient exchange programs, students are eager to participate in mobility and they are encouraged by their families to do so (cf. Graph 38).
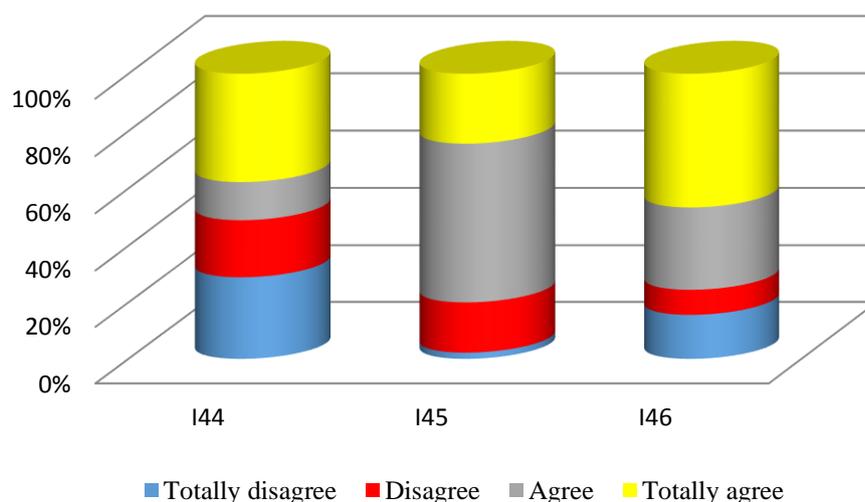
Graph 38. Mobility (students)

Finally, relating to *improvement and motivation towards learning English*, on the one hand, the vast majority of students (85.8%) are in agreement that taking part in bilingual education increases the workload of learning (item 47). On the other hand, there are very positive attitudes reported by the students vis-à-vis the remaining items.

Nearly all of the participants (92.4%) report that there has been an overall improvement in their English (item 48). In addition, 83.2% of students see that their motivation
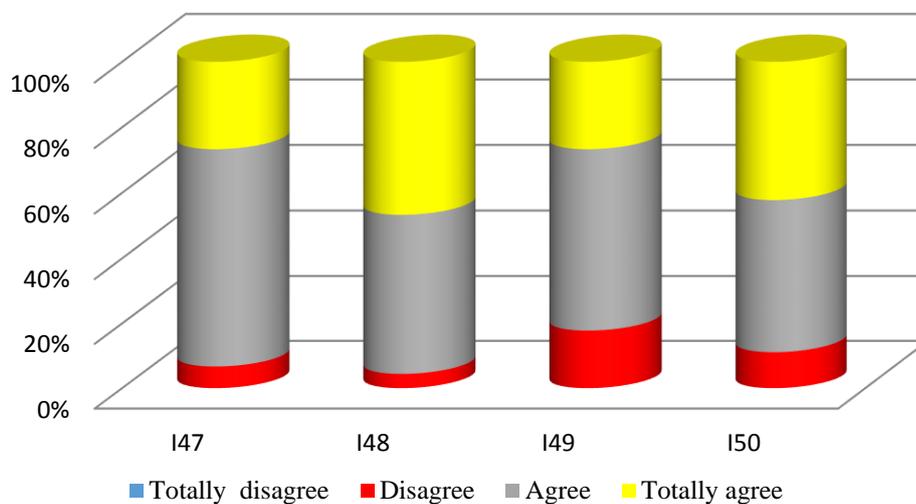
towards learning it has increased due to their participation in a bilingual program (item 49). These perceptions coincide with research by Gerena and Ramírez-Verdugo (2014) and Lasagabaster and Doiz (2016) with CLIL Secondary students in both Madrid and the Basque Country, respectively, as it has shown students' English improvement and high motivation towards learning in a bilingual or a multilingual education class. Finally, the cohort sampled (77.4%) asserted that they have adequate access to English materials outside school (item 50) (cf. Graph 39).

Graph 39. Improvement and motivation towards learning English (students)

5.1.2. Specific results

The analysis shows that there are statistically significant differences concerning most of the variables because the p value in those cases is less than .05 (p < .05). Statistically significant differemces have been found within this cohort in terms of the

following variables: age, gender, nationality, setting, type of school, years of experience in bilingual education, and number of subjects in a bilingual program. Moreover, it is interesting to underline that the variable type of school in this test yielded the most differences (33 out of 50 items).

Starting with *age*, we have located significant differences between students of equal or less than 13 years old and students over 13. In the first item, the younger participants declare that their basic competences are developed, whereas other participants over 13 react oppositely. Interestingly, they would like to have more use of English in class (item 11). Again, students who are 13 years of age or younger acquire an extensive vocabulary in the classroom (item 17). With regard to the bilingual materials, the older respondents apply and learn with new technologies such as online references and blogs, wikis, and webquests in the CLIL class (items 26 and 27) to a greater extent. The younger learners assert that their teachers have a high linguistic level in English, especially in listening and speaking skills (item 41) (cf. Table 1).

	Mean		Standard deviation			
	<=13 years	>13 years	<=13 years	>13 years	R effect size	*p* value
Item 1	3.22	3.10	.627	.633	-.088	.016
Item 11	2.40	2.58	.959	.999	-.075	.039
Item 17	3.47	3.39	.666	.626	-.074	.042
Item 26	2.76	2.96	1.044	.896	-.084	.022
Item 27	2.50	2.69	1.033	.959	-.087	.016
Item 41	3.37	3.23	.730	.817	-.077	.035

Table 1. Statistically significant differences in terms of age (students)

In relation to *gender,* there are statistically significant differences between females and males on nine items. The mean is slightly higher for females. In these cases, the female students always respond more optimistically than male students. Girls consider that they have more capabilities and skills concerning the development of basic

competences, and they are more interested in the bilingual class than boys (items 1 and 10, p= .015 and p=.005, respectively). It might be for that reason that girls also welcome more use of English (item 11). Moreover, according to the girls, the bilingual teachers work in a collaborative way to prepare and design the bilingual teaching materials (item 22). They believe that all the bilingual content knowledge learned is evaluated (item 30). On the topic of teachers' use, competence and development of English in class, females believe that both language teachers and teaching assistants work successfully with the students, and that their teaching assistants motivate them, in contrast to boys, who responded less positively (items 34, 36, and 39). As for item 46, girls are encouraged more often to participate in exchange programs by their families than boys are (cf. table 2).

	Mean		Standard deviation			
	Male	Female	Male	Female	R effect size	p value
Item 1	3.11	3.24	.668	.592	-.089	.015
Item 10	3.29	3.45	.726	.622	-.104	.005
Item 11	2.33	2.55	.959	.975	-.113	.002
Item 22	3.12	3.25	.766	.706	-.083	.022
Item 30	3.25	3.36	.703	.646	-.075	.041
Item 34	3.08	3.23	.861	.715	-.076	.036
Item 36	2.97	3.12	.881	.821	-.081	.028
Item 39	2.71	2.87	.937	.869	-.080	.030
Item 46	2.88	3.20	1.027	.938	-.161	<.001

Table 2. Statistically significant differences in terms of gender (students)

As regards *nationality*, students who are from nationalities different from the Spanish one state that they employ both projects and multimedia software for learning in the classroom (items 16 and 25). They confirm that their non-linguistic area teachers work successfully in developing bilingual classes (item 35) and they have participated in an exchange program (item 44). However, Spanish students respond to the four items

less positively than their non-Spanish counterparts, resulting in statistically significant differences (cf. Table 3).

	Mean		Standard deviation			
	Other	Spanish	Other	Spanish	R effect size	p value
Item 16	3.46	3.21	.650	.727	-.075	.039
Item 25	3.27	2.92	.871	.965	-.081	.026
Item 35	3.39	3.10	.645	.802	-.075	.041
Item 44	2.05	1.74	1.026	1.017	-.077	.034

Table 3. Statistically significant differences in terms of nationality (students)

Within *setting,* we find statistically significant differences for nine items between urban and rural areas. In item 11, the students in rural areas declare they are interested in more use of English than those in urban areas. Rural students also develop projects and cooperative work more than their counterparts in urban schools (items 16 and 18). On the other hand, a higher number of students in urban settings affirm that they learn a lot of vocabulary and that both ongoing and final evaluation is practiced in the classroom (items 17 and 33). On the topic of *teachers' use, competence and development of English in class*, urban students admit that their subject teachers are successful in developing their bilingual classes and they are motivated by them (items 35 and 38), while rural students confirm teaching assistants are less successful in developing their bilingual classes (item 36). Urban students acknowledge that their teachers have adequate receptive and productive skills, and adequate socio-cultural awareness background in English (items 41, 42, and 43). In the urban context, participating in exchange programs is scarce, while most students who have participated in exchange programs belong to the rural areas (44). For item 48, it is evinced that the

urban students see more of an overall improvement in language learning than the rural students. These results are in line with other recent results in Andalusia (Pavón Vázquez, 2018) (cf. Table 4).

	Mean		Standard deviation			
	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban	R effect size	*p* value
Item 11	2.72	2.25	.963	.935	-.241	<.001
Item 16	3.30	3.17	.719	.725	-.093	.011
Item 17	3.34	3.53	.718	.590	-.128	<.001
Item 18	3.10	2.98	.774	.786	-.075	.038
Item 33	3.32	3.45	.745	.628	-.081	.026
Item 35	2.93	3.26	.853	.722	-.195	<.001
Item 36	3.13	2.99	.841	.860	-.089	.015
Item 38	2.80	2.92	.858	.850	-.077	.034
Item 41	3.16	3.45	.856	.649	-.162	<.001
Item 42	3.28	3.51	.825	.598	-.129	<.001
Item 43	3.17	3.33	.759	.689	-.106	.004
Item 44	1.92	1.63	1.071	.961	-.146	<.001
Item 48	3.36	3.50	.733	.637	-.093	.010

Table 4. Statistically significant differences in terms of school settings (students)

Pertaining to *type of schools,* it appears that the greatest differences were recorded in this variable. The majority of items belong to the blocks of *methodology, materials and resource, evaluation,* and *teachers' use, competence and development of English in class*. In general terms, statistically significant differences showed that the private schools are gaining ground in these aspects. These results are congruent with Madrid and Barrios (2018), who have stated in their research that the private group performed best.

In the private schools, the participants have declared that learning in a bilingual environment improves their basic competences and their Spanish, as well as their understanding of the connection between Spanish and English (items 1, 4, and 7). The

methodology related to task-based, vocabulary and cooperative learning is experienced more in the private context than in any other type of school (items 15, 17, and 18). Materials and resources for delivering academic acknowledgment and teaching through CLIL are available in the private environment with the exception of multimedia software, online reference materials, blogs, wikis and webquests, which are deployed more in the charter schools than public and private schools (items 25, 26, and 27). Evaluation gains momentum in the private schools as well, except in item 31, where the public schools prioritize, to a greater extent, content subjects over English competence in evaluation. Students believe that both content and oral skills are evaluated, and ongoing and final evaluation are practiced in class (item 30, 32, and 33).

Furthermore, concerning the block of *teachers' use, competence and development of English in class*, all the bilingual teachers were deemed more competent and successful in both teaching and motivating students in the private context (items 34, 35, 37, 38, 41, 42, and 43) than in public and charter ones, except in item 36, where students responded negatively. Students reveal that their teaching assistants are not as successful in developing the class. Students in the private schools have more opportunities to participate in exchange programs and they are more encouraged to do so than the students in the other two types of schools (items 44 and 45).

Finally, students enrolled in the private schools responded very positively that there has been an overall improvement combined with a high motivation in learning the language, while public and charter schools' students hold less positive attitudes towards these two last items 48 and 49 (cf. Table 5).

	School type	Mean	Standard deviation	p value
Item 1	Charter	3.14	.624	<.001
	Private	3.41	.606	
	Public	3.02	.606	
Item 4	Charter	2.39	.915	<.001
	Private	2.66	.833	
	Public	2.26	.813	
Item 7	Charter	3.20	.694	.001
	Private	3.36	.694	
	Public	3.11	.761	
Item 15	Charter	3.48	.604	<.001
	Private	3.56	.541	
	Public	3.32	.631	
Item 17	Charter	3.48	.697	.015
	Private	3.50	.575	
	Public	3.36	.666	
Item 18	Charter	2.96	.808	.033
	Private	3.01	.760	
	Public	3.13	.766	
Item 19	Charter	3.10	.740	<.001
	Private	3.22	.745	
	Public	2.84	.853	
Item 20	Charter	3.00	.749	<.001
	Private	3.12	.797	
	Public	2.81	.874	
Item 21	Charter	2.81	.896	<.001
	Private	2.99	.835	
	Public	2.65	.809	
Item 22	Charter	3.17	.773	<.001
	Private	3.33	.680	
	Public	3.08	.724	
Item 23	Charter	3.14	.697	<.001
	Private	3.15	.717	
	Public	2.92	.744	
Item 24	Charter	2.84	.882	.012
	Private	3.04	.777	
	Public	2.84	.761	
Item 25	Charter	3.07	.938	<.001
	Private	2.97	1.004	
	Public	2.76	.928	
Item 26	Charter	2.97	.989	<.001
	Private	2.81	1.071	
	Public	2.65	.939	
Item 27	Charter	2.71	.997	.006
	Private	2.46	1.063	
	Public	2.47	.972	
Item 28	Charter	3.48	.788	<.001
	Private	3.43	.842	
	Public	2.53	1.037	
Item 29	Charter	2.15	.964	.015
	Private	2.36	1.123	
	Public	2.06	.956	

Item 30	Charter	3.34	.704	.021
	Private	3.36	.632	
	Public	3.21	.674	
Item 31	Charter	2.95	.754	.001
	Private	2.77	.785	
	Public	3.02	.769	
Item 32	Charter	2.91	.989	<.001
	Private	3.35	.799	
	Public	2.95	.846	
Item 33	Charter	3.35	.706	<.001
	Private	3.58	.592	
	Public	3.27	.702	
Item 34	Charter	3.10	.854	<.001
	Private	3.35	.696	
	Public	3.06	.765	
Item 35	Charter	3.08	.840	.005
	Private	3.26	.723	
	Public	3.03	.798	
Item 36	Charter	3.15	.797	.032
	Private	3.00	.861	
	Public	2.97	.903	
Item 37	Charter	2.84	.950	<.001
	Private	3.08	.846	
	Public	2.72	.767	
Item 38	Charter	2.84	.864	<.001
	Private	3.07	.861	
	Public	2.72	.807	
Item 41	Charter	3.26	.831	<.001
	Private	3.65	.570	
	Public	3.10	.724	
Item 42	Charter	3.34	.758	<.001
	Private	3.68	.563	
	Public	3.24	.721	
Item 43	Charter	3.22	.732	<.001
	Private	3.47	.641	
	Public	3.10	.744	
Item 44	Charter	1.61	.942	.009
	Private	1.88	1.107	
	Public	1.80	1.005	
Item 45	Charter	2.41	1.031	<.001
	Private	2.80	1.002	
	Public	2.51	1.007	
Item 48	Charter	3.44	.715	.013
	Private	3.52	.627	
	Public	3.35	.688	
Item 49	Charter	3.23	.805	.048
	Private	3.29	.719	

	Public	3.11	.808	

Table 5. Statistically significant differences in terms of type of schools (students)

With regard to *years of experience in a bilingual program,* few significant differences have emerged when considering this variable. The group of students with more than seven years of experience show more positive responses than the other two groups of less than four years and four to six years of experience in a bilingual program. Students of more than seven years of experience confirm that their English has improved due to their participation in bilingual education, they are interested in the bilingual class, and they have adequate listening and speaking skills in the target language, while the two latter groups with fewer years of experience in bilingual education express opposite opinions (items 1, 10, 12, and 13). In terms of *methodology,* only one item (item 15) was significant for the respondents with less than four years of experience. They declared more use of tasks in the CLIL classroom than the other two groups. On the contrary, the first group noted the use of interactive whiteboard, whereas the other two groups noted the use of fewer tasks in the classroom (item 28). Regarding mobility, it seems that the students with more than seven years in CLIL are encouraged more often by their teachers to participate in an exchange program than the other students (item 45). Correspondingly, different results were found in the last items of the survey (items 47, 48, and 49), notably that the group with longer experience in bilingual programs had more optimistic attitudes. They claimed that although there was an increase in the workload, they felt improvement and they were more highly motivated towards learning and participating in bilingual education than students with less experience, who gave opposite responses. These results are in harmony with those obtained in recent investigations (e.g. Pérez Cañado, 2018d), which have evinced that

time of participation in a bilingual program is a crucial variable which impinges on student satisfaction. The longer students have been enrolled in a CLIL scheme, the more positive their attitudes towards its development, a finding corroborated also by our present data. Thus, it seems that time is pivotal for CLIL programs to fully take root, something which has been amply underscored in the official literature (cf., for instance, Hughes, 2010) (cf. Table 6).

		Mean	Standard deviation	p value
Item 2	< 4 years	3.39	.679	.002
	> 7 years	3.63	.573	
	4 -6 years	3.44	.746	
Item 10	< 4 years	3.26	.723	.015
	> 7 years	3.41	.664	
	4 -6 years	3.12	.729	
Item 12	< 4 years	3.22	.763	.033
	> 7 years	3.42	.645	
	4 -6 years	3.21	.808	
Item 13	< 4 years	3.07	.746	.001
	> 7 years	3.39	.601	
	4 -6 years	3.24	.781	
Item 15	< 4 years	3.30	.570	.004
	> 7 years	3.48	.591	
	4 -6 years	3.21	.770	
Item 28	< 4 years	2.89	.987	.018
	> 7 years	3.19	.988	
	4 -6 years	3.06	1.013	
Item 45	< 4 years	2.32	1.048	.034
	> 7 years	2.60	1.018	
	4 -6 years	2.30	1.015	
Item 47	< 4 years	2.91	.814	.011
	> 7 years	3.17	.718	
	4 -6 years	2.91	.947	
Item 48	< 4 years	3.31	.639	.014
	> 7 years	3.46	.674	
	4 -6 years	3.18	.869	
Item 49	< 4 years	3.18	.800	.027
	> 7 years	3.23	.775	
	4 -6 years	2.85	.857	

Table 6. Statistically significant differences in terms of years of experience in a bilingual section (students)

As for the last variable, *number of subjects studied in English,* interesting results have emerged in favor of the students who studied three or fewer than three subjects taught in the target language. Interestingly, they held more positive and optimistic beliefs than the students who studied more than three subjects in English. The participants who had three or fewer than three subjects taught in English improved their linguistic background and abilities and they were more interested in learning the target language (items 2 and 10). They claimed to learn more through tasks (item 15). In relation to materials of the curriculum and sources for learning, the same participants recognized that materials were authentic, interesting, and innovative (items 19 and 21). Their teachers collaborated in preparing those materials to fulfill communicative goals (items 22 and 23), employing digital equipment such as the Internet and interactive whiteboards for teaching (items 25, 26, 27, and 28). They also claimed that all the content knowledge learned is evaluated (item 30). Concerning the *use and the development of English by teachers* block, they documented that both language teachers and non-linguistic teachers motivated them (item 37 and 38). Furthermore, all their bilingual teachers had a high level and adequate listening, speaking, reading and writing skills in English (items 41 and 42). In fact, it is logical to say that students admitted these positive outcomes were due to being highly motivated towards learning through CLIL (item 49). On the contrary, students with more than three subjects taught in the vehicular language showed lower agreement with the aforementioned aspects. Thus, it accrues from our data that teaching a greater number of subjets through the vehicular language does not necessarily lead to a higher motivation. A smaller amount of subjects,

if adequately taught, can have a positive effect on learning, an interesting finding which educational authorities should take into consideration when setting up CLIL programs (cf. Table 7).

	Mean		Standard deviation			
	<=3	>3	<=3	>3	R effect size	*p* value
Item 2	3.68	3.56	.522	.631	-.084	.022
Item 10	3.45	3.34	.662	.680	-.088	.016
Item 15	3.53	3.41	.571	.615	-.088	.016
Item 16	3.31	3.18	.682	.744	-.081	.026
Item 19	3.20	2.97	.726	.819	-.136	<.001
Item 21	2.96	2.73	.827	.867	-.127	<.001
Item 22	3.30	3.13	.718	.739	-.123	.001
Item 23	3.17	3.02	.709	.730	-.095	.009
Item 25	3.18	2.81	.875	.983	-.188	<.001
Item 26	3.09	2.67	.943	1.010	-.202	<.001
Item 27	2.78	2.44	1.013	.996	-.161	<.001
Item 28	3.55	2.94	.778	1.031	-.306	<.001
Item 30	3.35	3.28	.714	.653	-.074	.042
Item 37	2.97	2.82	.859	.877	-.090	.014
Item 38	2.96	2.82	.846	.857	-.078	.032
Item 41	3.42	3.28	.735	.768	-.097	.008
Item 42	3.49	3.37	.708	.715	-.096	.009
Item 49	3.28	3.17	.778	.784	-.077	.035

Table 7. Statistically significant differences in terms of number of subjects studied in English (students)

5.2. Teachers' perspectives

5.2.1. Global results

The first block of *students' use, competence and development of English in class* shows that the vast majority of teachers acknowledge that there is a positive improvement due to participation in this bilingual program. Students (95.9% and 94.8%, respectively) are developing basic competences in the classroom and their English has improved as well (items 1 and 2). These findings are in line with results obtained by

Lancaster (2016), Milla Lara and Casas Pedrosa (2018), and Woore (2015). For item 4, more than a half of the teachers (63.1%) agree that their students' Spanish has improved due to their participation in bilingual education. Most of the teachers (79.7%) also consider that their students' content knowledge of subjects taught in English has improved (item 5). They also believe that the students' understanding about how languages work and their understanding of the connection between English and Spanish has improved as well due to their participation in bilingual education (items 6 and 7). In fact, according to the practitioners (89.2%, 94.9%, & 90.5%, respectively), not only are students confident within the bilingual class, but also they participate more and are more interested in English lessons (items 8, 9 and 10). About half of the teachers (45.2%) claim that their students welcome more use of English in the bilingual class (item 11). Students' competence and use of English in class, from the teachers' perspectives, are very positive. Teachers (between 87% and 91%) document that students have adequate levels in all the foreign language skills, such as listening, speaking, reading, and writing (items 12 and 13), in addition, 82.7% of teachers have adequate knowledge of socio-cultural aspects and intercultural awareness in English (item 14) (cf. Graph 40).
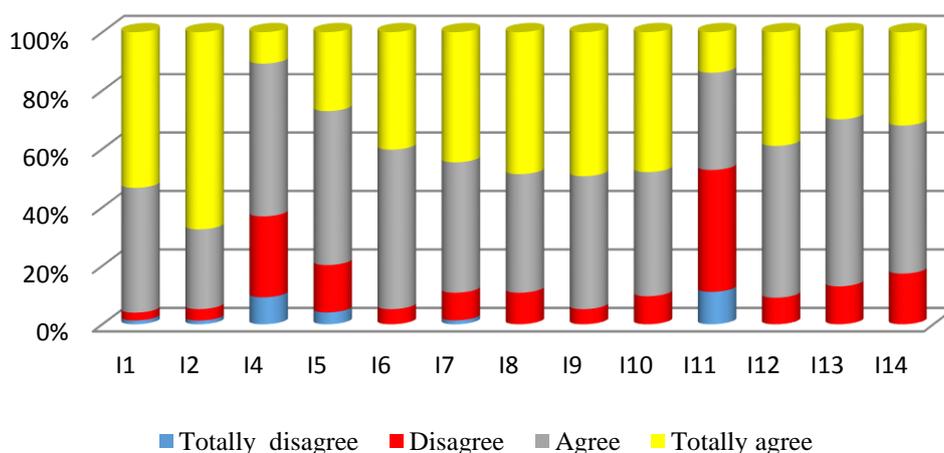
Graph 40. Students' use, competence and development of English in class (teachers)

In terms of *methodology,* outcomes are quite positive in all the items of this block, and they are aligned with other recent results in some Andalusian provinces (Milla Lara & Casas Pedrosa, 2018). Teachers apply and develop task-based language teaching, and project-based learning (items 15 and 16). A large percentage of teachers (72.5%) give priority to the lexical dimension in their classes, although nearly a third of them do not (item 17). No matter what the lesson content is, the majority (93.4%) of the teachers use cooperative learning by building team work in the class (item 18) as a useful strategy to foster positive interaction and provide effective participation. The majority of practitioners (72.4%) point out that the connection between the L1 and L2 is emphasized in the bilingual class (item 19). Meanwhile, a small number of them do not emphasize the connection between the two languages —this might indicate that bilingual teachers only encourage and provide input to the second language. Concerning the Recommendations of the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages, the vast majority of this cohort (85.5%) confirms that they follow them (item 20). Moreover, three-quarters of teachers (74.2%) follow the recommendations of
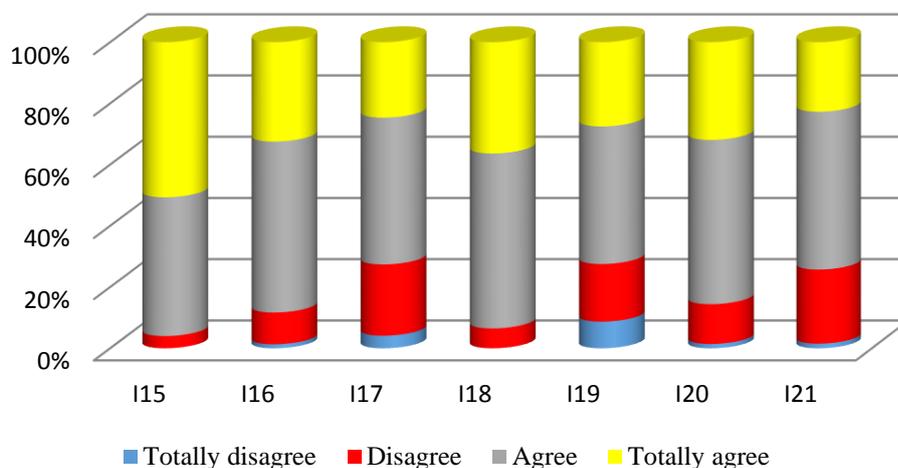
the English Language Portfolio, while a quarter of them do not appear to use it (item 21)

(cf. Graph 41).

Graph 41. Methodology (teachers)

With regard to teachers' viewpoints about *materials and resources*, on the one hand, we notice that a very large percentage (93.4% and 87.5%, respectively) of them respond that they use and adapt authentic materials for bilingual teaching (items 22 and 23). For them, these materials are interesting and innovative (item 24). A large percentage of bilingual teachers (93.4%) work in collaboration to prepare and deliver these kinds of materials (item 25), which they think follow communicative principles (item 26) and 72.6% of teachers agree that these materials are adapted to all the students' needs (item 27). Similarly, the majority of teachers (between 90.8% and 80.5%) place emphasis on the use of digital technologies such as multimedia (software) and online references as new and modern materials. They use these materials to make their lessons more dynamic and create a meaningful way to recover communication and develop the process of understanding (items 28 and 29). However, slightly more than a third (35.2%) of these respondents do not use digital or electronic materials such as blogs, wikis and webquests, or interactive whiteboards (items 30 and 31). In contrast, most of them (59.3%) do not use computer-mediated communication in class, such as eTwinning (item 32). This accords with outcomes of prior investigations (e.g.

Lancaster, 2016; Pérez Cañado, 2018a) and points to the need to step up the presence of telecollaboration in CLIL classrooms (O'Dowd, 2018). The materials that they use
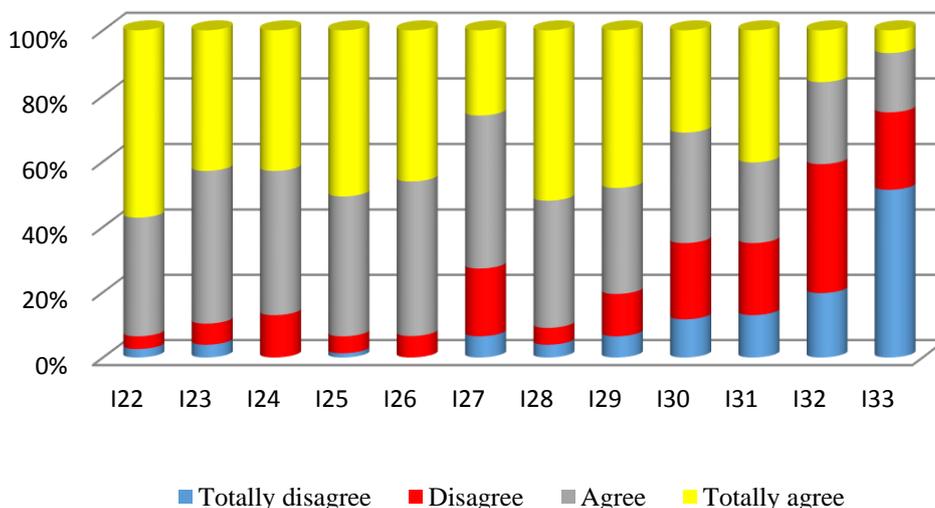
rarely include guidelines in Spanish so that parents can help their children at home (item 33) (cf. Graph 42).

Graph 42. Materials and resources (teachers)

In terms of *evaluation,* most instructors (between 80.6% and 94.7%) agreed with the statements of the survey to a greater or lesser extent. They believe that they assess all contents taught in bilingual education (item 34) and prioritize content and knowledge over linguistic competences (item 35). They do not forget about the oral dimension when they carry out their evaluation (item 36), which is diverse, formative, summative, and holistic (item 37). These results are in agreement with the ones attained by Lancaster (2016), Milla Lara and Casas Pedrosa (2018), and Pérez Cañado (2018a). For example, Milla Lara and Casas Pedrosa (2018, p. 173) have reported that "teachers consider that all contents are assessed, contents are prioritised over linguistic aspects, and evaluation is diverse, formative, summative, and holistic". The only contrast with

our results is that the researchers detected less attention to the assessment of the oral component, which did not occur with the teachers of Madrid (cf. Graph 43).
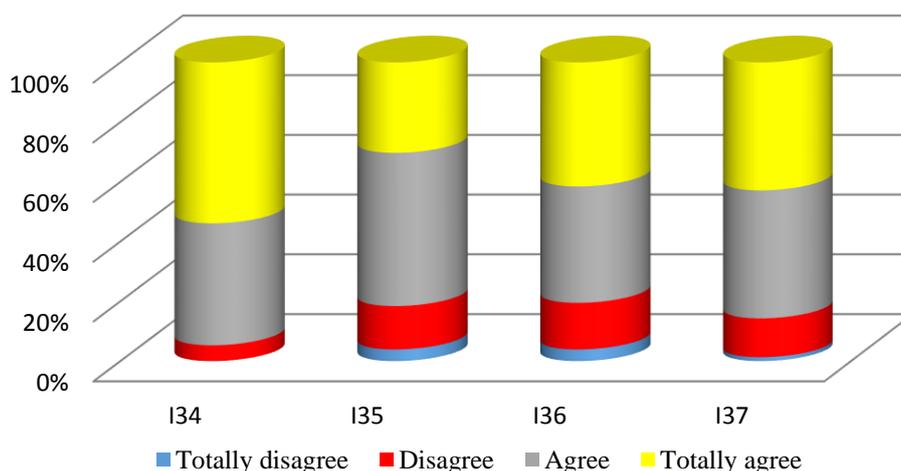
Graph 43. Evaluation (teachers)

As for *teacher training,* more than 75% of respondents believe that all teachers, language teachers, subject teachers, and teaching assistants, need training (items 38, 39 and 40). Our findings coincide with those results obtained by Cabezuelo Gutiérrez and Fernández Fernández (2014), Evnitskaya and Morton (2011), Fernández Fernández et al. (2005), Fernández and Halbach (2011), and Pena Díaz and Porto Requejo (2008). These authors also conclude that CLIL teachers in Madrid need further training. Non-linguistic area teachers acknowledge that they motivate students to learn English through content (item 42). More than 90% of teachers agree that both language teachers and teaching assistants report that they have high capabilities to motivate and to work successfully with students (item 41 and 43). In this regard, Gerena and Ramírez-Verdugo (2014) also revealed that "both teachers and language assistants felt [the things

that] were most successful were student motivation and interest in becoming bilingual in general" (p. 225). A high percentage of teachers (between 91.9% and 93.2%) agree or totally agree that teaching assistants also collaborate successfully with both students and bilingual teachers in the class (items 44 and 45). Nearly all of the bilingual teachers (89.7%) definitely agree that they have adequate listening, speaking, reading and writing skills in English, which means that they are highly competent to teach in this foreign language (items 46 and 47). Concerning adequate knowledge of socio-cultural aspects and intercultural awareness about this language (item 48), the data shows a very high degree of agreement among respondents (93.5%). These results are in line with a study by Pérez Cañado (2016a, 2018a, and 2018b). Her studies have confirmed that bilingual teachers have a high level of intercultural competence. Three quarters of teachers feel that they have enough knowledge of the objectives and regulations of the bilingual program in the community (item 49). In item 50, again the majority of the participants (73.4%) responded that they are familiar with the basic principles of CLIL. When asked whether they have participated in training on CLIL, only around 59.2% of them fully or partly agreed (item 51) and only a third of them (33.8%) admitted having completed a course for linguistic update in an Official Language School (item 52). In this sense, this study can be claimed to agree with previous research findings (see Fernández Fernández et al., 2005; Pena Díaz & Porto Requejo, 2008; Pérez Cañado, 2018a, and 2018b) (cf. Graph 44).
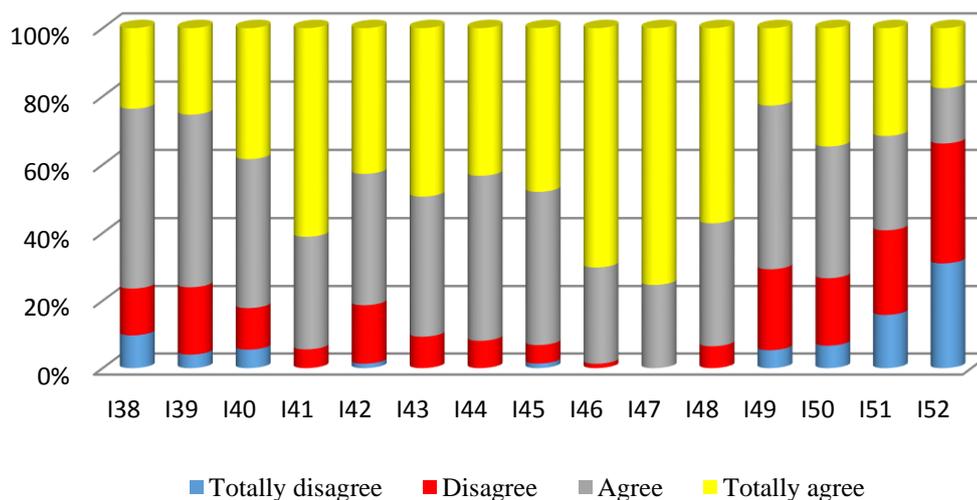
Graph 44. Teacher training (teachers)

Vis-á-vis the *mobility* block, the findings demonstrate not so positive responses. A large number of bilingual teachers (64.5%) report that they have not participated in any exchange programs within the bilingual section (item 53), although near a half of them (46.5%) report having at least participated in linguistic courses abroad (item 54). Answers are negative regarding items 55 and 56, since most teachers (between 63.2% and 71% respectively) state they have neither participated in methodological upgrade courses abroad nor obtained certification of studies or research. These poor outcomes have also been underscored in other research (Cabezas Cabello, 2010; Lancaster, 2016; Pérez Cañado, 2012, 2018a, and 2018b) (cf. Graph 45).
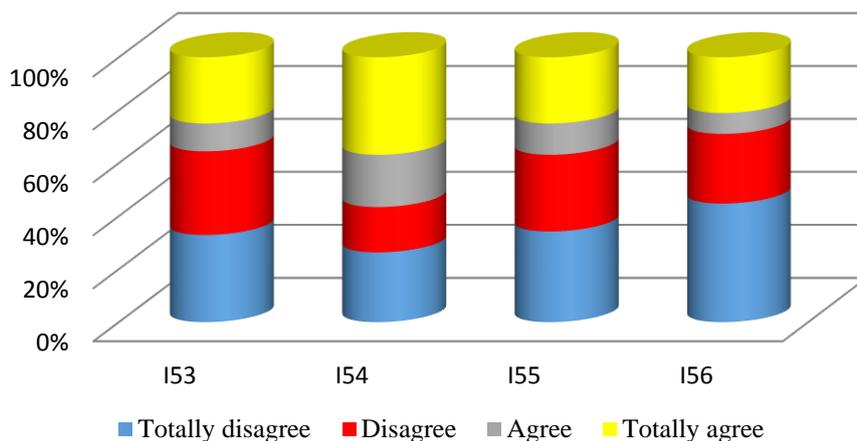
Graph 45. Mobility (teachers)

Regarding the last block, *coordination and organization*, three quarters of these stakeholders (74.1%) think that participating in bilingual education compensates for the increased workload (item 57). These findings are similar to those of Fernández Fernández et al.'s (2005) investigation. Only 66.2% of teachers collaborate in the elaboration, adaptation and implementation of the Integrated Language Curriculum (item 58). Surprisingly, though, regardless of the challenge and increased workload, the vast majority of stakeholders (89.2%) agree, or fully agree, that they fulfil, or the bilingual coordinator fulfils, all the functions within the bilingual program (item 59). Recent studies carried out by Pérez Cañado (2016a) also yield this result. For a large number of them (76%) they communicate, or the bilingual coordinator communicates, with other bilingual centers and provincial coordinators (item 60), while, a quarter of them think the opposite. Finally, the findings show that only half of the participants (51.3%) believe that they receive appropriate support from the educational authorities, whereas the other half of teachers do not share this view (item 61) This lack of support from educational authorities runs through some of the latest research (Milla Lara & Casas Pedrosa, 2018; Pérez Cañado, 2018a, 2018b), and thus deserves to be

foregrounded for future descision-making within these types of programs (cf. Graph
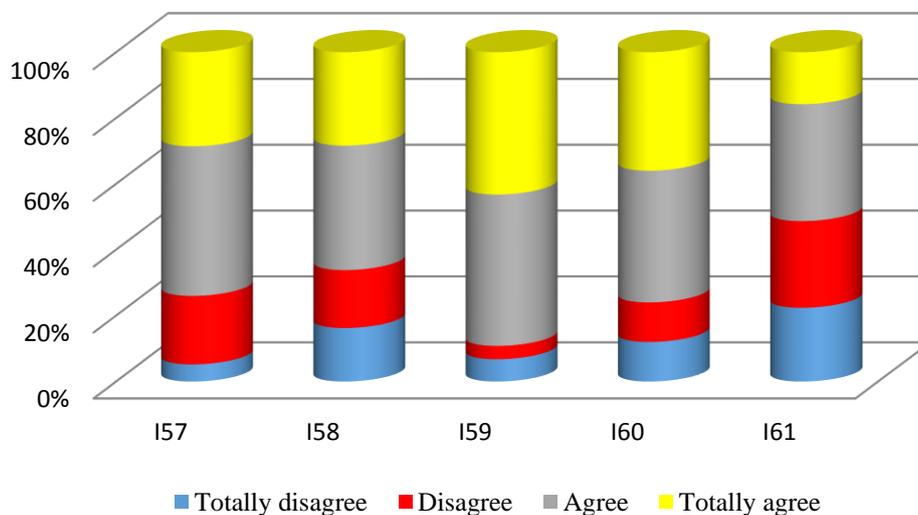
46).

Graph 46. Coordination and organization (teachers)

5.2.2. Specific results

Statistically significant differences have been found in all the variables examined in the teachers' data: age, gender, nationality, type of teacher, type of schools, setting of schools, administrative situation of teachers, teachers' English level, bilingual coordinator, and overall teaching experience years in bilingual education.

In terms of teachers' *age,* teachers who are more than 40 years old have more positive perceptions compared to the group of teachers who are less or equal to 40 years of age, who harbor less optimistic outlooks. The first group of teachers highly and positively document that their students are developing both the basic competences and their mother tongue. They also confirm that students understand the connection between

the Spanish language and the target language, students gain confidence and like using more English, as well as having knowledge of socio-cultural aspects and intercultural awareness in the FL (items 1, 4, 7, 8, 11, and 14). As regards the quality and sources of curriculum materials, the analysis underscored three items (22, 23, and 27), where the participants who were older than 40 confirmed that they apply and adapt authentic materials. They also work to assure that materials fit the needs of all levels of students in the class. Moving on to *evaluation*, significant differences were reported in items 34, 36, and 37. Teachers who are older than 40 evaluate both content and the oral component, stressing many types of evaluation such as practicing diverse, formative, summative and holistic evaluation more than teachers who were 40 years old or younger. In particular, language teachers and teaching assistants exhibit positive attitudes towards motivating their students in learning English (items 41 and 43). Finally, bilingual teachers who are older than 40 have received more training on CLIL than the youngest teachers (item 51) (cf. Table 8).

	Mean		Standard deviation			
	<=40	>40	<=40	>40	R effect size	*p* value
Item 1	3.35	3.73	.674	.452	-.295	.012
Item 4	2.45	2.95	.803	.669	-.281	.026
Item 7	3.17	3.58	.761	.504	-.262	.027
Item 8	3.24	3.60	.673	.645	-.274	.021
Item 11	2.33	2.83	.818	.917	-.253	.035
Item 14	3.02	3.38	.699	.647	-.239	.042
Item 19	2.67	3.29	.892	.806	-.327	.007
Item 22	3.35	3.69	.758	.549	-.243	.039
Item 23	3.08	3.58	.821	.504	-.304	.009
Item 27	2.77	3.19	.831	.849	-.281	.022
Item 34	3.32	3.81	.594	.491	-.421	<.001
Item 36	3.08	3.38	.767	.941	-.234	.044
Item 37	3.10	3.62	.778	.571	-.331	.005
Item 41	3.41	3.87	.652	.344	-.362	.003
Item 43	3.32	3.60	.629	.645	-.233	.048
Item 51	2.38	3.38	1.054	.804	-.448	<.001

Table 8. Statistically significi

ficant differences in terms of age (teachers)

As regards the participants' *gender*, our analysis detected only one item (57) belonging to the *coordination and organization* block that yielded statistically significant differences. The female teachers have more positive perspectives than male teachers, since female teachers considered that being part of bilingual education compensates for the increased workload (cf. Table 9).

	Mean		Standard deviation			
	Male	Female	Male	Female	R effect size	*p* value
Item 57	2.75	3.14	.842	.824	-.237	.039

Table 9. Statistically significant differences in terms of gender (teachers)

Turning now to the teachers' *nationality* results, there are statistically significant differences in ten items. Participants of other nationalities express a more positive impression than the Spanish participants. The non-Spanish teachers confirm that the students have improved both content knowledge and listening and speaking skills (items 5 and 12). In contrast, Spanish teachers place their emphasis on the connection between the Spanish and English languages (item 19), but they do not consider that materials include some of guidelines in Spanish (item 33). The Spanish stakeholders document that all bilingual content knowledge taught is evaluated and that diverse, formative, summative and holistic evaluation is practised in the class (items 34 and 37). When referring to the information of teachers, Spanish teachers report that language teachers need further training (item 38), admitting that all the bilingual teachers have received training on CLIL (item 51). However, the non-Spanish teachers score better results in having obtained study licenses for further studies or research (item 56) more than the

Spanish teachers. They also recognize that forming part of bilingual education compensates for the increased workload (item 57) (cf. Table 10).

	Mean		Standard deviation		R effect size	p value
	Spanish	Other	Spanish	Other		
Item 5	2.92	3.54	.781	.519	-.315	.007
Item 12	3.23	3.62	.636	.506	-.226	.047
Item 19	3.04	2.33	.844	.985	-.275	.022
Item 33	1.68	2.42	.892	1.165	-.262	.026
Item 34	3.56	3.15	.562	.689	-.236	.039
Item 37	3.39	2.69	.657	.855	-.321	.005
Item 38	3.03	2.31	.765	1.109	-.277	.019
Item 51	2.86	2.17	1.037	1.115	-.229	.046
Item 56	1.91	2.83	1.065	1.467	-.230	.045
Item 57	2.89	3.38	.799	.961	-.255	.025

Table 10. Statistically significant differences in terms of nationality of teachers (teachers)

Pertaining to the *setting of schools,* we found few significant differences between urban schools and rural schools (only four items). In the urban schools, teachers confirm that bilingual teaching materials include some of the Spanish guidelines more than the rural schools' materials (item 33). The rural teachers consider they practice to a greater extent the following types of evaluation: diverse, formative, summative and holistic evaluation (item 37). The urban teachers, in turn, appear to implement to a lesser extent these types of evaluation. In the rural context, language teachers believe they need further training (item 38), and generally, the rural teachers think that they have a more adequate knowledge of socio-cultural aspects and intercultural awareness in the FL than teachers in urban settings (item 48) (cf. Table 11).

	Mean		Standard deviation.			
	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban	R effect size	*p* value
Item 33	1.51	2.15	.854	1.004	-.354	.003
Item 37	3.43	3.11	.712	.737	-.226	.047
Item 38	3.13	2.65	.741	.950	-.258	.029
Item 48	3.70	3.30	.516	.661	-.329	.004

Table

11. Statistically significant differences in terms of setting of schools (teachers)

When the three *types of schools* are compared, results show that there are some significant differences between them. Firstly, on the topic of *students' use, competence and development of English in class*, private schools score slightly higher than the other two types of schools. Teachers in the private setting demonstrate a positive opinion. They admit that their students have a higher level of English competence and use than the other students in the public and charter schools. Due to the students' participation in bilingual programs, they develop and improve the basic competences and they develop their mother tongue (Spanish language) (items 1 and 4) as well. The teachers also admit that students enrolled in private schools understand the connection between English and Spanish, they welcome more use of English, and they have adequate knowledge of socio-cultural aspects and intercultural awareness in the FL (items 7, 11, and 14). Secondly, on the topic of *methodology,* the same stakeholders prioritize the use of more vocabulary, and they place emphasis on the connection between the Spanish and English languages more than the public and charter schools (items 17 and 19). Thirdly, concerning the bilingual *materials and resources*, again private schools score significantly higher for materials that are implemented in the classroom. Teachers use adapted authentic resources. They also affirm that bilingual materials are interesting and innovative (items 22, 23, and 24).

This positive and significant impression of private teachers towards bilingual materials can be due to their use of multimedia software, online reference materials, blogs, wikis and webquests, as well as the use of interactive whiteboards and computer-mediated communication in the classroom (items 28, 29, 30, 31 and 32). Fourthly, in the *teacher training* block, teachers who work in private schools consider that teaching assistants motivate students' learning of English, and work and collaborate successfully with both the teachers and the students in the class, while teachers who work in public and charter schools hold negative opinions about these issues (items 43, 44, and 45). Private school teachers strongly acknowledge that they have a high level in listening and speaking skills and also in reading and writing skills in the FL (items 46 and 47), while charter school teachers believe to have a higher level of knowledge of socio-cultural aspects and intercultural awareness, and also a higher knowledge of bilingual program objectives, principles, and legislative policy frameworks than public and private teachers (item 48 and 49). Fifthly, the results reveal that the private schools present significantly higher scores than public and charter schools concerning *mobility and exchange programs*. This may be due to fact that the private teachers have participated in linguistic courses abroad and they have obtained study or research licenses (items 54 and 56). They also consider they receive more adequate support by education authorities than the other teachers who belong to the public and private schools (item 61) (cf. Table 12).

		Mean	Standard deviation	*p* value
Item 1	Public	3.27	.740	.013
	Charter	3.48	.510	
	Private	3.80	.410	
Item 4	Public	2.46	.884	.041

	Charter	2.52	.730	
	Private	3.06	.639	
Item 7	Public	3.10	.557	.005
	Charter	3.28	.891	
	Private	3.70	.470	
Item 11	Public	2.39	.737	.025
	Charter	2.28	.936	
	Private	2.95	.848	
	Private	3.38	.669	
Item 14	Public	2.86	.651	.002
	Charter	3.12	.711	
	Private	3.57	.507	
Item 17	Public	2.63	.890	.018
	Charter	3.00	.780	
	Private	3.32	.478	
Item 19	Public	3.12	.816	.039
	Charter	2.50	1.022	
	Private	3.16	.688	
Item 22	Public	3.30	.702	.006
	Charter	3.38	.804	
	Private	3.86	.359	
Item 23	Public	3.27	.583	.042
	Charter	3.08	.891	
	Private	3.57	.746	
Item 24	Public	3.03	.718	.013
	Charter	3.35	.689	
	Private	3.62	.498	
Item 28	Public	3.00	.947	.004
	Charter	3.58	.504	
	Private	3.71	.463	
Item 29	Public	2.80	1.064	.009
	Charter	3.42	.643	
	Private	3.57	.746	
Item 30	Public	2.43	.935	.001
	Charter	2.81	1.021	
	Private	3.48	.750	
Item 31	Public	2.03	.718	<.001
	Charter	3.31	1.011	
	Private	3.71	.561	
Item 32	Public	2.00	.802	<.001
	Charter	2.19	.849	
	Private	3.10	.995	
	Private	3.19	.928	
Item 43	Public	3.20	.714	.023
	Charter	3.38	.637	
	Private	3.74	.452	
Item 44	Public	3.13	.629	.025
	Charter	3.42	.578	

Table 12. significant terms of type (teachers)

	Private	3.61	.608	
Item 45	Public	3.10	.673	.002
	Charter	3.50	.583	
	Private	3.72	.575	
Item 46	Public	3.53	.507	.042
	Charter	3.77	.430	
	Private	3.81	.512	
Item 47	Public	3.60	.498	.046
	Charter	3.85	.368	
	Private	3.86	.359	
Item 48	Public	3.33	.711	.031
	Charter	3.77	.430	
	Private	3.43	.598	
Item 49	Public	2.52	.785	.010
	Charter	3.12	.711	
	Private	3.10	.852	
Item 54	Public	2.41	1.240	.035
	Charter	2.50	1.175	
	Private	3.24	1.136	
Item 56	Public	1.62	.979	.035
	Charter	2.35	1.263	
	Private	2.29	1.189	
Item 61	Public	2.03	.999	.010
	Charter	2.56	.961	
	Private	2.90	.889	

Statistically differences in of school

With regard to the *type of teacher,* quite a few statistically significant differences come to the fore. In item 1, foreign language teachers agree that bilingual students are developing the basic competences in the classroom more than the other three types of teachers. Teaching assistants put more emphasis on the lexical dimension and cooperative work in class than the foreign language teachers, non-linguistic area teachers, and other teachers (items 17 and 18). Non-linguistic teachers and foreign language teachers work with interactive whiteboards in the class more than the other two types of teachers (item 31). Concerning *evaluation*, non-linguistic area teachers give more priority and attention to content knowledge in English over English competence in evaluation (item 35), while foreign language teachers score higher in relation to including an oral component such as speaking, listening and communicative skills (item 36), probably because of their higher level of listening and speaking skills (item 46). They agree that they have adequate reading and writing skills, and adequate

knowledge of socio-cultural aspects and intercultural awareness in the FL (items 47 and 48). To conclude with this variable, it should be mentioned that teaching assistants complain that the CLIL program has increased their workload more than any other type of teacher (item 57). This undoubtedly points to the need to clarify and define TAs' tasks in the bilingual classroom, an aspect highlighted in the previous existing research (Gerena & Ramírez-Verdugo, 2014; Tobin & Abello-Contesse, 2013) (cf. Table 13).

		Mean	Standard deviation	*p* value
Item 1	Foreign language	3.69	.644	.010
	Non-linguistic area	3.36	.549	
	Teaching assistant	3.00	.632	
	Other	3.50	.577	
Item 17	Foreign language	3.09	.777	.003
	Non-linguistic area	2.58	.720	
	Teaching assistant	3.67	.516	
	Other	3.25	.957	
Item 18	Foreign language	3.35	.597	.046
	Non-linguistic area	3.18	.528	
	Teaching assistant	3.83	.408	
	Other	3.00	.816	
Item 31	Foreign language	3.18	1.058	.018
	Non-linguistic area	2.52	1.034	
	Teaching assistant	3.17	.983	
	Other	3.75	.500	
Item 35	Foreign language	2.82	.846	.050
	Non-linguistic area	3.33	.692	
	Teaching assistant	3.00	.632	
	Other	3.25	.500	
Item 36	Foreign language	3.38	.853	.010
	Non-linguistic area	2.85	.795	
	Teaching assistant	3.67	.516	
	Other	3.50	.577	
Item 46	Foreign language	3.94	.239	<.001
	Non-linguistic area	3.39	.556	
	Teaching assistant	3.83	.408	
	Other	3.75	.500	
Item 47	Foreign language	3.94	.239	<.001
	Non-linguistic area	3.52	.508	
	Teaching assistant	3.83	.408	
	Other	4.00	.000	

Table 13.

Item 48	Foreign language	3.74	.448	.011
	Non-linguistic area	3.24	.663	
	Teaching assistant	3.50	.837	
	Other	3.75	.500	
Item 57	Foreign language	3.06	.776	.005
	Non-linguistic area	2.67	.854	
	Teaching assistant	3.83	.408	
	Other	3.50	.577	

Statistically significant differences in terms of type of teacher (teachers)

When dealing with the results regarding the variable *administrative situation of teachers,* it was found that civil servant teachers show higher scores than teachers with different administrative situations. Civil servant teachers responded that digital equipment such as interactive whiteboard and computer-mediated communication are utilised in their classes to a greater extent (items 31 and 32). In terms of evaluation, they give more attention to the oral skills (item 36). They also acknowledge that non-linguistic area teachers need additional training (item 39). In item 59, civil servant teachers acknowledge that either they or the bilingual coordinator achieve the functionality of CLIL. Besides, they state that they are not supported by educational authorities (item 61). On the contrary, teachers with different administrative situations believe that they are supported to a greater extent by the educational authorities (Table 14).

	Mean		Standard deviation			
	Civil servant	Other	Civil servant	Other	R effect size	*p* value
Item 31	1.82	2.58	.751	.974	-.362	.032
Item 32	1.64	2.35	.674	.714	-.435	.011
Item 36	3.36	2.79	.924	.884	-.332	.050
Item 39	3.64	2.70	.505	.703	-.586	.001
Item 59	3.45	3.04	1.036	.706	-.348	.042
Item 61	1.73	2.54	.905	1.021	-359	.034

Table 14. Statistically significant differences in terms of administrative situation of teachers (teachers)

The statistical results about *teachers' level of English* yielded significant differences between teachers of C1 and C2 levels and teachers of A1, A2, B1, B2 levels. The latter group of teachers replied that materials are being adapted to fulfil the needs of all the student levels (item 27), and computer-mediated communication is used in class such as e-Twinning (item 32). In addition, they mention that bilingual education is adequately supported by educational authorities (item 61). In contrast, teachers with a C1 and C2 level have less positive perspectives than the teachers of A1, A2, B1, B2 levels (cf. Table 15). It thus seems that the higher the language level, the more critical teachers are with the program a finding also corroborated in previous research (cf. Pérez Cañado, 2018a).

	Mean		Standard deviation			
	A1-A2-B1-B2	C1-C2	A1-A2-B1-B2	C1-C2	R effect size	*p* value
Item 27	3.50	2.86	.535	.862	-.236	.038
Item 32	3.00	2.29	.756	.978	-.232	.043
Item 61	3.25	2.35	.707	1.004	-.273	.017

Table 15. Statistically significant differences in terms of level of English of teachers (teachers)

The results regarding *overall teaching experience of teachers* are better among the participants with more than ten years of overall teaching experience. Statically significant differences can be located in favor of the group of teachers with equal or fewer than ten years of experience. Alluding to the use of language and improvement, bilingual teachers with more than ten years of experience strongly believe that their students make progress in the basic competences and in English too. They believe their students are confident, and they welcome more use of English (items 1, 2, 8, and 11).

The same participants state a high quality of curriculum material since authentic materials are used are adapted, as well as designed to adapt the students' necessities (items 22, 23, 27). With reference to *evaluation*, the same group of teachers shows positive attitudes towards the use of all kinds of *evaluation* and assessment in class (diverse, formative, summative, and holistic evaluation) (item 37). By contrast, teachers with less than ten years of experience express fewer positive advantages with the aforementioned items. On the topics of *teacher training* and *mobility*, teachers of equal to or fewer than ten years reported to have more training (item 51). They have participated in courses about linguistic and methodological issues (items 54 and 55) more than bilingual teachers with ten years of experience. Item 53 shows that teachers with more than ten years of experience in bilingual section have not participated in programs of mobility in the bilingual section (cf. Table 16).

	Mean		Standard deviation			
	<=10 years	>10 years	<=10 years	>10 years	R effect size	*p* value
Item 1	3.30	3.74	.668	.445	-.360	.002
Item 2	3.51	3.75	.661	.568	-.226	.048
Item 8	3.25	3.57	.651	.679	-.259	.026
Item 11	2.26	2.86	.848	.789	-.328	.005
Item 22	3.33	3.69	.769	.535	-.254	.026
Item 23	3.11	3.53	.859	.507	-.243	.033
Item 27	2.78	3.13	.765	.942	-.243	.033
Item 34	3.38	3.65	.576	.608	-.253	.028
Item 37	3.16	3.44	.673	.801	-.236	.039
Item 51	2.50	3.09	1.067	.995	-.276	.016
Item 53	1.95	2.72	1.099	1.143	-.332	.004
Item 54	2.42	3.03	1.252	1.110	-.245	.032
Item 55	2.07	2.56	1.228	1.076	-.241	.036

Table 16. Statistically significant differences in terms of overall teaching experience of teachers (teachers)

As far as *bilingual teaching experience* is concerned, our findings demonstrate that teachers with more than five years show more positive results than those teachers who have equal or less than five years of experience. Bilingual teachers with more than five years of experience in a bilingual section reveal interesting significant differences on many items. Analyzing the first block, *students' use, competence and development of English in class*, the first group shows an optimistic impression that CLIL improves many concepts related to learning the L1 and L2. For example, they state that their students not only develop the basic competences, improve Spanish language, understand both the connection between the two languages and how the language works (1, 4, 6, and 7), but they also learn cultural and socio-cultural awareness in the target language (item 14). It might be due to these improvements that students are more enthusiastic, and they like English more (items 10 and 11). Another reason for these improvements could be extensive vocabulary development, which is a priority in the CLIL classroom (item 17). Another interesting finding deals with resources and materials for teaching and learning. Again, teachers with longer experience in CLIL are in total agreement that authentic material are not only used, adapted, interesting and innovative (items 22 and 23), but are also adapted to fit all the students' needs (item 27). When referring to digital materials, the same participants declare that multimedia software, online reference, blogs, wikis and webquests, interactive whiteboards, and computer-mediated communication are used in the class (items 28, 29, 30, 31, 32). In terms of *evaluation*, teachers with longer teaching experience in bilingual sections state that all bilingual content knowledge taught is evaluated (item 34). Statistically significant differences also have been detected with regard to the *teacher training* block. More experienced teachers in CLIL acknowledge their higher level of listening and speaking skills (item 46). The results also identify statistically significant differences concerning the block of

mobility. Practitioners with more bilingual teaching experience have participated in exchange programs within bilingual programs (item 53). Bilingual teachers with equal or less than five years of teaching experience in a bilingual section show significantly lower results towards all the aforementioned issues. Thus, it once more transpires that time and experience in a bilingual program exert a positive influence of teachers' perspectives on its functioning (Pérez Cañado, 2018a) (cf. Table 17).

	Mean		Standard deviation			
	<=5 years	>5 years	<=5 years	>5 years	R effect size	*p* value
Item 1	3.30	3.76	.662	.435	-.366	.002
Item 4	2.48	2.96	.862	.562	-.285	.022
Item 6	3.23	3.55	.555	.572	-.281	.014
Item 7	3.17	3.57	.709	.634	-.292	.012
Item 10	3.24	3.61	.679	.567	-.270	.021
Item 11	2.28	2.88	.750	.952	-.321	.006
Item 14	2.96	3.46	.658	.637	-.360	.002
Item 17	2.78	3.19	.814	.736	-.256	.029
Item 22	3.27	3.83	.765	.384	-.409	<.001
Item 23	3.08	3.62	.739	.677	-.401	<.001
Item 24	3.06	3.69	.665	.541	-.457	<.001
Item 27	2.71	3.28	.874	.702	-.334	.003
Item 28	3.21	3.69	.849	.471	-.297	.009
Item 29	2.98	3.62	.956	.677	-.358	.002
Item 30	2.65	3.17	.934	1.037	-.280	.014
Item 31	2.63	3.41	1.142	.733	-.340	.003
Item 32	2.02	2.93	.794	.998	-.444	<.001
Item 34	3.36	3.69	.605	.541	-.281	.014
Item 46	3.60	3.83	.494	.468	-.256	.025
Item 53	2.02	2.69	1.053	1.257	-.258	.024
Item 59	3.02	3.62	.917	.494	-.349	.003

Table 17. Statistically significant differences in terms of bilingual teaching experience of teachers (teachers)

With regard to the last variable, *bilingual coordinator,* findings reveal that bilingual coordinator perspectives are statistically significantly more positive and optimistic than those of teachers who are not coordinators of their programs. Bilingual coordinators state interesting advantages about bilingual programs. They declare that

their students have a great deal of content knowledge of the subjects, that they are participative, that they enjoy the use of English, and that they have adequate reading and writing skills in the FL (items 5, 9, 11, and 13). They also affirm that in the process of teaching and learning, vocabulary is a priority in the bilingual class (item 17). There are also significant differences in following the CEFRL and English Language Portfolio, as results show that coordinator teachers tend to follow them more frequently than teachers who are not (items 20 and 21). They also have a better knowledge of socio-cultural aspects and intercultural awareness in the FL according to answers (item 48). This greater awareness and knowledge of other cultures can be due to their participation in both exchange programs within bilingual programs and in linguistic courses abroad (items 53 and 54). The analysis of the aforementioned items always yields lower means from teachers who are not program coordinators, as compared to those who are (cf.

	Mean		Standard deviation			
	No	Yes	No	Yes	R effect size	*p* value
Item 5	2.95	3.45	.771	.688	-.241	.039
Item 9	3.38	3.75	.604	.452	-.225	.049
Item 11	2.34	3.36	.834	.505	-.435	<.001
Item 13	3.09	3.58	.631	.515	-.283	.013
Item 17	2.77	3.75	.761	.452	-.470	<.001
Item 20	3.07	3.58	.704	.515	-.285	.018
Item 21	2.87	3.33	.754	.492	-.246	.046
Item 48	3.43	3.92	.637	.289	-.296	.009
Item 53	2.08	3.33	1.074	1.155	-.353	.002
Item 54	2.52	3.50	1.221	.905	-.292	.011

Table 18).

Table 18. Statistically significant differences in terms of bilingual coordinator (teachers)

5.3. Parents' perspectives

5.3.1. Global results

Parents' perspectives help us to evaluate and examine data concerning their children in addition to their reflections on other issues related to their satisfaction with the implementation of the bilingual program.

With respect to the first block, *students' use, competence, and development of English in class,* we found very positive outcomes. These positive outcomes have also been supported by recent research by Lancaster (2016) and Ráez-Padilla (2018). All parents (100%) reported positively and satisfactorily that their child's English had improved due to his/her participation in bilingual education (item1). For item 2, "My child's Spanish has improved due to his/her participation in bilingual education", the results were mixed, with just over half (58.6%) agreeing that bilingual learning improved their Spanish, and with the other parents not sharing that opinion. The majority of parents (81.4%) support the idea that their children's content knowledge of subjects taught in English has improved, with only a quarter of parents disagreeing (item 3). For item 4, more than half of the parents (64.5%) disagree that the understanding of content of subjects is made more difficult by teaching them through English. Practically all parents (94.6%) agree that their children's comprehension of the connection between English and Spanish has improved due to their participation in bilingual education (item 5). In item 6, the vast majority of parents (97.3%), with the exception of only two participants, believe that their children are confident with respect to languages. The same is true of items 7, where almost all the parents (97.3%) agree

that their children have adequate listening and speaking skills. 68.7% of parents agree that their children have adequate reading and writing skills, in the foreign language (FL)
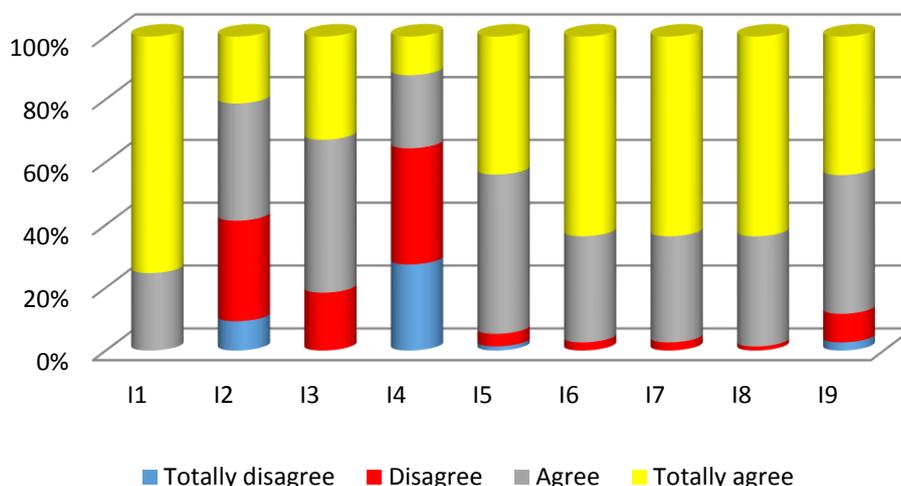
(item 8). Again, the vast majority of parents (88.2%) find that their children have adequate knowledge of socio-cultural aspects and intercultural awareness in the FL, with only a few parents disagreeing (item 9) (cf. Graph 47).

Graph 47. Students' use, competence and development of English in class (parents)

In regards to *methodology,* almost all parents (94.8%) answered positively regarding the learning of vocabulary in the bilingual class (item 10). Most parents (74.6%) contend that bilingual classes use more innovative methodology focused on the learner. However, a quarter disagree with this (item 11). Item 12 was the most controversial: half of the participants (54.6%) agree they are able to help their child with bilingual homework, while the rest of the participants are in complete disagreement (cf. Graph 48).
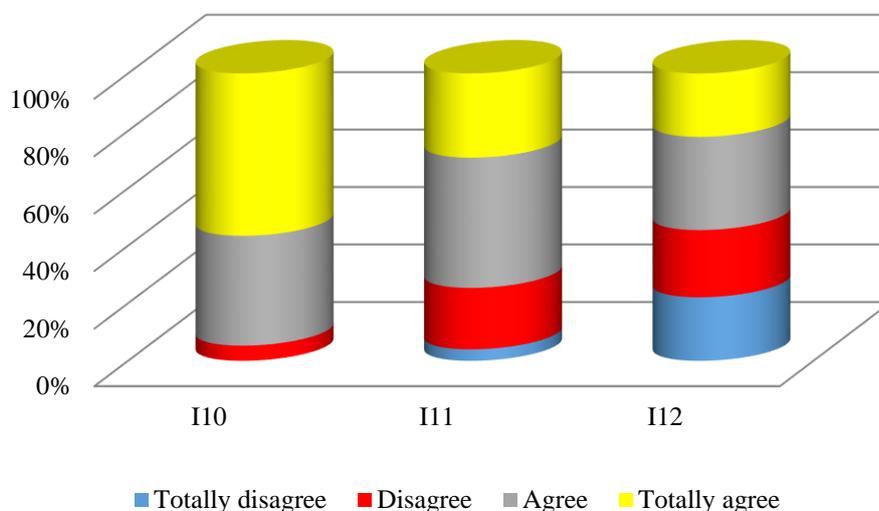
Graph 48. Methodology (parents)

When dealing with the *materials and resources* block, the majority of parents respond positively. Most parents (70.3%) report that bilingual teaching materials are interesting and innovative, but a few disagree (item 13). Parents also (81.1%) consider that bilingual teaching materials encourage communication in English in class and out of class (item 14). There is more of a gap in opinion in item 15, as a third (34.3%) of parents either strongly disagree and disagree, and the majority of respondents agree that bilingual teaching materials are adapted to cater to students' levels and needs within the bilingual class. There is also a notable difference between parents who agree (more than a half: 57.9%) that new technology materials are used in class, and those who do not see that these materials are used (item 16). The respondents do not agree on whether the bilingual teaching materials are expensive or not, as half (50.7%) report that they are expensive and the other half report that they are not expensive (item 17). Most of the participants (77%) respond that they do not think that bilingual materials have guidelines in Spanish to help their child at home, and less than a quarter of the

participants (23%) agree with item 18. Regarding parents' perspectives in item 19, the majority (71.5%) contend that their child has access to English outside of school but less than a third (28.5%) do not believe this is true. The results for item 20 indicate that almost all the parents (84.2%) find that their children have access to adequate English materials outside of school. Thus, parental perspectives are more mixed on this block, with considerable discrepancies being discerned, except on the inclusion of guidelines to help their children, where there is greater harmony, a finding in line with those of Ráez Padilla (2018) and which should undoubtedly be taken into account by materials designers for the future (cf. Graph 49).
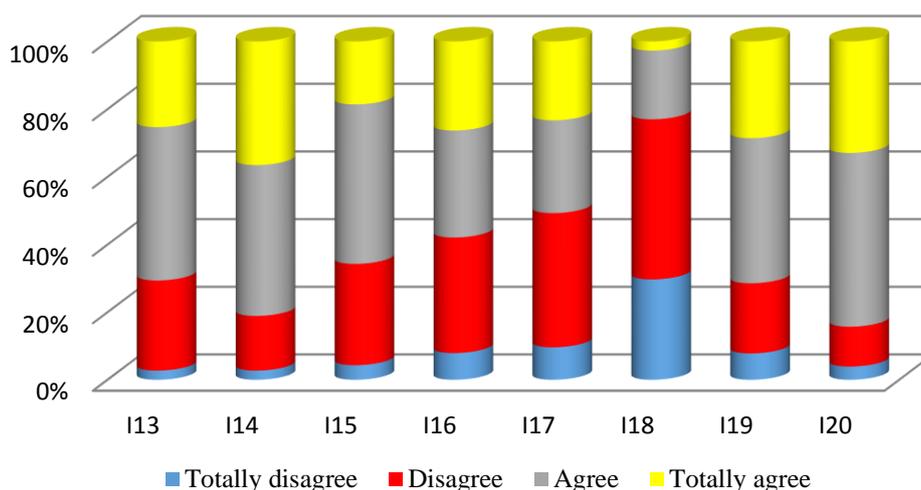
Graph 49. Material and resources (parents)

As for the parents' perceptions of *evaluation,* the vast majority of parents (88%, 97.4%, and 85.8%, respectively) respond in total agreement: they acknowledge that evaluation of bilingual programs is adequate, all bilingual content knowledge taught is evaluated periodically by exams, and an oral component is included in evaluation (items 21, 22, and 23). The results of items 24 and 25 are practically the same; the majority of the respondents (77%) believe that bilingual content knowledge in English is prioritized over English competence in evaluation, and that their children have achieved the best results in the bilingual program. Fewer than a quarter of participants disagree with these
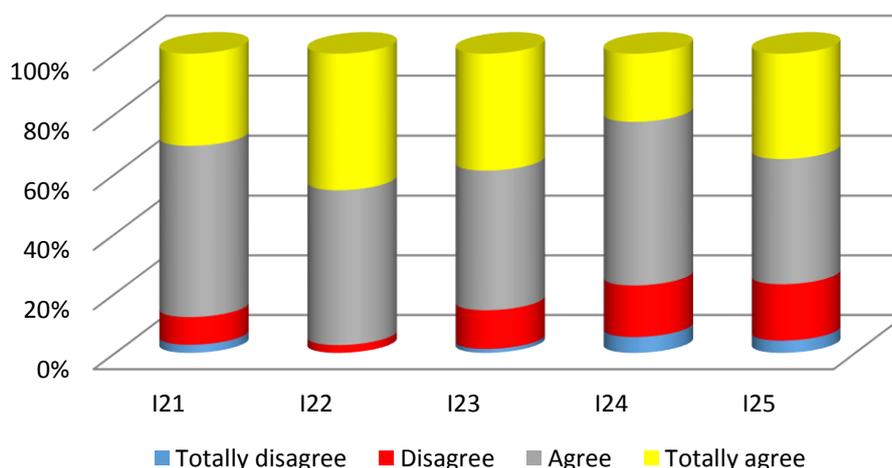
two items (cf. Graph 50).

Graph 50. Evaluation (parents)

Parents' perceptions of *training and information* are largely positive, except for a few parents who responded negatively. A high percentage of parents (88.1%) seem satisfied with the bilingual teachers of their children. They recognize that teachers have adequate listening and speaking skills in the FL (item 26). Parents (92%) also responded that their children's bilingual teachers have adequate reading and writing skills, as well

as adequate knowledge of socio-cultural aspects and intercultural awareness in the FL (items 27 and 28). Item 29 results are largely positive, with parents (90.8%) agreeing that they are familiar with the bilingual education functioning in their child's school. For items 30 and 31, the majority of parents (between 64.5% and 72.3%) believe they are well-informed about the bilingual education of the community, such as objectives and actions, as well as about the basic principles of the curriculum, i.e. integrated
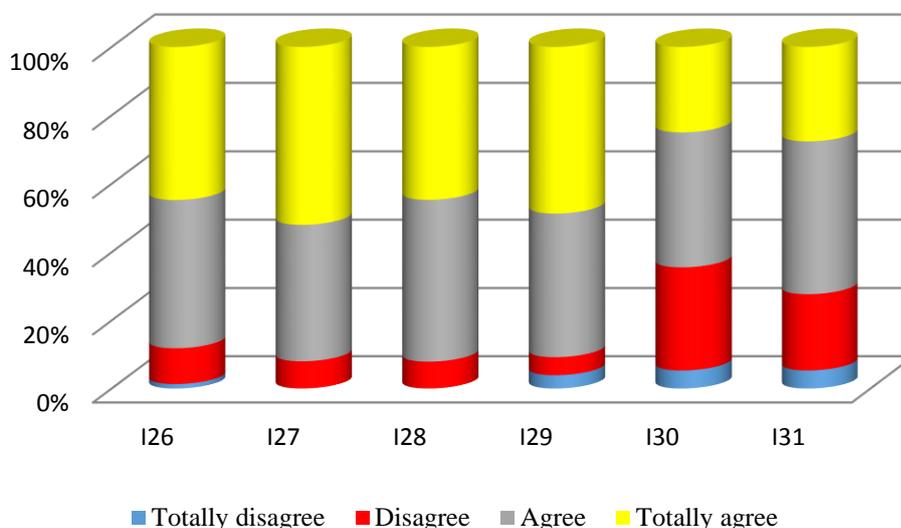
content and language learning in the bilingual program. However, a substantial number (almost 30%) hold opposite perceptions towards this assertion (cf. Graph 51).

Graph 51. Training and information (parents)

Parents' attitudes towards their children's *mobility* are positive, although more than half of the parents indicate their children have not yet participated in exchange programs. More than a third of parents (38.4%) agree that their children have already participated in exchange programs (item 32), while the rest of parents strongly disagree or disagree. Most families (96.1%) are supportive of having their children participate in exchange programs in the future. Parents respond that they consider the participation in

exchange or language programs is very advantageous and beneficial for their children (items 33). The majority of parents (87%) encourage their children to participate in exchange programs or in language study (item 34). These revelations coincide with Lancaster's (2016) and Ráez-Padilla's (2018). Their research evinces that parents see exchange/linguistic programs as beneficial for their children and they motivate their children to have an active participation in these mobility programs. In contrast, they
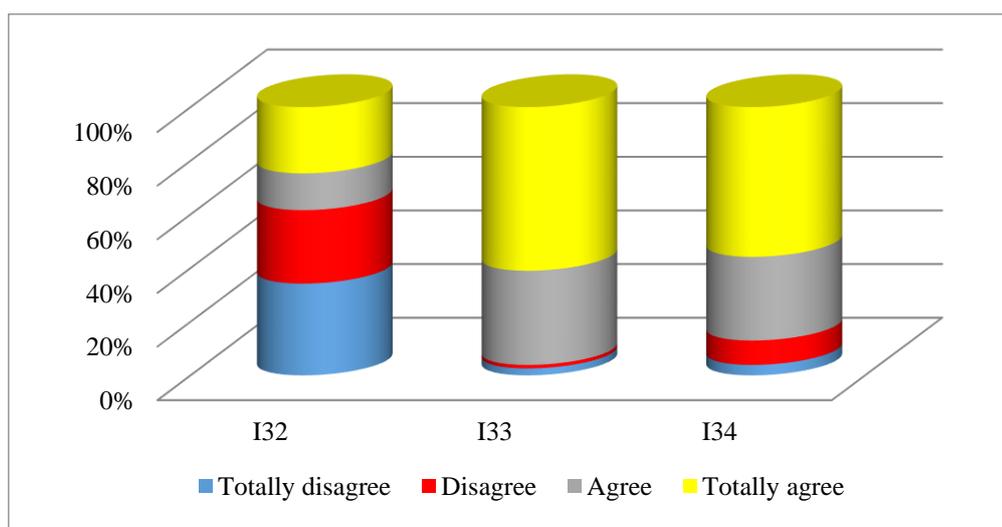
confirm that there their offspring do not normally participate in such exchange programs (cf. Graph 52).

Graph 52. Mobility (parents)

In relation to *improvement and motivation towards learning* English, although a large percentage of parents (94.7%) foster the idea that bilingual education compensates for the increased workload (item 35) and they (97.4%) confirm that there has been an overall improvement in their child's language learning due to their participation in bilingual education (items 36). Most of the parent participants (between 77.3% and 98.7%) agree that both their motivation and the motivation of their children towards language learning has increased due to their child's participation in bilingual education

(items 37 and 38). Of the participating parents, three-fourths (65.7%) indicate that they communicate regularly with teachers about their child's progress in the bilingual
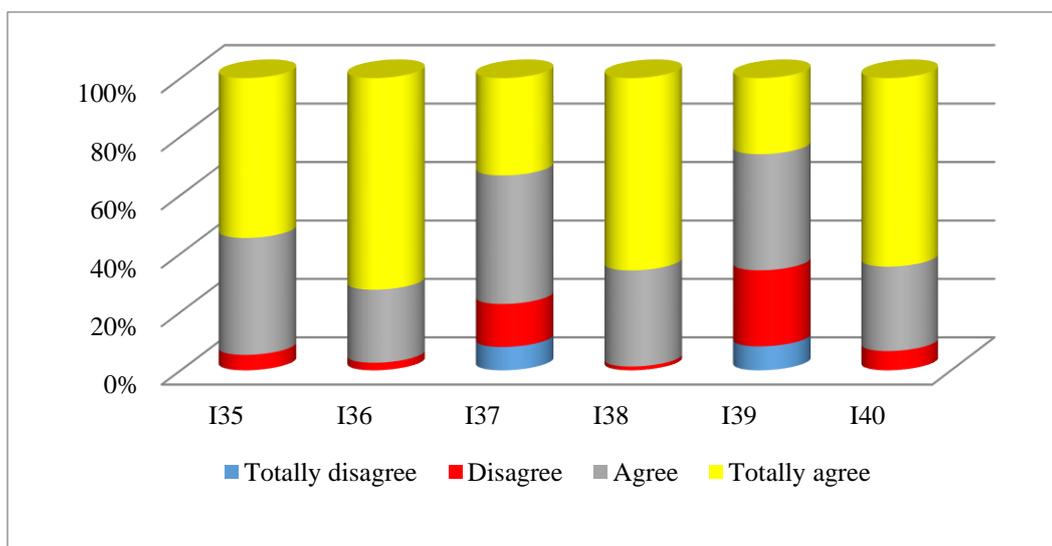
program and only a third admit they have no regular communication with teachers (item 39). Finally, almost all the parents (93.3%) evaluate the bilingual program very positively (item 40) (cf. Graph 53).

Graph 53. Improvement and motivation towards learning English (parents)

5.3.2. Specific results

This statistical study provides us further information concerning parents' perceptions on bilingual programming in Madrid. Statistically significant differences in outcomes are obtained from almost all the parents' variables: **s**etting of school, age, level of parents' education, and type of school, which presented the highest number (23 out of 40 items). For the gender and nationality variables, no statistically significant differences were evident.

In terms of school setting, urban schools exhibit higher scores than rural schools on just a few items (14, 19, 35, and 36, respectively). Parents in the urban context report

that materials encourage communication concepts and their children have more access to English outside the school (items 14 and 19). Furthermore, in the same context, the urban school parents confirm that although there is much more work with the actual program, the program is interesting since language improvement has increased too (items 35 and 36). Rural parents have less positive opinions about the above-mentioned items (cf. Table 19).

	Mean		Standard deviation			
	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban	R effect size	*p* value
Item 14	2.98	3.35	.800	.734	-.251	.031
Item 19	2.68	3.19	.934	.786	-.280	.014
Item 35	3.35	3.66	.662	.482	-.236	.041
Item 36	3.51	3.91	.597	.284	-.394	.001

Table 19. Statistically significant differences in terms of setting of school (parents)

The statistical results for type of schools have been particularly revealing. Private schools present many more statistically significant differences in their favor than the public and charter schools. Parents in the former context show higher scores and significant satisfaction in terms of students' use, competence and development of English in class, methodology, bilingual teaching materials, evaluation, formation and information, mobility, and finally, with their students' improvement and motivation towards learning English. With the first block, *students' use, competence, and development of English in class,* parents associated with the private schools point out that their children have improved their Spanish, they make clear progress in reading and writing, and they also acquire knowledge of socio-cultural aspects (items 2, 8, and 9). They also manifest positive opinions about the *methodology* used in class. They respond that this methodology expands their children's vocabulary because it is innovative and concentrated on the students' achievement (items 10 and 11). Parents in the private

setting can help their children in acquiring the language and doing homework easily (item12). With regard to bilingual *teaching materials,* differences are again statistically significant in favor of private schools, where interesting and innovative materials that encourage communication are provided. Bilingual teaching materials in private schools are also adapted to cater all the students' needs within the class (item 13, 14, and 15). These positive perspectives might be due to the use of new technologies and materials that provide opportunities for communication about controversial and proactive issues (item 16). According to the same participants, their children have achieved the best results (item 25). Parents in the private context express that e*valuation* is adequate, exams are used periodically to evaluate content knowledge, and an oral component is also included in evaluation (items 21, 22 and 23). They affirm that bilingual teachers are highly qualified in the four English skills: listening, speaking, reading, and writing (items 26 and 27). According to parents, bilingual teachers in the private context also have adequate knowledge of socio-cultural aspects and intercultural awareness in the FL (item 28). Significant differences favoring private schools are also established vis-à-vis parents' familiarity with the basic principles of CLIL; they are well informed about the bilingual education of the community, such as objectives and actions, and they also affirm that their children's teachers are also well informed about the basic principles of the CLIL integrated curriculum in the bilingual program (items 29, 31, and 30). Their children have participated in exchange programs (item 32) and they communicate regularly with teachers following the evaluation of their children (item 39). Finally, in the private schools, parents' impressions towards evaluation of the bilingual program are very positive compared to parents' impressions in the other two types of schools (item 40) (cf. Table 20).

		Mean	Standard deviation	p value
Item 2	Charter	2.42	.902	.012
	Private	3.21	1.084	
	Public	2.63	.669	
Item 8	Charter	3.46	.576	.005
	Private	3.95	.229	
	Public	3.57	.504	
Item 9	Charter	3.04	.838	.025
	Private	3.63	.597	
	Public	3.33	.661	
Item 10	Charter	3.46	.693	.045
	Private	3.79	.419	
	Public	3.38	.561	
Item 11	Charter	3.00	.679	<.001
	Private	3.63	.496	
	Public	2.59	.867	
Item 12	Charter	2.04	.962	<.001
	Private	3.37	.895	
	Public	2.50	.974	
Item 13	Charter	2.93	.550	<.001
	Private	3.68	.582	
	Public	2.45	.736	
Item 14	Charter	3.15	.602	<.001
	Private	3.79	.419	
	Public	2.71	.854	
Item 15	Charter	2.62	.804	<.001
	Private	3.50	.514	
	Public	2.50	.648	
Item 16	Charter	2.86	.848	.006
	Private	3.21	1.032	
	Public	2.38	.820	
Item 21	Charter	3.14	.756	.001
	Private	3.61	.608	
	Public	2.90	.557	
Item 22	Charter	3.50	.509	.009
	Private	3.68	.478	
	Public	3.20	.551	
Item 23	Charter	3.18	.772	.015
	Private	3.63	.496	
	Public	3.03	.718	
Item 25	Charter	3.11	.751	.007
	Private	3.50	.857	
	Public	2.79	.819	
Item 26	Charter	3.43	.634	.001
	Private	3.68	.582	
	Public	2.97	.731	

Item 27	Charter	3.52	.643	<.001
	Private	3.89	.315	
	Public	3.07	.593	
Item 28	Charter	3.43	.573	<.001
	Private	3.79	.419	
	Public	3.03	.626	
Item 29	Charter	3.43	.573	<.001
	Private	3.89	.323	
	Public	2.97	.890	
Item 30	Charter	2.68	.723	<.001
	Private	3.53	.772	
	Public	2.55	.827	
Item 31	Charter	2.82	.723	<.001
	Private	3.58	.769	
	Public	2.66	.814	
Item 32	Charter	1.85	.925	<.001
	Private	3.32	1.057	
	Public	2.00	1.089	
Item 39	Charter	2.86	.803	<.001
	Private	3.67	.485	
	Public	2.26	.813	
Item 40	Charter	3.43	.690	.010
	Private	3.94	.236	
	Public	3.50	.630	

Table 20. significant terms of type of ... **Statistically differences in school (parents)**

As far as the parents' ages, statistically significant differences are displayed only in two items (items 4 and 32). Parents who are 45 years old or younger highlight that the comprehension of content of subjects taught in English is easy and comprehensible for their children (item 4). They also report positively on the participation of their children in exchange programs (item 32), while results are significantly lower with parents who are older than 45. They reveal that content subjects are difficult for their children to understand in English and their children do not participate as much in exchange programs (cf. Table 21).

	Mean		Standard deviation			
					R effect	
	<=45	>45	<=45	>45	size	*p* value
Item 4	2.29	1.77	.902	.815	-.298	.024
Item 32	2.52	1.89	1.153	1.166	-.280	.035

Table 21. Statistically significant differences in terms of age (parents)

Analyzing both parents' gender and nationality, no statistically significant differences were uncovered. In terms of *gender*, we can attribute this result to the homogeneity of opinion of both female and male participants. In turn, as regards the *nationality* variable, the absence of significant differences is due to the large number of the participants being of Spanish nationality (96%, as mentioned in chapter 4, section 4.3.2.4).

For level of parents' education, statistically significant differences emerged only in three items, which means "it can be argued that the performance of bilingual students in the FL does not vary depending on their parents' educational level" (Rascón Moreno & Bretones Callejas, 2018, p. 133). Parents with university experience scored significantly higher than the parents with no university experience on two items (item 12 and item 39). The opposite was true for item 17, regarding materials and resources. The former participants with university experience affirm that they can help their children with bilingual homework (items 12), and they communicate regularly with teachers to evaluate their children's progress within the bilingual program (item 39). Parents with no university experience scored lower on these two items. Statistically significant differences were found concerning the notion that bilingual materials cost

more. For the latter participants, bilingual teaching materials have a high price, while parents with university experience do not share this opinion (item 17). These results are directly in line with those of Ráez Padilla's (2018) recent study and point to the need to provide parents with a lower educational level with enhanced support in order to empower them to participate to a greater extent in their children's bilingual education (Pérez Cañado, 2018a) (cf. Table 22).

	Mean		Standard deviation			
	No university studies	University studies	No university studies	University studies	R effect size	*p* value
Item 12	2.22	2.81	1.013	1.035	-.269	.021
Item 17	2.92	2.44	.862	.943	-.251	.035
Item 39	2.56	3.02	.847	.927	-.257	.030

Table 22. Statistically significant differences in terms of level of studies (parents)

5.4. Across-cohort comparison

The across-cohort comparison shows the difference between the three cohorts is highly significant (p <.001). Statistically significant differences (<.001 to .007) have been reported on 11 common questionnaire items. Regarding the first block (*students' use, competence and development of English in class*), the results indicate that the parents' cohort presents more satistically significant positive attitudes than teachers and students, who express less positive attitudes towards the following issues. They confirm that the Spanish language of their children has improved and their children show confidence in acquiring languages. Parents attribute this positive results to the participation of their children in the bilingual section. Furthermore, they contend that

their children have adequate English levels concerning the four English skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing) and their children are skilled in the socio-cultural and intercultural awareness aspects of the FL. On the block of *materials and resources*, the teachers' cohort has more positive perceptions than the student and parent cohorts. Teachers strongly agree that they employ bilingual materials that encourage communication in and out of the classroom, materials adapted for all needs of students, and online reference materials. Conversely, both students and parents held less positive attitudes towards materials, stating that they neither encourage communication nor cater to the varied levels and needs of learners, and that there is less use of online references in the bilingual class. Concerning *evaluation*, the student cohort declares that their teachers focus on the oral component in *evaluation*, while the teacher and parent cohorts emphatically disagree. In terms of the *training and information of teachers*, bilingual teachers see themselves as ranking high in comprehension and oral skills in the FL, while students and parents hold the opposite opinion. For the last items, parents' perceptions are significantly higher than teachers and students' perceptions. They agree that their children's teachers have an adequate level in reading and writing in the vehicular language (cf. Table 23).

		Mean	Standard deviation	P_{25}	P_{50} (Median)	P_{75}	*p* value
Item 4	Students	2.43	.872	2.00	2.00	3.00	.007
	Teachers	2.65	.799	2.00	3.00	3.00	
	Parents	2.71	.912	2.00	3.00	3.00	
Item 8	Students	2.98	.861	2.00	3.00	4.00	<.001
	Teachers	3.38	.676	3.00	3.00	4.00	
	Parents	3.61	.542	3.00	4.00	4.00	
Item 12	Students	3.39	.668	3.00	3.00	4.00	.005
	Teachers	3.30	.630	3.00	3.00	4.00	
	Parents	3.61	.542	3.00	4.00	4.00	
Item 13	Students	3.35	.632	3.00	3.00	4.00	<.001

	Teachers	3.17	.637	3.00	3.00	4.00	
	Parents	3.62	.514	3.00	4.00	4.00	
Item 14	Students	3.04	.727	3.00	3.00	4.00	.004
	Teachers	3.15	.692	3.00	3.00	4.00	
	Parents	3.30	.745	3.00	3.00	4.00	
Item 26	Students	2.82	1.006	2.00	3.00	4.00	<.001
	Teachers	3.29	.758	3.00	3.00	4.00	
	Parents	3.15	.788	3.00	3.00	4.00	
Item 27	Students	2.56	1.014	2.00	3.00	3.00	<.001
	Teachers	3.30	.689	3.00	3.00	4.00	
	Parents	2.80	.791	2.00	3.00	3.00	
Item 28	Students	3.16	.992	3.00	3.00	4.00	<.001
	Teachers	3.43	.658	3.00	3.00	4.00	
	Parents	2.76	.936	2.00	3.00	4.00	
Item 36	Students	3.05	.854	3.00	3.00	4.00	<.001
	Teachers	2.37	.978	2.00	2.00	3.00	
	Parents	2.95	.787	2.50	3.00	3.00	
Item 46	Students	3.05	.994	2.00	3.00	4.00	<.001
	Teachers	3.56	.603	3.00	4.00	4.00	
	Parents	3.32	.716	3.00	3.00	4.00	
Item 47	Students	3.13	.743	3.00	3.00	4.00	.001
	Teachers	3.23	.781	3.00	3.00	4.00	
	Parents	3.44	.642	3.00	4.00	4.00	

Table 23. Statistically significant differences in the across-cohort comparison
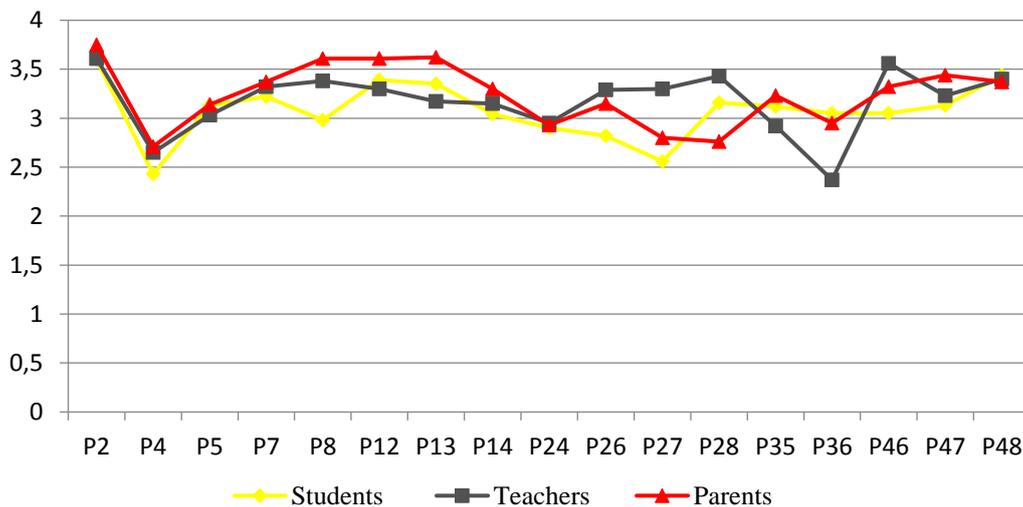
Graph 54. Across-cohort comparison

5.5. Interviews

5.5.1. Introduction

The data from the students' and teachers' interview protocols qualitatively completes and enriches the outcomes obtained in the previous questionnaires. Both students' and teachers' interview protocols contain the same ten thematic blocks, with each one having various sub-questions: first, L2 use in class; second, L2 development in class: discursive functions; third, competence development in class; fourth, methodology and types of groupings; fifth, materials and resources; sixth, coordination and organization; seventh, evaluation; eighth, teacher training and mobility; ninth, motivation and workload; and tenth, overall appraisal.

Interestingly, the results and findings of the interviews seem to be congruent with the students' and teachers' results from the survey data above. The data show homogenous and relevant results, especially when the two cohorts share mostly positive perspectives and have the fewest negative perspectives about the CLIL program.

A very wide range of students (who are the majority of participants) describe the bilingual section as effective and successful for learning. They believe that both learning content and acquiring the second language leads to effective communication, high performance, and good academic achievement. The bilingual education coordinators, non-linguistic area teachers, foreign language teachers, and teaching assistants have recognized the most important outcomes of the program. Additionally, they are well- informed about the CLIL approach.

5.5.2. Students' interview results

In terms of *the use of the second language (L2) in class*, all the students pointed out affirmatively that the proficiency level of English used by their teachers to provide instruction in a bilingual program depends on the types of teachers and the subjects they teach. It differs from one teacher to another, and not all their bilingual teachers have adequate English proficiency to be able to teach in English and clearly explain the content of the subject matter. Alternatively, students gave examples of how their language teachers and teaching assistants are very proficient in English and how they possess both the talent and the linguistic competence to explain clearly and teach effectively. These language teachers and assistants are definitely fluent and competent in English. According to the majority of students, some non-linguistic area teachers, especially teachers of Art and Music, do not have an adequate level of English and do not demonstrate mastery of the L2. The students also confirm that some of non-linguistic area teachers have poor English pronunciation because they do not have a sufficient command of English. The variety in levels of fluency reveals that the use of English also differs from one subject to another; furthermore, the percentage of English used in class varies between 50% to 100%, as reported by the students. They said that the percentage of English used also depends on the level of students' English proficiency, which pushes teachers to clarify concepts and vocabulary in Spanish. Some teachers teach through the medium of both the L1 and L2. They use the L1 to facilitate and to guide comprehension, to explain misunderstood information, and/or to translate new and difficult vocabulary into their primary language. According to other responses, non-linguistic area teachers use less English in certain classes, especially Citizenship, Music, and Physical Education classes, where teachers use both Spanish and English to

teach. The vast majority of students acknowledge that their level of English has improved as a result of their participation in the program. They are continually encouraged by teachers to use English for communication and interaction in class. Some students still feel embarrassed because of their perceived low proficiency in English or lack of confidence, and, sometimes, they are not encouraged enough to participate and generate ideas. In a few cases, students said that some teachers did not give them the opportunity to participate in class. They assumed that was due to the class size (there were more than 25 students in most of the classes visited by the author) and the length of classes (one hour per subject), which meant there was not enough time for all the students to participate as much as they would have liked. Regarding problems of learning content through English, most of the students replied that they have no difficulties learning content through English, since they start learning English at an early age. They see no difference between learning the subject through English or through Spanish. A few students responded that subjects such as Natural Sciences and Social Sciences become progressively more difficult each academic year because they have to concentrate on acquiring new terms and new specific vocabulary that they never heard in the past.

"Nuestro nivel de inglés es bastante alto para comunicarnos o participar en clase".

"Mi profesor de inglés escribe todos los días en la pizarra 'English only environment'".

"Los profesores de arte y música no pronuncian bien el inglés y usan bastante el español durante la clase".

"El vocabulario de Ciencias Naturales es cada vez más difícil de aprender o pronunciar".

With regard to *L2 development in class: discursive functions,* all the participating students replied that they use English in class through both transmissive and interactional methods. First, the bilingual teachers instruct students by introducing and presenting a topic and transmitting the knowledge in a systematic way. They involve the students by requiring them to recognize and recall relevant knowledge, which the students will later have to define in order to identify the important concepts. Bilingual teachers use a variety of activities to foster ways of solving problems, addressing questions, and explaining difficult concepts. In response, students ask questions and perform learning-related tasks. Students commented that their teachers consolidate and review their knowledge base about the topic and that they have to acquire information employing many learning strategies, such as discussing, explaining, and summarizing what they have learned, while focusing on the key points of the topic. Such teaching methodologies foster learning autonomy. Students see that their teachers focus on learner involvement and empowerment and on boosting learner reflection and responsibility. In parallel, English teachers and teaching assistants correct students' pronunciation and foster the expansion of their vocabulary to facilitate language acquisition. At this point of their English development, students are asked to interact with each other or with their teachers and to effectively apply their new knowledge. Students also compute, manipulate, and transform their knowledge base to situations and/or other subjects taught in English. Teachers provide feedback and constructive criticism, and encourage critical thinking in order to foster learning.

"Nuestros profesores usan varias actividades y temas diferentes donde se puede aprender más vocabulario".

For *competence development in class*, a large percentage of students had similar views about the development of linguistic, intercultural, and generic competences. In terms of language, there is a consensus on the use of both oral and written comprehension. As far as students are concerned, teachers help students in the classroom to read and to speak, giving them the opportunity to participate with their ideas and beliefs in English. Furthermore, they are engaged in collaborating on projects that provide opportunities to communicate their research in effective and interactive ways. Teachers choose themes and subjects that are relevant and of interest to the students, including current events and issues related to fashion, pollution, health, culture, and so forth. Most of these topics are related to their curriculum subjects. Bilingual students present their work by using posters, oral presentations, and sometimes PowerPoint presentations. These activities, according to the students, encourage them to develop their skills, to enhance their creativity, and to reflect critically on various issues and concepts. Teachers urge students to be active learners by asking questions and thinking about current events and issues. For example, English teachers and teaching assistants use metalinguistic and intercultural awareness activities to distinguish and differentiate cultural diversities. Also, students expand their interaction with peers from other countries, such as writing exchange letters with foreign students with whom they can share ideas and explore cultural issues.

"En las clases de inglés con los auxiliares de conversación trabajamos muchos conceptos culturales".

In response to *methodology and types of groupings*, students give differing responses. They say that not all teachers apply the same methodology or the same types of tasks; it simply depends on the subject, the classroom environment, and the digital equipment available. According to the participants, some teachers focus on innovative teaching methods that are student-centered and permit a higher order of cognitive processing that leads students to advance their intelligences and aptitudes. According to students, the teachers prepare activities that often demand group work and sometimes pair work. For instance, in English or in a tutorial class, teachers use scaffolding strategies for learning. Other teachers implement an activity called "think, imagine, and ask". In this activity, the teacher gives each group an image, or presents a text or a story, then asks each group of students to take time to think first, and then to imagine the situation or what has happened, and finally, as a last step, to learn by asking questions and discussing the stimulus. Through these types of scaffolding activities, students evaluate, make judgments, debate, and draw conclusions. Furthermore, students are encouraged to critically evaluate the style of learning and the teachers' materials and methods.

One of the core methods used in class is working in groups of three or four with students of different abilities and levels of intelligence, providing the opportunity to work cooperatively with the intent of promoting student discussion and active participation. Again, these kinds of groupings are used more in the English class than in classes where students traditionally work alone or in pairs, like Social Sciences or Natural Sciences. Students acknowledge that teachers use team-based project work in the classroom so that students learn from each other. In cooperative learning, they are

asked to help each other and to rely on each other's talents to achieve team goals without extra help from the teacher.

"Nos gusta mucho trabajar en grupos, porque ayuda a integrarnos en los temas y debatirlos de una manera activa que nos motive a participar".

In terms of *materials and resources,* most students replied that both authentic materials and adapted materials are used in class, such as authentic textbooks or texts found in youth magazines or newspapers. Students use them in class and are encouraged to read Anglophone authors at home. In one class, during *"la semana de la letras,"* they read about Shakespeare's *Hamlet*, to reflect on the culture of the target language. Teachers also introduced adapted texts to make the materials more accessible and suitable to the students' level of learning. In some subjects, such as Natural Sciences and Social Sciences, the students typically used original textbooks and materials designed by their teachers.

When discussing digital materials and ICT resources, not all of the students replied that they learned through wikis, blogs, and webquests. There is a lack of digital equipment in classes and sometimes they are not allowed to use their tablets or mobile devices in class. Students in some schools use a virtual platform to perform tasks, to do activities, and to keep in touch with teachers in order to receive news or information. Students use electronic whiteboards, but they said that not all the classes are fitted with this type of equipment. They said that they have the equipment in just one or two classes, but in other classrooms traditional blackboards are still used. In terms of eTwinning, although the majority of students did not know what eTwinning was, they

did use it to send letters, interact online, or to communicate through this medium with friends at schools in other countries.

"En las clases de Ciencias Naturales la mayoría del tiempo trabajamos en parejas; el espacio de la clase no permite formar grupos".

"¿eTwinning?, ni idea… intercambiamos cartas o chateamos con otros amigos de otros colegios".

For *coordination and organization,* students' responses alternated between yes and no, regarding the collaborative relationship that exists among all types of teachers. Some of them say that there is sufficient communication and coordination between the teachers involved in the bilingual program. They notice that there is more communication and collaboration between teaching assistants and English teachers than with other types of teachers. Students believe that teachers collectively discuss curriculum development and activities, students' issues, and problem-solving, and examine what fosters or hinders students' learning. Furthermore, teachers discuss the schedules and grades for exams and tests.

"…yo diría que sí, pero hay más comunicación y colaboración entre el profesor de inglés y el auxiliar de conversación".

Turning to *evaluation*, the majority of students affirmed that teachers use common methods of assessment, as well as different measurements to assess the quality of students' achievement. They use formative and summative evaluation. They prepare objective tests which include multiple choice, true-false, and matching types of questions. Although subject content is the first and most important issue for evaluation,

teachers also take into account linguistic aspects, such as grammar, spelling, pronunciation, and fluency. Evaluation is carried out in class, emphasizing written aspects to examine the understanding and the comprehension of topics and concepts being taught, and to scrutinize writing styles. The exams have greater weight for the final grade and they are measured in percentages, with 70% and 80% given for written exams and tests, and 30% or 20% for participation and attitude. In the students' view, English teachers are more demanding linguistically when English is the only language spoken in the class. Some students divide the evaluation into exams, participation, and attitude, as well as books and homework. A few students mentioned the linguistic concepts needed to sustain oral and speaking skills. Acquiring the L2 is more important than content and it is prioritized in English class, which means that English teachers foster L2 skills and linguistic competence more than content.

"Los profesores siempre nos evalúan mediante examen escrito, cuenta la participación y también evalúan nuestra actitud en la clase".

In response to *teacher training and mobility,* students' opinions varied. They claimed that a few teachers have participated in bilingual program training and have experienced mobility and exchanges, while others have not. They noticed that the teachers who have had this experience are good at planning lessons and presenting a variety of activities that promote an elevated level of learning. This made for better teaching in all subjects, because of their additional training. However, other students said that the majority of their teachers had no training or did not participate in courses or go abroad to learn how to teach English in an innovative way. In terms of student mobility, students believed that, generally, there is scant attention paid to mobility either by the schools or by families. A few students have participated in an exchange program

and they considered the experience very enjoyable and motivating. Through this experience, they acquired English in a new environment and in new active ways that enriched their linguistic background, providing them with a much more comprehensible language experience than they could have achieved by learning English solely in the classroom. They benefited from having new native-English speaking friends with whom they could exchange cultural experiences.

When students gain English skills from interactions, it advances their future careers. Therefore, language learning programs must be effective in reinforcing students' learning. Students who experience intensely interactive learning in English expand their knowledge across all subject areas, enrich their L2, extend cognitive aspects of their learning, actively develop linguistic aspects of their learning, and show competency in the L2. Most bilingual learners are very enthusiastic to participate in an exchange program. They are encouraged by their parents and their families. Parents coax them to travel and to visit other families in other countries in order to make friends with native English speakers. Students said this is a superb experience that supports learning and broadens opportunities, including learning a third language.

"Claro, mi madre me anima a ir fuera y conocer otras culturas, sobre todo para practicar mi inglés".

In relation to *motivation and workload*, not all the students had the same views. Some of them said that learning through English is normal and they do not see it as unusual. After many years in the bilingual program, it becomes normal to learn in the L2. However, they report having fewer lessons and content in English than in other subjects taught in Spanish and they desire that all the subjects be taught in English. In

contrast, other students responded that there really is an added workload in that they have to acquire new L2 features every day, such as new terminology in Social Science and Natural Science classes. Additionally, they are routinely asked to look up difficult vocabulary and try to learn how to pronounce it correctly and to be familiar with vocabulary in an array of contexts and contents, such as Music, Arts, or Physical Education. These factors diminish some student interest and enthusiasm on the part of the student to learn a subject in English.

Large numbers of students say that they are highly motivated to learn through English as the language of instruction. English increases the influence on motivation, which is paramount for the learning process. As such, motivation has improved their academic performance. Furthermore, the methods by which they learn, such as cooperative learning and the emphasis on critical thinking and creativity, amplify the students' motivation and enthusiasm to continue studying in the bilingual section. They appreciate the program and express happiness at learning English and developing communication skills. Through CLIL, they are learning strategies which allow them to use and to improve their language skills and their learning prowess for years to come, which will ideally be reflected in enhanced creative abilities and self-confidence.

Finally, o*verall appraisal* in the interviews determines students' attitudes and beliefs about challenges within the bilingual program. A few students reported that there are some drawbacks about the project. Some students admit to struggling to learn two languages simultaneously and falter and mix linguistic codes, switching from one language to another when they want to speak or express ideas or needs. Concurrently, they are obliged to face linguistic and cognitive demands while also meeting required levels of fluency and academic performance. If they are asked to learn a second

language autonomously, they may struggle to learn and to search for knowledge which interferes with skill development. Additionally, a change of teaching assistants is particularly unhelpful for struggling students, because it takes time for them to adapt to different accents in English.

Conversely, there are outstanding strengths about the bilingual program, as students highlighted. They affirm that the bilingual program supports their self-improvement and has a great impact on their learning both language and content subjects. Students indeed benefit from learning two languages simultaneously: Spanish as L1 and English as L2. Most importantly, they are acquiring language and literacy from different types of teachers, such as native-English speaking teachers, which expose them to other varieties of accents and different cultures, which, in turn, helps them learn to easily interact with the world. They experience a positive impact on cognitive development and thinking skills, linguistic and communicative skills, and feelings of independence and competence.

In summary, for almost all students, bilingual sections are a success. It is evident that having students learn a second language adds great value to both their personal and future professional growth. In light of the students' views, learning in a CLIL program is very fruitful (Gerena & Ramírez-Verdugo, 2014). Students gain social abilities and become competent bilingual speakers. They are improving cognitive skills and critical thinking competencies. These skills and improvements are extremely important for business, education, and success in contributing back to society as a working adult.

5.5.3. Teachers' interview results

Interviewing four types of instructors - –head teachers, non-linguistic area teachers, foreign language teachers, and teaching assistants– permitted us to decode the main outcomes. The author recorded interviews with more than 90 bilingual teachers. They all participated very enthusiastically, sharing their own experiences to answer adequately and deeply all ten interview blocks. Thus, the data presented here can be considered clear, thorough, and reliable qualitative data about CLIL.

In regards to *L2 use in class,* the majority of teachers emphasize that their level of English is suitable or high enough to be involved in the program; they claimed that "Our level of English for giving lessons is right and adequate". They use English differently, depending on the group and level of their students. Non-linguistic area teachers try to use the language as much as they could. They estimated that between 75% and 90% of the classes are taught in English. Foreign English teachers and teaching assistants used English 95% and 100% of the time, because immersion is the key to increasing the students' spoken English. According to some teachers, the other 5% of the time was in Spanish, as needed to discuss and explain to a few students who were not advanced English speakers. Their presence gave the students confidence to speak better and to continue to improve. However, teachers were able to use English with most classes, even at the weaker and lower levels.

The level of English used by students in the bilingual sections is definitely considered to be high. The students are generally highly motivated with an adequate cultural background, so they are normally participative and interested in different subjects. Other teachers consider their students' English level to have improved as a

result of their participation in a bilingual program. Some content has probably not been attained at the same level as it would have been had the students been taught in their L1. Depending on the group and the students, teachers said that around 70% of the students make an effort to use English in class.

A large percentage of teachers believed that students in the bilingual section groups generally improved. Students master the content to a certain extent. From the teachers' experience, some students, in general, have problems speaking English, not because of their lack of knowledge, but rather because of their shyness and their lack of desire to expose themselves in certain situations. According to all the bilingual teachers interviewed, most students want to improve and they use English to communicate; however, on a few occasions, they will use Spanish, because the teachers want the students to use terms in their own language also. Sometimes, they do not know the word in English and they say it in Spanish. They expand their English, because they are learning specific terminology about Music or Arts. Teaching assistants, as native English speakers, use only English in class and encourage students to do so. Through the bilingual program, their students' level of English and understanding of the subject content in English has definitely improved. Usually, they do not have problems to learn everything in both languages, but sometimes students do not understand and need help.

Most teachers report that their students participate often and this is important to improve their English. The students participate and use English the majority of the time. When students use Spanish, teachers encourage them to speak in English using words they already know in response. The students try to participate, they are not afraid of making mistakes, and they like this goal. Students want to make themselves understood in English.

"Sin duda el nivel de inglés de los profesores es muy alto y adecuado para enseñar".

Regarding the block for *L2 development in class: discursive functions*, all the teachers documented that English is used for transmission and interactional features. If there is any confusion in student understanding about what they are communicating, they repeat any explanation and simplify their explanation until they have confirmed complete student understanding. If they need to communicate individually with a student outside class, they do it, but on very rare occasions. Other teachers acknowledge that they use Spanish when explaining key points to avoid risky situations, especially when related to safety. They also use Spanish to explain some work and, in a few cases, some non-linguistic teachers explain the exams in Spanish. A few teachers rarely give the students writing tasks and activities in Spanish. The strategy of explaining in English is used purely for explaining tasks, homework, tests, and other learning activities. They use demonstrations in class to reinforce both English and subject matter meaning and to address the objectives. They use problem-solving activities as a way of warming up and engaging students. They also follow up on learning concepts and give feedback to students at the end of class to check for understanding.

"Uso el español solo para explicar palabras claves y evitar situaciones arriesgadas".

Regarding the third question, *competence development in class,* it is necessary to denote that all the teachers focus on keeping the students active and creative, and emphasize oral comprehension, written production, and critical thinking. Oral comprehension is key to improving pronunciation and critical thinking and it is the learning baseline from which students learn how to approach problems while acquiring

English. Techniques include giving feedback through peer assessment and improving oral skills by ending each lesson with practice in asking and answering questions about the lesson. Other teachers, for example, Physical Education ones, primarily develop oral production, oral communication skills, and oral comprehension. Thanks to practical activities, teachers also develop written production exercises and from time to time, they use written texts and work on written skills, such as comprehension, production, and memorizing.

It is evident that teachers select their own *methodology and types of groupings* to approach their style of teaching. Most, if not all the cohorts, report that, depending on the class content, they try to make their classes as dynamic as possible. As a teacher-directed class, they tend to provide more task-based language learning and open-ended single answer activities. When they present regular group or pair work, lessons usually require more creativity, through projects or interactive games, in which students must memorize new terms and be creative to win the game. Autonomous work is usually promoted in writing activities. However, regardless of the lesson content or methodology, cooperative learning is key: that is to say, there is an emphasis on listening to one another and sharing knowledge and background information. Teachers like implementing pair work, so students can learn how to identify errors and help their peers' improvement. Students develop ideas and learn from one another's mistakes through sharing. Other teachers use a combination of the above-mentioned methodologies, with an emphasis on project-based learning when they teach English culture, so students can focus on how the language is used in different ways of life.

Some teachers reveal that their methodology is mainly traditional: it is teacher directed and it employs fewer cognitive processes and innovative methods. Nonetheless,

they keep working to introduce interactive, recreational, and student-centered activities to advance higher level cognitive processes. They hardly use pair work or group work, because of the length of the class and the huge number of students. Overall, the focus of teachers in class is on group work, where students can assess each other. Students have the opportunity to analyze their learning and identify strengths and weaknesses. They take on different roles and responsibilities regarding their work.

Regarding *materials and resources*, some teachers report that there is a serious lack of online resources and digital media in class. Many report that there are few interactive resources available due to financial issues and that some classes still use blackboards. Therefore, they feel limited in their ability to introduce some content, because of the absence of digital equipment such as computers, TVs, and electronic whiteboards. They use only textbooks, workbooks, and exam books. Some other teachers say that these kinds of books are too demanding for the students. On the other hand, other teachers use different materials and make sure their teaching methods incorporate modern technology to reflect the society in which their students live. Some teachers design their own websites as virtual platforms to integrate students easily in the process of learning. They also encourage students to use online materials to benefit from speaking and listening in English, using tablets, mobile devices, and the Internet. As far as eTwinning and portfolios are concerned, there are several differences in the results. The outcomes reveal that most of the teachers are not familiar with these tools of learning and teaching; or, they may have heard about them, but they lack the information and knowledge about how to use these kinds of tools in class. Concerning the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages, the majority of teachers highlighted that they prepare students for exams and test their level of English

and their achievement in learning the language. They recognize that CEFRL aids learners in knowing their language proficiency and ability and they report that most of the students reach the threshold or intermediate level.

In connection with *coordination and organization,* there is constant communication between some teachers and the other bilingual teachers, as well as with the bilingual coordinator. Some English teachers admit that they probably have even more contact with the other bilingual program members, since they have to keep up and help them with all the courses, plus, they work as a co-teacher with the other English teachers. Some teachers said that conversation draws on all the major disciplines in order to show the different ways English can be implemented. There appears to be sufficient communication between bilingual staff. There are regular and productive bilingual meetings. For example, at their monthly bilingual meetings, they exchange ideas and projects to work on together. Others believe that communication and coordination between involved teachers is excellent despite the fact there is a lack of time to meet officially. They receive adequate support from the school, taking into account economic limitations. Although teachers document that authorities in education could make a greater contribution, they have never had personal contact with education authorities.

Results do not vary much with regard to *evaluation,* as answers from teachers are usually consistent. Teachers focus on assessing students' attitudes in the classroom. Students are given opportunities to identify how they can improve oral communication and reflect on their oral production progress. Other teachers carry out evaluation in class through daily observation and record student attitudes towards activities, learning partners, and aspects related to the content itself, such as different skills performance,

252

productions, and reproductions. Instruments used in class to evaluate the students' learning include oral questions, written questions, interviews, and proactive tests focusing 100% on the content and on the linguistic aspects. The majority of cohorts use different percentages for grading. They evaluate the students' learning through this final grade: 20% attitudes, 50% practice, and 30% theory. Teachers evaluate formatively, summatively, and diversely, paying attention to the learning process and being constructive in all their assessments.

English subject teachers assess different aspects. Included in the final grade of the students are, obviously, the four skills: listening, speaking, reading, and writing, as well as grammar and vocabulary, and the students' attitudes to the subjects. Each of these aspects are given equal percentages (20%). Others' evaluations are heavily based on participation, because they need to see students speaking and participating voluntarily. Speaking is evaluated through participation, use of vocabulary and grammar, and classroom attitudes. Reading is evaluated through pronunciation and fluency. Writing is evaluated through content accuracy, organization, reader understanding, and vocabulary and grammar. By introducing all these skills, they can assess how students are becoming better speakers. English teachers focus on oral aspects of language, including speaking and pronunciation, in addition to writing skills and comprehension, which are evaluated by exams, observation, participation, and homework.

For *teacher training and mobility,* unfortunately, most of the teachers said that, at least in this case, they were provided with no training or information in this area. They have shown no improvement in their teaching skills and they are not familiar with recent pedagogical methods. A few teaching assistants and English teachers have been

working for the past five years in many different classroom settings, so they think they definitely have the experience to continue working successfully in the CLIL program. However, they could progress and they would benefit from training in student-centered methodologies and ICT use. Some teachers think they have acquired sufficient training to be English bilingual teachers and know they have additional opportunities to receive specific training. Furthermore, they have participated in many courses in Spain and abroad. They believe the greatest benefit is obtained through an immersion program in a foreign country. Yet, few teachers have studied education in the US, or have been exposed to different models of teaching, although they have the talent and the capability to use ICT in class.

Regarding *motivation and workload,* more than half of the instructors do not believe there is a greater workload, but rather just a "cultural barrier to break as some students said it was difficult to express themselves," according to some bilingual teachers. The bilingual program is a productive way for students to gain proficiency and fluency in the L2. Some teachers benefit from working with native-English teachers and teaching assistants. They believe that every year more and more students are speaking English. They appear to be generally interested and motivated. They welcome challenges, as this type of work is exciting and meaningful. On the other hand, other teachers believe that the bilingual program has a greater workload, naturally, but they find it to be extremely rewarding and motivating. They see the results of that work in small and large amounts almost every day, acknowledging that those accomplishments help to better motivate students. They also think that a bilingual classroom has the capability to be much livelier than a traditional classroom, and that, in itself, is motivating for students.

Other teachers, however, strongly declare that a bilingual program entails a greater workload. It is more challenging to organize their materials and lessons for teaching, they must be more proficient in English, and they have to learn more linguistic aspects to fulfill language objectives. They still are unclear as to the extent this extra workload is worth it in terms of students' learning. They said that what feels most important is that they achieve their subject matter goals. They are motivated to participate in CLIL, and they see that some students are motivated. They face different student proficiency levels and this complicates teaching. Besides, some teachers report, the size of the class is neither suitable for teaching and using ICT materials, or for encouraging creativity.

In their *overall appraisal,* teachers hold a significantly more positive view of the bilingual program. They admit that students are slowly becoming bilingual in two languages: Spanish and English. Most of the teachers believe that this program is worth it. It is a new opportunity for change and for learning languages through new pedagogical practices and technological devices. It not only increases students' progress and satisfies their desire to learn more effectively, but also increases teachers' improvement.

Overall, teachers are very satisfied with the program, but native-English speaking teachers wish they could focus more on specific groups, for longer periods of time, throughout Primary and Secondary courses. The program needs more time, and, with consistency and reinforcement of the importance of English, more significant progress should be made in the future. According to most of the teachers, many things can be done to improve the program, such as reducing the student-to-teacher ratio in

order to avoid over-populated classrooms. More support needs to be given by educational authorities to enrich the program.

5.6. Classroom observation results

To expand on issues related to the *use of L2, English level of teachers*, classroom observation reveals that the linguistic competence of teachers is split into three levels: B2, C1, and C2. A large percentage of teachers (86%) have an advanced level between C1 (36%) and C2 (50%). Only 14% of teachers have a B2 level (item 1)
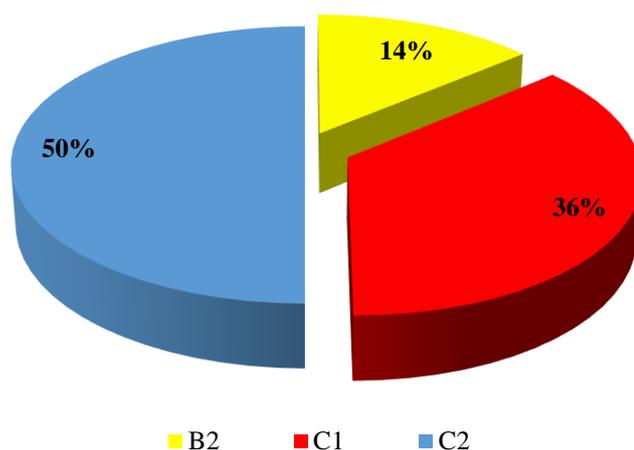
(cf. Graph 55).

Graph 55. English level of teachers

Secondly, teachers who are at these two advanced levels are able to use the greatest percentage of English in the classroom. From the graph below, it can easily be seen that 81% of teachers tend to use English between 75% and 100% of the time and only 19% use English between 50% and 75% of the time (item 2) (cf. Graph 56).
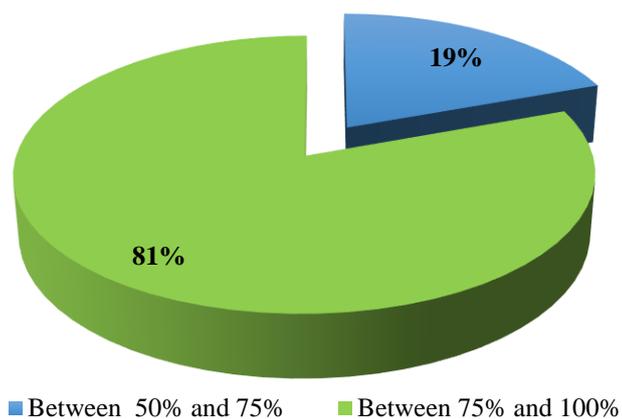
Graph 56. Percentage of English used by teachers

Concerning item 3, half of the teachers translate *little* into Spanish in the classroom, 36% translate *nothing into Spanish*, and only a small percentage (14%) translate into Spanish *sufficiently* (cf. Graph 57).
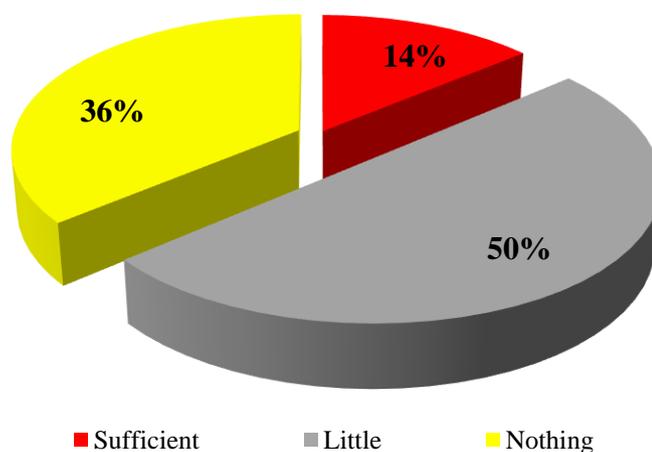
Graph 57. Teacher translation from Spanish into English

For item 4, more than half of the teachers rarely practice code-switching in a reasonable and systematic way (*Little*); 22% of teachers never use this technique (*Nothing*); and only a small percentage (17%) of the teachers use code-switching enough (*Sufficient*) (cf. Graph 58).
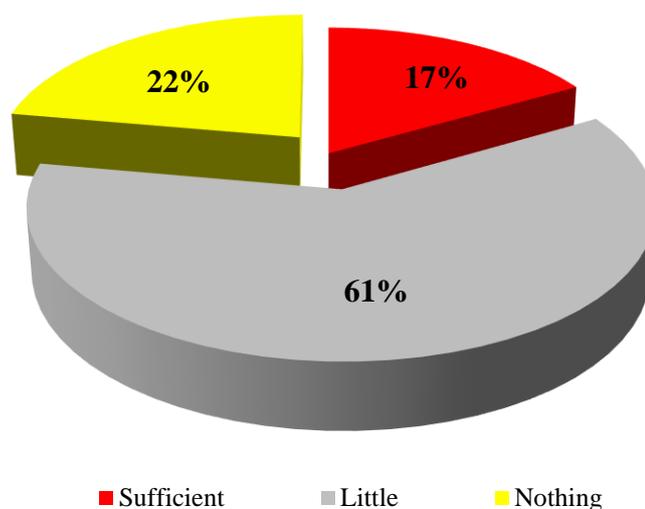
Graph 58. Teacher practice of code-switching

For item 5, the majority of students have an adequate level of linguistic competence. Their levels are rated as *A lot* (47%), *Sufficient* (44%), and *Little* (8%) (cf. Graph 59).

■ A lot   ■ Sufficient   ■ Little
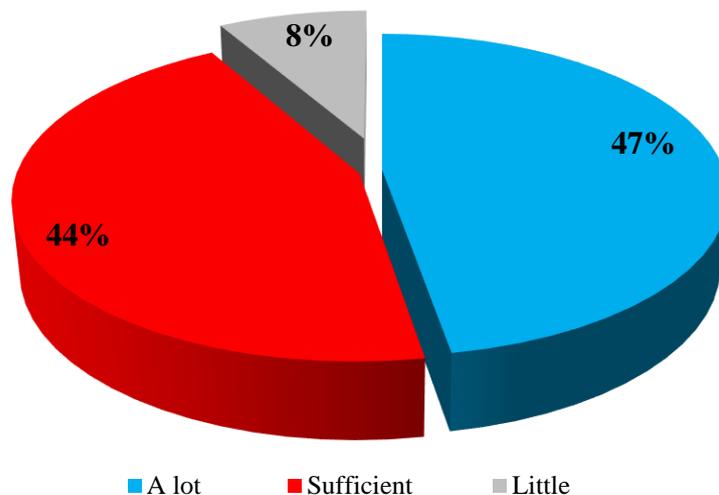
Graph 59. Level of linguistic competence of the students

The percentage of English used by students is very high: 72% of students use English between 75% and 100% of the time; 25% of students use English between 50% and 75% of the time; and, 3%, the lowest percentage, use English between 25% and 50% of the time. There were no participants who were identified in the lowest range (between 0% and 25%) of English usage in the classroom (item 6) (cf. Graph 60).

■ Between 0% and 25%   ■ Between 25% and 50%
■ Between 50% and 75%   ■ Between 75% and 100%
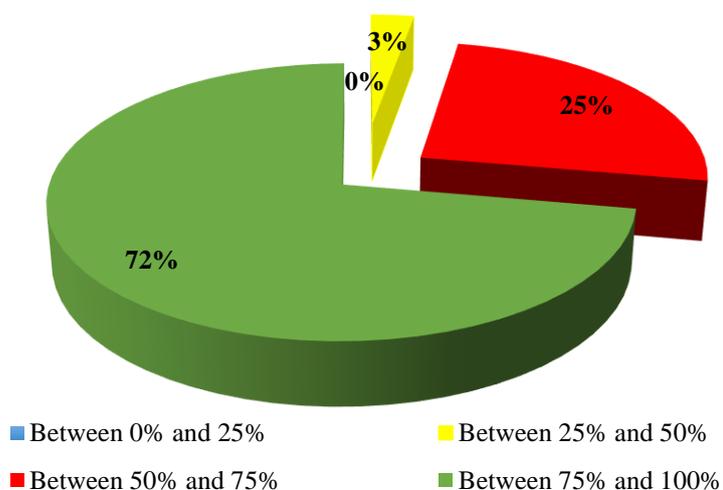
Graph 60. Percentage of English used by students

Regarding item 7, students translate from Spanish to English in class *little* (64%), *nothing* 16%, and only quarter of the students do that in a *sufficient* way (cf. Graph 61).
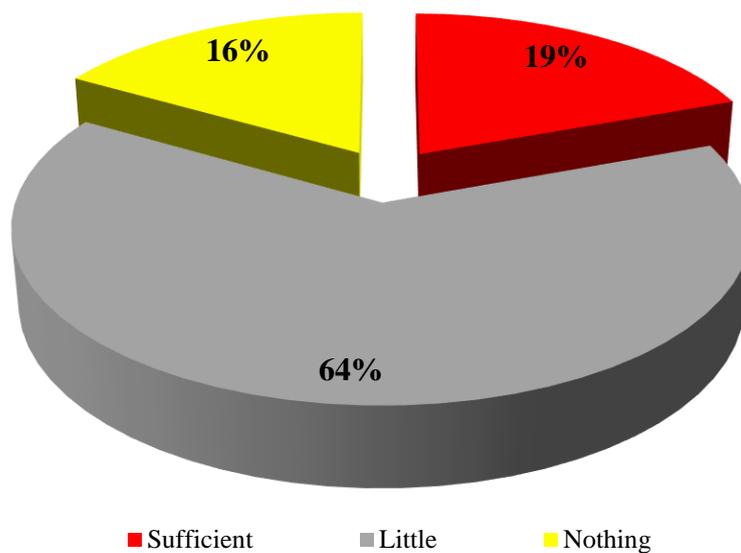
Graph 61. Student translation from Spanish into English

Additionally, 61% of the students practice code-switching in a reasonable and systematic way (*Little*), and 31% use code-switching *sufficiently,* while 8% of students do not do not use this learning strategy at all (item 8) (cf. Graph 62).
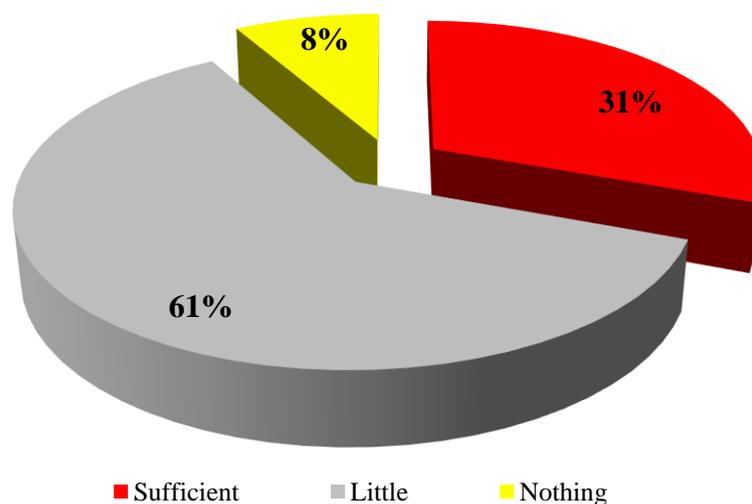
Graph 62. Student practice of code-switching

With respect to the *L2 development in class* of *discursive functions,* English is used liberally. It is notable that English is used and developed at a high percentage rate for all occurrences of transmissive or interactional communication. An overwhelming majority of the teachers observed (92%) use English a lot to give instructions (item 9). In addition, almost all the bilingual teachers observed in the class used English when presenting a topic (item10), transmitting content (item11), doing activities (item 12), responding to questions and doubts (item 13), asking questions (item 14), correcting tasks (item 15), and consolidating and reviewing content knowledge (item 16). Furthermore, the majority of the teachers use English a lot and quite a lot (more than 80%) for the last three items: organization of distinct groups (item 17), interacting with students/teachers (item 18), and applying and transferring knowledge to other situations, such as providing feedback (item 19) (cf. Graph 63).
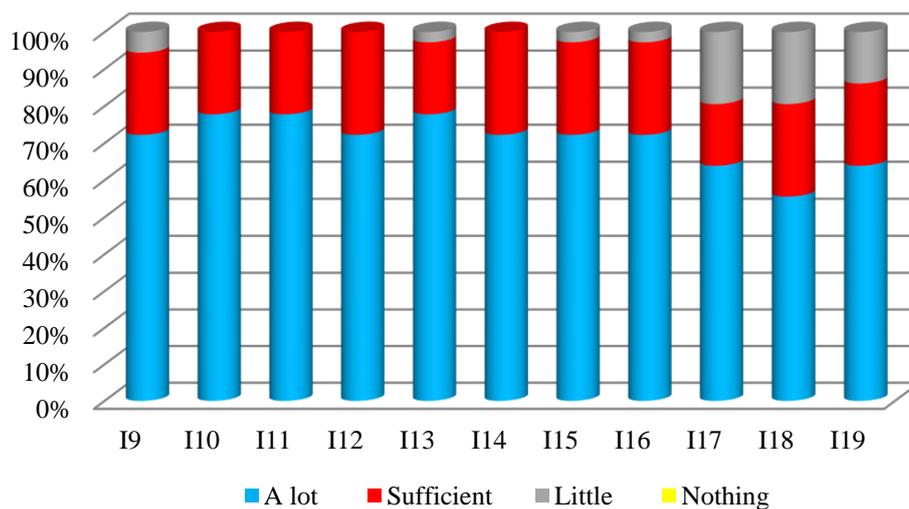
Graph 63. L2 development in class: discursive functions

Regarding *competence development in class,* linguistic competencies developed in class range between *a lot* and *sufficient*, as displayed in the graph. For items 20 and 21, almost all the foreign language and non-linguistic teachers focus on oral comprehension and oral production *a lot*. Written comprehension (item 22) and written production (item 23) are used *a lot* and *sufficiently* —the latter two items present equally high percentages (98%). Again, all participants (100%) practice oral communicative interaction (listening and speaking); they also use written communicative interaction (reading and writing) *a lot* and *sufficiently* (items 24 and 25). Generic and intercultural competencies developed in class also ranged between the categories of *sufficient* (42%) and *a lot* (56%). These items include competencies such as critical thinking (item 26), creativity (item 27), learner autonomy (item 28), and metalinguistic awareness (item 29), which have an almost equal frequency. More than

half of the instructors identify the last item (item 30), intercultural awareness, as being used *a lot* and *sufficiently*, and a third use it in class *little* (cf. Graph 64).
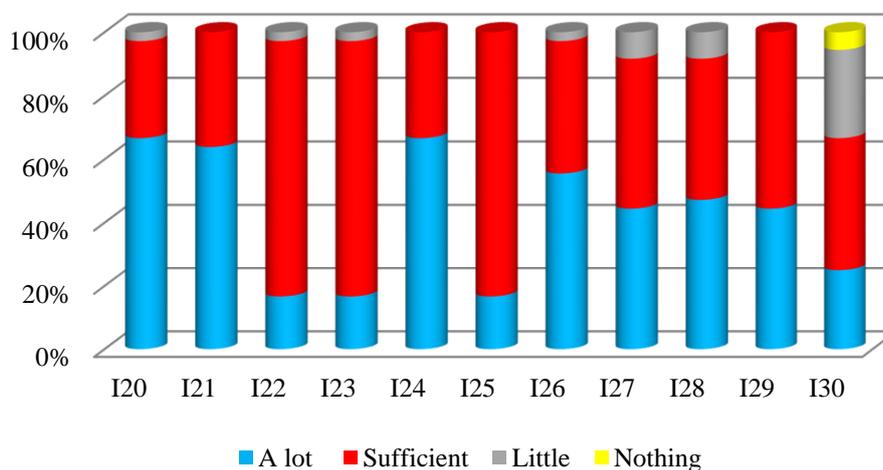
Graph 64. Competencies development in class

For *methodologies and types of groupings,* the results obtained vary greatly. For task-based language teaching (item 31) and project-based learning (item 32), the majority of the teachers use these two teaching methodologies *a lot* and *sufficiently*. Again, the same amount of the teachers prioritize the lexical approach in the classroom (item 33) *a lot* and *sufficiently*. Cooperative learning is used almost at the same rate: it is rated as employed in class either *a lot* or *sufficiently* (item 34). Of the participating teachers, 86% use a transmission method of grammar (item 35) *little*. In contrast, the Audiolingual method (item 36) is used in class *sufficiently*. As far as activities are concerned, the majority of the cohort employed open activities in class (item 37) *sufficiently,* and a quarter use this kind of activity *a lot*; in contrast, single answer activities (item 38) were used *little*. With activities that involve disciplinary competencies such as memorizing, understanding, and applying (item 39), close to half

of the teachers appreciate their implementation. Activities that entail analyzing, evaluating, and creating are used at a high rate (by the whole cohort) (item 40). Almost all the teachers promote linguistic learning, such as paraphrasing, repetition, giving examples, and definitions or synonyms (item 41). In addition, the author observed that, with high frequency, most of the teachers encouraged the students to use comprehension techniques to solve linguistic comprehension problems (item 42). More than half of the cohort followed CEFRL recommendations *a lot* and *sufficiently* (item 43), and close to a third used those recommendations *little*. A low percentage of the teachers used the European Language Portfolio *little* (item 44), and a high percentage did not use it at all. Almost half of the teachers used lockstep lecturing (item 45) in class, and 39% implemented it *little*. Rounding up the discussion of this section with types of groupings, the most dominant types in class were as follows: pair work (item 47) was utilized *sufficiently* at a rate of 67%; it was followed by group work (item 46) at 47% and a quarter used it *a lot*; and finally, autonomous work (item 48) was used in class *little* (64%) and a quarter of the instructors used it *sufficiently* (cf. Graph 65).
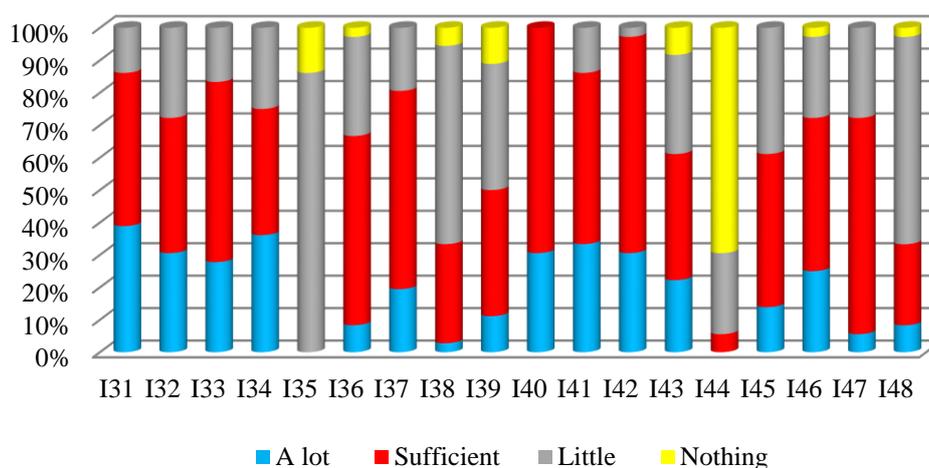
Graph 65. Methodology and types of groupings

In the block pertaining to *materials and resources*, a great majority of the teachers used and adapted authentic materials (item 49), adapted materials for bilingual teaching (item 50), and used original materials designed by the teachers (item 51). Attention to the diversity in materials (item 52) is taken into consideration *sufficiently* by 72% of the teachers, when bilingual teaching materials are being introduced. Regarding online and digital equipment, the rate varied a lot. Multimedia software and online reference materials (items 53 and 54) were used in class by more than a half of the teachers *a lot* and *sufficiently,* and a third of instructors used them *little* or *nothing*. Blogs, wikis, and webquests were used in class by only a third of the teachers *sufficiently*, and the rest of teachers used them very sparsely (item 55). Interactive whiteboards (item 56) were used in class at a very low frequency; only 8% used computer-mediated communication in class, including e-Twinning *e* (item 57). Our
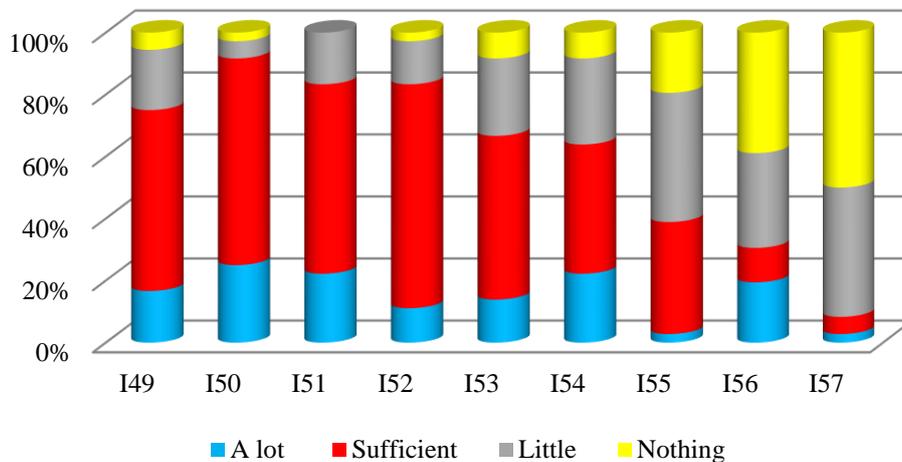
observation of classroom practices thus mirrors what teachers and students reported was occurring in class through the questionnaires and interviews, thereby evincing harmony among the results obtained via our three instruments (cf. Graph 66).

Graph 66. Materials and resources

265

Turning now to *coordination and organization*, half of the teachers consider there is sufficient communication and coordination between the non-linguistic area teachers and teaching assistants (item 58). Similarly, sufficient communication and coordination appears to exist between about half of the non-linguistic area and language teachers (item 59). In the lessons observed, there is highly sufficient communication and coordination between language teachers and teaching assistants (item 60), and the teachers were nearly at this same rate with respect to integration and developing the integrated curriculum for languages (item 61). On average, the majority of the teachers supported linguistic knowledge in the content class (62), and the majority of the participants supported content knowledge in language class (item 63). Remarkably,
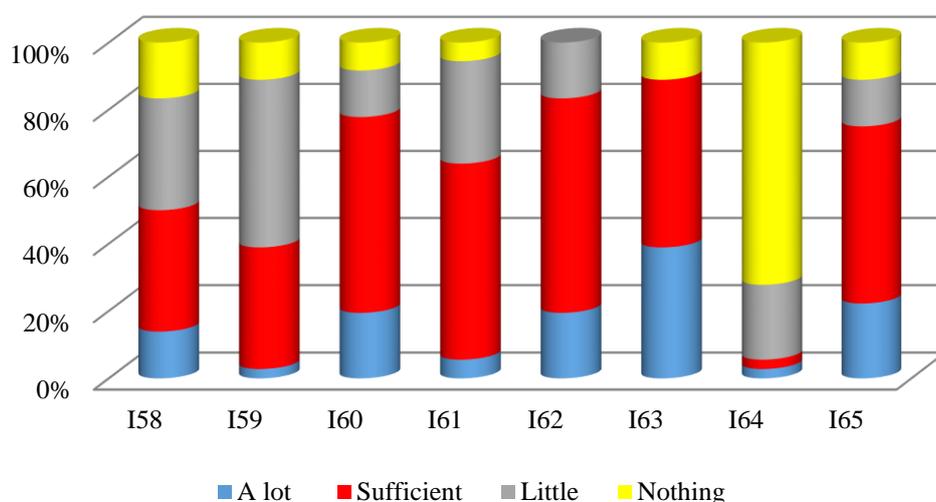
there was a very high rate (72%) who rated *Nothing* in regard to emphasizing the connection between L1, L2, and L3 (item 64), while nearly a quarter of teachers emphasized the connection *little*. Finally, the majority of the teachers collaborated in the elaboration and the preparation of materials in a *sufficient* way (item 65) (cf. Graph 67).

Graph 67. Coordination and organization

266

As for the last block on *evaluation*, the bilingual instructors prioritized bilingual content knowledge in English over English competence in evaluation —the rate ranged between *sufficient* (44%) and *a lot* (56%) (item 66). The oral component is included in evaluation (item 67) either *sufficiently* or *a lot*. The majority of the teachers applied and

Graph 68. Evaluation
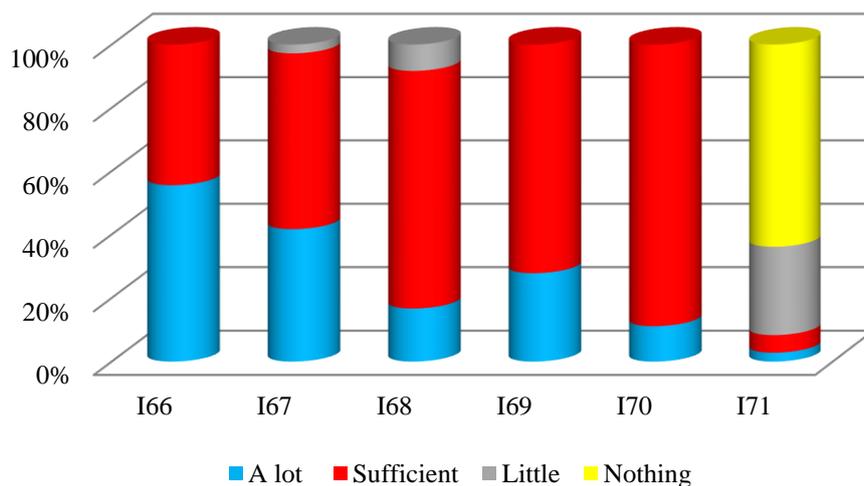
practiced a diversified evaluation (item 68) *sufficiently*, formative evaluation (item 69) *sufficiently*, and a very high percentage of the teachers (about 89%) practiced summative evaluation in class (item 70) *sufficiently*. The results also show that only 28% of teachers fostered self-assessment (e.g., through the European Language Portfolio) (item 71) *little*, and the majority not at all (cf. Graph 68).

CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSIONS

This investigation has allowed us to evaluate and measure the levels of satisfaction of students, teachers, and parents with the CLIL program in the autonomous community of Madrid. The study has provided an in-depth exploration of the objective and research questions posed in chapter 4, heading 4.2. The empirical findings in this study have been uncovered using qualitative methodological triangulation (questionnaires, interviews, and classroom observation protocols) and descriptive and inferential statistical methods. This combined methodology has provided us with important implications about the functioning of the bilingual English-Spanish program within the second grade of Compulsory Secondary Education in the region of Madrid. More than 908 participants (bilingual teachers, bilingual students, and parents) have taken part in this study.

The study has revealed important outcomes and significantly consistent trends. These outcomes have been found in respondents' perceptions of *students' competence, use and development of English in class; methodology; materials and resources; evaluation; teachers' use, competence and development of English in class; teacher training and information; mobility; improvement and motivation towards learning English;* and *coordination and organization.* The data has revealed that stakeholders are highly satisfied with Content and language Integrated Learning (CLIL), with the exception of a few cases where some of the perceptions of the three cohorts are less satisfactory.

The vast majority of participants strongly concur that learning in CLIL strands provides linguistic improvement and achievement, greater participation, and high motivation. These results therefore attest to the success of bilingual education in

promoting broader academic achievement. This positive result is consistent with other positive studies in Madrid, in some Spanish communities, and throughout Europe (Dalton-Puffer, 2011; De Graaff et al., 2007; Gerena & Ramírez-Verdugo, 2014; Lancaster, 2016; Lasagabaster & Doiz, 2016; Llinares and Dafouz, 2010; Lorenzo et al., 2009; Pérez Cañado, 2011).

However, findings from the study also underscore two important issues of concern. The first is that half of the students would not like more use of English. This could be attributed to the fact that most of the students have been in the CLIL program since the very beginning of Primary school. Also, it might be that they consider themselves to possess a high attainment level in English proficiency. Thus, for them having more English subjects is unnecessary since they can already hold fluent conversations in English. Secondly, it would be meaningful to investigate why half of the students cannot determine if their mother tongue has improved or not due to their participation in bilingual sections.

Let us now summarize the main findings pertaining to each of our research questions. The first RQ was the following: *What are the teachers', students', and parents' perceptions of the way in which the Bilingual Schools' Program is functioning at all curricular and organizational levels?* Generally speaking, the findings testify to the high level of satisfaction of the three participants in the bilingual section. Exploring all the data gleaned from the questionnaires as regards the three cohorts - teachers, parents, and students -, we find that there is agreement among the majority of the three participating groups that students' use, competence, and improvement of English in a bilingual program is higher and more satisfactory. They underscore that evaluation is

269

practiced in a correct way, and CLIL methodology is functioning well in the classroom. They also reflect greater confidence, improvement, and achievements in learning both content and English. To some extent, this is what Lancaster (2016) highlighted in her research when she stated that "the CAM bilingual project in Madrid has reported an increase in motivation, self-esteem and confidence amongst all stakeholders" (p. 149). The second major finding that the study unveils is the mixed evidence about students' Spanish improvement; half of the students and nearly half of the teachers and parents disagree that the students' mother tongue (Spanish) has improved due to this bilingual education. This finding leaves us with a difficult decision to make about whether participating in a bilingual program really helps students to improve their mother tongue or not, and whether there is a positive or a negative impact on the students' mother tongue. Surprisingly, half of the students do not welcome the use of more English and half of teachers are in agreement because some of their students do not show interest in learning more English. This lack of interest in learning English might be because students consider themselves to already have a high level of English, and that they already have linguistic accuracy and fluency in learning the L2. When it comes to bilingual teaching materials and resources, quite a significant number of students and more than half of the teachers and parents declare a serious need for online material and digital equipment. For them, materials do not include some of the Spanish guidelines to help students in understanding complex English, and parents complain about the high price of materials. Indeed, more attention is needed for curriculum development such as materials and textbooks used to teach through CLIL. Another important finding is related to the shortcomings of mobility programs. A remarkable rate, i.e., more than half of the three cohorts, admitted that there is a lack of mobility or lack of programs that

open doors for exchange programs abroad. In addition, almost all of the teachers need more training.

We next examine the second RQ: *Do the results obtained from the interviews and classroom observation conducted go in line with those gathered from the stakeholders?* We have concluded, from the interviews and classroom observation, that the results are homogeneous with the survey outcomes. Thus, the data gathered from the instruments that have been applied in this research are validated by their consistency.

The chief implications unveil predominant homogeneity among the students' and teachers' opinions given in the interviews, classroom observations and the analysis of questionnaires. From the comparison of the information gathered from the interviews and the surveys, it is worth highlighting that there are no differences in responses. On the positive side, both students and teachers have an optimistic outlook. They claim to have considerably improved their linguistic and knowledge competencies. They use new methodologies and the achievement of students is sufficiently evaluated. Coordination exists between bilingual teachers and coordinators. Motivation and overall appraisal increased. Students achieve high levels of both language and content knowledge. The two stakeholders are motivated to continue in the CLIL strand. On the negative side, however, there are fewer positive attitudes towards online and digital materials, and training and mobility programs. These issues are given less attention by the schools and the educational authorities. Both students and teachers admit having an additional high workload.

The results obtained from the classroom observation conducted are also in line with those gathered from the stakeholders and with the opinions given in the interviews. Most teachers and students have an adequate level of linguistic competence, which means that the two stakeholders use English most of the time in class, although some Spanish or translation was also heard by the observer. Linguistic competence is developed, especially in the foreign language classes. The methodology applied is appropriate for the learning of both content and the language simultaneously. It is also varied depending on the subjects (team groups were noticed more in the English class than in the subject class). There is a lack of digital materials and resources. As for *coordination and organization*, they seem to be higher between EFL teachers than NLA teachers. To finish, evaluation is varied and it includes content and oral components, and self-assessment is carried out.

Next, we explore the third RQ: *Are there any statistically significant differences among the perceptions of the three stakeholders?* The results of this investigation show that there are both homogenous views about CLIL and yet quite significant differences between the three groups of this empirical study. Overall, parents are more positive than students and teachers in terms o*f students' use, level, and knowledge* of both English language and culture and intercultural awareness. In addressing the issues of *materials and resources*, the teacher cohort, in contrast to children and parents, have higher perceptions toward employing the suitable materials that not only fit the students' needs and levels, but that also improve communication and fluency in the target language. In turn, the student cohort considers to a lesser extent than teachers and parents that oral components are considered in evaluation. In terms of *training*, bilingual teachers see themselves as having very adequate levels of comprehension and oral skills in the FL,

while students and parents harbor a less optimistic opinion. In light of the foregoing outcomes, it is interesting to show that the predominant statistical outcomes obtained are generally optimistic and promising for the three participants.

Vis-à-vis the fourth RQ (*Within the student cohort, are there statistically significant differences in perception in terms of the identification variables considered (age, gender, nationality, type of school, setting, years of experience in bilingual section, English level, and time of exposure within* and *outside school)?),* there are statistically significant in all the above-mentioned variables and particularly so in relation to the variable of type of school. Moreover, when it comes to recapitulating the findings of this study, we note that female students, students up to 13 years of age, students from different nationalities, students from urban schools, students who belong to private schools, students with more than seven years of experience in a bilingual program, and students who study three or fewer than three subjects have significantly more positive views on evaluation and satisfaction than all the other bilingual students. Female students document improvement in interest toward learning. For girls, the language teachers and teaching assistants work in a collaborative way to prepare and design the bilingual teaching materials. They are considered successful and motivating for students. They are also encouraged more often to participate in exchange programs by their families. Students up to 13 years old consider they develop basic competencies to a greater extent, they are more likely to use English in class and they acquire an extensive vocabulary in the classroom, but they learn less through new technological materials such as online references and blogs, wikis, and webquests in the CLIL class. They also assert that their teachers have more effective listening and speaking skills. Students who are from different nationalities state that they employ to a greater extent

both projects and multimedia software for learning in the classroom. They confirm that their non-linguistic area teachers work successfully in developing bilingual classes and they have been encouraged to partake in an exchange program.

Urban students affirm that their subject teachers are successful in developing their bilingual classes and they are motivated by them, while rural students confirm that their teaching assistants are less successful in developing their bilingual classes. Urban students acknowledge that their teachers have the adequate receptive and productive skills, and adequate socio-cultural awareness in English. Surprisingly, urban students have fewer opportunities to participate in exchange programs, although they consider they have improved their language learning overall.

In private schools, the participants have declared that learning in a bilingual environment improves their basic English competencies and their Spanish, as well as their understanding of the connection between Spanish and English. The methodology related to task-based learning, vocabulary, and cooperative learning is experienced as well. Materials and resources are available and there is less use of multimedia software because online reference is not prioritized over English competence. All of the bilingual teachers are considered competent and successful in both teaching and motivating, although the teaching assistants are not viewed as positively. Additionally, students have more opportunities to participate in exchange programs and they are more encouraged to do so.

Finally, students with more than seven years of experience in English have improved due to their participation in bilingual education, they are interested in the bilingual class, and they have adequate listening and speaking skills in the target

language. Their teachers encourage them to participate in exchange programs. They agree that there is an increased workload, yet they feel improvement and they are highly motivated towards learning and participating in bilingual education. For the students who study three or fewer subjects taught in the target language, their English is improved, including linguistic background and abilities, and they are more interested in learning the target language. They learn through tasks and through materials that are authentic, interesting, and innovative. Their teachers collaborate in preparing those materials to fulfill the communicative goals employing ICT. Content knowledge learned is evaluated and they document that both language teachers and non-linguistic teachers motivate them. Furthermore, all their bilingual teachers have a high degree of listening, speaking, reading and writing skills in English. Students state that they are highly motivated towards learning through CLIL.

Thus, the broader take-aways here are that female students appear to be more motivated by the bilingual program (something in line with prior studies, but which runs counter to more recent investigations, such as that by Lasagabaster & Doiz, 2016), which have pointed to the levelling effect which CLIL has on both genders' motivation. This is not the case in our study, as female students harbor a more positive outlook of the development of CLIL programs. It also appears that CLIL programs are working more efficiently in urban and private contexts, a tendency which has also been discerned in prior investigations (Alejo González & Piquer Píriz, 2016a; Madrid & Barrios, 2018), but which again contradicts more recent studies which have found that CLIL is cancelling out differences between rural and urban contexts (Pavón Vázquez, 2018) and type of school (Rascón Moreno & Bretones Callejas, 2018). Thus, in light of these outcomes, it would be advisable to orchestrate measures to ensure that rural contexts

and public and charter schools benefit from the same opportunities in CLIL development as their urban and private counterparts.

The following conclusions can be drawn regarding the fifth RQ: *Within the teacher cohort, are there statistically significant differences in perception in terms of the identification variables considered (age, gender, nationality, teaching experience, administrative situation, type of schools, setting of schools, type of teacher, English level, coordinator of the bilingual section, bilingual teaching experience* and *overall teaching experience years in bilingual education?* Numerous statistically significant differences once more come to the fore within this second cohort. Teachers who are more than 40 years old have more positive perceptions and satisfaction towards students' use, competence and development of English in class. They consider their students are developing the basic competencies in both English and Spanish. They understand the connection between the Spanish language and the target language, they gain confidence and like to use more English, and they have knowledge of socio-cultural aspects and intercultural awareness in the FL as well. Materials are authentic and are considered to fit the needs of different ability levels of students in class. Both content and oral components are evaluated by stressing many types of evaluation, such as diverse, formative, summative and holistic evaluation. Language teachers and teaching assistants are considered to motivate their students to learn English, in addition to their training in CLIL. The female teachers complain to a greater extent about the increased workload of the program. The non-Spanish teachers believe that both content knowledge and listening and speaking have improved. Materials, according to the Spanish teachers, do not include guidelines in Spanish, and they believe that all bilingual content knowledge taught is evaluated, and that diversified, formative,

summative and holistic evaluation is practiced in the class. Spanish teachers report that language teachers need further training, acknowledging that all the bilingual teachers have received training in CLIL. However, non-Spanish teachers have had study licenses for further studies or research, and they complain about the increased workload of the bilingual program. According to teachers in urban schools, materials include Spanish guidelines to a greater extent. Additionally, rural teachers practice the three types of evaluation, language teachers are considered to need further training, and all the bilingual teachers believe they have adequate knowledge of socio-cultural aspects and intercultural awareness in the FL.

In turn, when type of school is considered as a variable, private school teachers acknowledge that their students have a higher level in English, they are involved, they develop and improve the basic competencies and they develop their Spanish language. They understand the connection between English and Spanish, they welcome more use of English, and they have adequate knowledge of socio-cultural aspects and intercultural awareness in the FL. Private school teachers prioritize the use of vocabulary and the connection between the Spanish and English languages. They use and adapt many types of new technological materials which motivate students to work and collaborate. Linguistically, private school teachers are highly competent. On the other hand, charter teachers are very knowledgeable about the socio-cultural and intercultural aspects of bilingual education. They have a high level of knowledge about bilingual program objectives and principals. Again, the private schools have plenty of mobility and exchange program opportunities. Private school teachers have participated in linguistic courses abroad, they have obtained study licenses, and they also receive adequate support from education authorities.

When it comes to type of teacher, foreign language teachers consider that students develop basic competencies in the classroom to a greater extent than other types of teachers. Teaching assistants place more emphasis on the lexical dimension and on cooperative work in class. Non-linguistic teachers and foreign language teachers work more with interactive whiteboards in class than the TAs. Again, non-linguistic area teachers give preference to evaluating content knowledge in English over linguistic accuracy. In contrast, foreign language teachers prioritize their evaluation of the oral component of the language. The other types of teachers have an adequate linguistic accuracy and cultural background, and an increased workload. Civil servant teachers appear to use digital equipment focusing on oral skills more than their counterparts with a non-permanent post. They also consider that non-linguistic area teachers need additional training. Civil servant teachers achieve the functionality of CLIL, but they do not believe they are supported by educational authorities.

As for level of English, teachers with B1 or B2 proficiency use materials adapted to the needs of all the students' levels and computer-mediated communication, and they consider they are supported by education authorities to a greater extent. Moving to the variable of coordinator, bilingual teachers and the bilingual coordinator view CLIL in a more positive light. Bilingual coordinators tend to believe that students do well in both content and language skills. They participate in class and they welcome more use of English. Vocabulary is a priority in the bilingual class. They use the CEFRL and English Language Portfolio. They perform well culturally. Coordinators also appear to participate in exchange programs and in linguistic courses to a greater extent than regular teachers.

With regards to prior experience, teachers with more than five years of experience in bilingual education believe that CLIL improves the L1 and L2, student competencies in Spanish language, student understanding of the connection between the two languages, and students' cultural and socio-cultural awareness. They attest that students are more enthusiastic, they like English more, and they learn a great deal of vocabulary. They use and adapt authentic, interesting, and innovative materials that fit the students' levels and needs. Additionally, they use new technologies. For them, all content knowledge is evaluated and they have adequate linguistic levels. They have participated in exchange programs within a bilingual program. According to teachers who have more than ten years of overall teaching experience, their students have linguistic accuracy, they are confident, and they welcome the use of more English. For them, authentic materials are used, adapted, and well-designed to meet the students' needs. They assess the children's achievement through the three types of evaluation. They have training in CLIL and they have participated in linguistic and methodological courses.

Thus, the overarching conclusions for this RQ are that teachers who are more than 40 years old, non-Spanish teachers, urban teachers, and teachers with more than five years of experience are more satisfied with the amount of language used by the foreign language teachers and the improvement of students. Private school teachers are very satisfied with all the outcomes of the program, and both teachers and students have a high linguistic level. Only female teachers are not satisfied with the extra work they have to undertake.

We now turn to the sixth and final RQ: *Within the parent cohort, are there statistically significant differences in perception in terms of the identification variables considered (age, gender, nationality, type of school, setting,* and *level of studies)?* We find that there indeed are statistically significant differences in terms of setting, age, level of parents' studies, and type of school. The latter accounted for potential differences in the findings of this study. However, there are no statistically significant differences found for the variables of gender and nationality. Urban parents agree that materials encourage communication, their children have materials to learn English outside the school, and students have remarkable achievement in the language. In turn, parents with children in private schools find their children make progress in English and CLIL methodology. Materials are suitable and modern, evaluation is practiced, and generally there is improvement and motivation towards learning English. Their children have improved their Spanish, English accuracy, vocabulary, and knowledge of socio-cultural aspects. The private sector parents, as well as parents with university studies, easily help their children do homework and consequently, their children have achieved the best results. For them evaluation is adequate and exams are used periodically to evaluate the content knowledge and oral components. Furthermore, they acknowledge that bilingual teachers are well prepared to teach through CLIL. Their children have participated in exchange programs. Parents of private school children, in addition to parents with university studies, communicate regularly with teachers and perceive the bilingual program as very positive. For parents who are 45 years old or younger, content is easy and comprehensible. Their children also participate in exchange programs. Parents with no university studies note that bilingual materials are costly.

Thus, it appears that, similarly to what had occurred for students, private school and urban context parents harbor more optimistic outlooks on the development of CLIL programs. These parents, together with those who have higher educational levels, feel more empowered to participate and help in the children's bilingual education. These outcomes are in complete harmony with those of recent investigations (Ráez Padilla, 2018) and clear-cut pedagogical implications accrue from them. Greater guidelines in Spanish, specific information, and resources should be provided for those parents who do not have a high educational level in order to empower them to participate in their children's education and thereby also foster their more positive appraisal of these types of programs (Pérez Cañado, 2018d, p. 17).

6.1. Limitations of the study

Although this study complements, from a qualitative point of view, the primarily quantitative investigations conducted into the functioning of CLIL programs in the CAM, it is not without its limitations. To begin with, although it has worked with one of the most numerically and geographically representative samples in the CAM to date, the number of respondents is still limited. Replicating this study with a larger number of subjects and in other monolingual communities would thus be desirable in order to determine whether the same trends are discerned or a completely different reality transpires.

The thesis also solely applies a qualitative methodology. It would thus be interesting to complement it with L1, L2, and subject content tests in order to determine the effects of CLIL on these three pivotal aspects in the CAM. A comparison between

CLIL and non-CLIL groups could be another important issue to be investigated in the future since, as Bruton (2011b, p. 240) has already mentioned, "there is dearth of research into comparisons between CLIL and comparable non-CLIL groups".

Finally, the study has been cross-sectional, applying questionnaires, interviews, and observation protocols at one specific point in time. It would be interesting to apply these same instruments longitudinally, over the course of several years, in order to determine how CLIL program implementation evolves, according to the chief stakeholders.

6.2. Lines for further research

As in all studies that offer reliable data and consistent results, many needs and concerns have been discovered which demand further study aimed at bridging the gap in the pedagogical framework of English language learning. There is valuable information that can be deployed in a continuous line of investigation in the quest to fully understand CLIL. It is important to point out that the sample size of this study provides a substantial amount of raw data that are now available for future research. A future research option is to study each group or category (type of school, setting, gender, years of experience in the bilingual program) alone, or to carry out an in-depth comparison between them, since this study has provided sufficient raw data. Further investigation is needed to shed more light on both pedagogical orientation and its quality. Also, we should delve deeper into the quality of materials and see if they fulfill the aim of CLIL methodology and if they support CLIL practice, teachers' work, and students' achievement (in both content and language). Additional studies could equally include

the impact of CLIL on the mother tongue; the measurement of the development of languages; whether or not a second language replaces or affects the native language; and why teachers perceive that half of the students do not like more use of English.

Finally, we would like to suggest some recommendations for future bilingual program development. It might be a useful idea to create a *Think Tank Center* for all the educational stakeholders, where they are nurtured toward publishing their needs, demands, rights, and achievements, and where they have a peer audience who will hear their reflection on any events that can happen during the educational process, or in the world, as related to educational progress. Such a center could promote and foster professional networking for the general benefit of teachers and students learning. We would also suggest a virtual forum which could, in turn, focus on *virtual learning*, *flipped classrooms*, and *video conferencing*.

6.3. Recapitulation

The most obvious finding that emerges from this study is that the strengths and opportunities that bilingual programs offer are conspicuously greater than their weaknesses and threats. Regarding *strengths*, it is clear that the majority of the students from the bilingual sections have been very successful in relation to language competence. Their level of expertise in speaking and reading English is high. They develop English skills in the classroom with their effective integration and participation. Most of the students participate often and this is important to improve their English and become bilingual. Through the bilingual program, students' levels of English and understanding of English subject content have definitely improved. In other words,

learners develop a high level of competence in many skills, such as basic competences, understanding, knowledge, thinking and cognitive skills, and expanding cultural and linguistic backgrounds. In the case of the quality of language learning, we have seen that the majority of the instructors present a very high level of English. It can also be pointed out that a considerable percentage of CLIL teachers make classes as dynamic as possible. Lessons usually require more creativity, like the use of projects or interactive activities, or developing skills and understanding, and include motivating topics for discussion and debate. Autonomous work is usually focused on writing activities. Regardless of the lesson content or methodology, cooperative learning is key and fosters listening to one another's ideas in the target language and learning from one another's mistakes through sharing. Thus, CLIL is clearly favoring the introduction of student-centered methodologies where the learner takes center stage, a very positive finding. Another strength of the program is the high linguistic level of the teachers who are involved in bilingual education. These teachers speak English very well, are dedicated to their work, are totally involved in the program, and maintain very high expectations. Teachers in general claim they put forth great effort to create an adequate environment for optimal learning.

The second major finding has been that most of the teachers appreciate the program, even though there may be a greater workload using this medium of instruction. Teachers are generally enthusiastic about participating in the program and using English. They are very positive about the use of new technologies in the classroom. Some of them have access to resources and they are benefiting a great deal from using ICT materials such as computers, tablets, and digital whiteboards. The human factors like teachers and families impact students' learning. Additionally, the

existence of teaching assistants is an outstanding strength, as students cannot learn everything from just Spanish teachers alone. Students, teachers, and parents are motivated with the bilingual program because they realize it is an opportunity for the future. English is in demand for jobs in Spain, and bilingual students will have an advantage over other children by having a stronger profile for the job market.

On the other hand, there are some outcomes related to *weaknesses*. The results show that the organization of materials, the subject content, minimal availability of ICT resources, and mobility are the weakest parts of this program. In reality, many schools suffer from a lack of material resources and digital equipment in classes. The traditional didactic materials, such as blackboards and textbooks, still currently exist in language education. Furthermore, the analysis has shown that teaching staff need more training in the bilingual program. Finally, the most obvious weakness of the program is that both teachers and students are not taking full advantage of the mobility opportunities offered by the program. Also, it should be mentioned that some parents cannot help their children with CLIL homework.

The CLIL program also offers many advantageous *opportunities*. These opportunities not only benefit students' learning and success, but also education and society as a whole. Thus, learners demonstrate confidence and enthusiasm in speaking and communicating in English. The opportunity to learn other subjects in English, such as Citizenship, Physical Education, or Technology is greatly beneficial to broaden English knowledge. Above all, CLIL promotes language acquisition differently than the traditional methods of language learning and fosters high motivation and acceptance. Thus, the number of bilingual students has increased in the bilingual schools of the

community. As the use of ICT and digital equipment increases, there is also an opportunity for not only students and teachers, but also for parents to benefit from a rapid integration and for providing the flexible access to information. ICTs can participate in making the educational system more successful; they play a significant role in improving the language proficiency of students and in studying content through different perspectives. Students are more eager to participate in mobility. They are aware that learning English enhances career opportunities inside and outside their country. Additionally, learning about other cultures increases their appreciation of both cultures and their own culture and, thanks to this, they are able to gain global awareness, receive a global education, and best learn to understand their role in the world. This global perspective better prepares them for internationalization and future study, and positively orients them for their adult working life.

As the final point, it is interesting to note that the bilingual English-Spanish program in Madrid suffers from few serious *threats.* Although developing two languages, especially in a monolingual setting, is a very challenging task for all the educational staff, the results indicate a few caveats that deserve our attention. There is a clear negative effect on learning the subject matter when some non-subject teachers use more translations or teach in Spanish alongside English. Sometimes, students respond in Spanish, although teachers may explain in English. In addition, in some cases, exams in non-subject areas are taken in Spanish, although the subject is taught in English. Under this method, the teachers who admit to their limited linguistic abilities and lack of knowledge about CLIL methodology can make education complex and cause serious misunderstandings. A few NLA teachers lack linguistic and methodological grounding and are consequently struggling to learn more English and to know more about CLIL.

Indeed, it is obvious that there is a lack of training concerning bilingual programs that could lead to slow improvement in teaching skills and linguistic issues. Sometimes, some stakeholders operate in CLIL with limited information about all the principles of CLIL and that, in itself, can threaten the success of the program. A possible caveat that we have to take into consideration is the high number of students in the classes. In this sense, there is the need for the learning environment to change (such as having large class sizes and too many students in classrooms that are not large enough to accommodate such high numbers) according to the new learning circumstances. Moreover, the lack of some students' motivation to use more English is indicated in some of the students' data; this is a probable cause for some future threats towards the continuity of the program in high schools or at university studies.

The present investigation has provided us with a qualitative approximation to Content and Language Integrated Learning in Compulsory Secondary Education in Madrid, Spain. It is a fruitful investigation since it highlights a highly optimistic outlook and notable satisfaction of teachers, students, and parents. Most of the participants are content with the use of English and linguistic components in class; the beneficial materials and technological equipment; the high level of linguistic competencies of both teachers and students due to the participation in the CAM project; the effective application of new methodologies; diversification of evaluation in the class; and finally, the great interest and motivation by the three stakeholders towards continuing teaching and learning through the CLIL strands.

We hope that this work will contribute to improving the knowledge of bilingualism as a tool for achieving a high level of education, especially, learning

languages and cultures. Education is a powerful weapon that can serve peace and tolerance among human beings throughout the world, and this would be facilitated by the common use of a vehicular language. A foreign language, especially English, the most global of all, permits a high understanding of people from other countries, of their different cultures and local languages. This contributes to their respect and a better coexistence leading to a peaceful and prosperous world for humanity. And this can happen at the same time as content knowledge and the mother tongue are also developed. The many benefits of CLIL programs, as evinced by the present investigation, can be conducive to these powerful overarching endeavors and it is hoped that the findings of this study will contribute to keeping them on track and to maximizing their potential.

THESIS SUMMARY IN SPANISH

Aprendizaje integrado de contenidos y lenguas extranjeras (AICLE): Un estudio cualitativo en la Educación Secundaria Obligatoria (ESO) de la Comunidad de Madrid (España)

Índice

Introducción

Este estudio investiga el enfoque del aprendizaje integrado de contenidos y lenguas extranjeras (AICLE) en las escuelas de Secundaria de Madrid, España (Comunidad de Madrid). El objetivo fundamental es evaluar la forma en la cual los programas CLIL se desarrollan y funcionan en Madrid de acuerdo con los actores clave que participan en su implementación. Esta investigación también tiene como objetivo proporcionar datos para apoyar la creciente demanda del bilingüismo, especialmente en

las regiones monolingües de España. Por lo tanto, proporciona evidencia teórica y empírica para planificar e implementar la educación bilingüe. Específicamente, aborda la enseñanza y el aprendizaje del inglés en la Educación Secundaria Obligatoria (ESO) bilingüe.

El estudio también investiga el control de calidad en los programas AICLE, utilizando datos empíricamente fundamentados para identificar medidas que puedan resolver las debilidades; y reforzar las fortalezas y oportunidades.

Estructura de la tesis

La disertación consta de seis capítulos que presentan la investigación original sobre la educación secundaria bilingüe y los programas AICLE, en lo que se refiere al uso y la necesidad de una lengua adicional. El capítulo primero comienza con una introducción que define los objetivos del estudio y su motivación.

También se presenta un resumen de cada capítulo que resalta los temas más importantes implicados en la educación secundaria bilingüe y AICLE, para avalar nuestra interpretación de estos conceptos y proporcionar una sinopsis de la tesis doctoral en general.

Esta tesis se divide en dos partes: la investigación teórica que se incluye en los capítulos dos y tres y la investigación empírica en los capítulos cuatro y cinco. El capítulo sexto se dedica a las conclusiones. La primera parte tiene como objetivo definir, ilustrar e investigar la historia de la enseñanza y el aprendizaje de una segunda lengua. La segunda

parte analiza y evalúa AICLE. Por un lado, los capítulos segundo y tercero ilustran el desarrollo del bilingüismo en todo el mundo a través de la educación de inmersión en Canadá, la educación bilingüe en los Estados Unidos y se discute el acrónimo AICLE tal como se usa en los sistemas educativos europeo y español.

Por otro lado, los capítulos cuarto y quinto básicamente exploran el nivel de satisfacción de estudiantes, profesores y padres sobre AICLE en Madrid.

El capítulo segundo ofrece una exhaustiva revisión del desarrollo de la educación bilingüe. Describe los temas globales que definen y aclaran los programas bilingües. En este capítulo se analizan las características de los dos programas bilingües más populares: la educación de inmersión en Canadá y la educación bilingüe en los Estados Unidos. Cada programa se caracteriza de acuerdo a los puntos de vista y la investigación de diversos expertos y profesionales en relación con los procesos de enseñanza y aprendizaje de lenguas, así como su praxis en los colegios. Se destacan los resultados más importantes relacionados con el desarrollo de estos programas bilingües.

El capítulo tercero examina pormenorizadamente cómo funciona AICLE en diversos entornos educativos en Europa y España. Se basa en estudios de AICLE en Europa y España y cómo se implementa en marcos tanto monolingües y bilingües. Este capítulo muestra cómo estos países están utilizando una segunda o una tercera lengua como medio de enseñanza.

La información presentada sobre este tema también estudia el proceso y la dinámica de cambio en los colegios bilingües dentro de las Comunidades Autónomas de

España, así como facilita una descripción completa de sus entornos educativos. La primera parte de este capítulo es una descripción de los programas de enseñanza bilingüe, mientras que la segunda parte es una descripción del marco monolingüe. En otras palabras, este capítulo muestra cómo las instituciones educativas en ambos tipos monolingües y bilingües han aplicado el aprendizaje y la enseñanza de contenidos a través de una lengua. Se han incluido varios ejemplos de comunidades autónomas bilingües y monolingües en España para definir y describir la adquisición de una lengua adicional en ambos contextos educativos.

Además, el capítulo entra en detalle sobre el uso de AICLE en Madrid específicamente. La revisión de la investigación teórica presenta un panorama claro del nacimiento y crecimiento de la educación bilingüe en el sistema educativo de esta región. Se describe el proceso de adquisición de una lengua adicional, tanto en Primaria como en Secundaria en los colegios bilingües. En última instancia, el objetivo de este capítulo es llevar a cabo una evaluación global del funcionamiento y desarrollo del AICLE en la Comunidad. Esta revisión allana el camino para el próximo capítulo.

El capítulo cuarto constituye un marco práctico de investigación empírica centrada en los colegios bilingües de Secundaria. Se detallan los datos de la eficacia de AICLE en la enseñanza Secundaria Obligatoria bilingüe, concretamente en Madrid. La investigación abarca colegios públicos, privados y concertados bilingües en las zonas urbanas y rurales dentro de la Comunidad de Madrid. Los sondeos miden el grado de satisfacción de estudiantes, profesores y padres con los aspectos organizativos de los

esquemas curriculares de AICLE llevando a cabo un análisis detallado de los planes de fortaleza, oportunidades, debilidad y amenazas (FODA).

El estudio utiliza un diseño de investigación cualitativa y emplea tres tipos de instrumentos: cuestionarios, entrevistas individuales semiestructuradas y entrevistas a grupos focales, así como observaciones directas de comportamiento. Se incluyen múltiples variables y se realiza un análisis descriptivo de los datos cuantitativos, a la vez que se utiliza el enfoque de la teoría probada para la parte de análisis cualitativo. El estudio incluye a todos los individuos involucrados en el proceso del programa de educación bilingüe: estudiantes, coordinadores, profesores de inglés como lengua extranjera, profesores del área no lingüística, asistentes de profesores y padres. Mis supervisores me recomendaron visitar dieciocho los colegios y realizar un muestreo de 50 alumnos, cinco profesores, y cinco padres en cada uno de ellos aproximadamente.

He intentado recopilar datos de 900 estudiantes, 90 profesores y 90 padres; sin embargo, no alcancé este número, principalmente, debido al tamaño de las clases estudiadas. Finalmente, el tamaño de la muestra es de 754 estudiantes, 77 profesores y 77 padres, que eran de seis escuelas públicas, seis privadas, y seis colegios concertados, tanto en zonas urbanas como rurales de la Comunidad de Madrid. De esos 18 colegios, sólo uno no permitió realizar los cuestionarios. Cuando visité la secretaría del colegio no fue posible hacer las entrevistas. La institución me comunicó que contactaría conmigo para realizarlo otro día. Por desgracia nunca llamaron.

El capítulo quinto ofrece los resultados de la investigación. Se analizan los datos recogidos en los colegios de Enseñanza Secundaria bilingües de la Comunidad de Madrid y se presentan las conclusiones. Se lleva a cabo un análisis cuantitativo de los datos, así como una discusión de los resultados y conclusiones de la implementación de AICLE en el grupo (los 18 colegios bilingües de Secundaria que aceptaron participar en el estudio). En este capítulo también se explica cómo los resultados apoyan las contribuciones científicas.

El último capítulo, el capítulo seis, ofrece las conclusiones y las implicaciones pedagógicas para investigaciones futuras. Además de informar sobre las conclusiones centrales y las recomendaciones resultantes del estudio, este capítulo también ofrece una perspectiva sobre la satisfacción de las partes interesadas, y las limitaciones de este estudio, así como algunas sugerencias para futuras mejoras y líneas de investigación.

Al final de este trabajo, hay una lista de referencias sobre el bilingüismo y cuestiones relacionadas, que se han consultado tanto de fuentes nacionales como internacionales. Por último, hay una sección de apéndices, que contiene los cuestionarios realizados a profesores, alumnos y padres, así como una lista de colegios bilingües en Madrid donde llevé a cabo la investigación.

Objetivos y Preguntas de investigación

Este estudio examina extensamente las perspectivas de los tres principales interesados involucrados en el programa español / inglés en la comunidad de Madrid (profesores, estudiantes y padres). Incluye una evaluación exhaustiva de cómo AICLE

está funcionando en un contexto monolingüe donde el inglés tiene muy poca presencia dentro y fuera del entorno escolar, ya que la mayoría de los padres y la comunidad están mínimamente familiarizados con el idioma inglés.

El análisis mide la satisfacción generada por los programas de AICLE para los tres interesados. Identifica las principales fortalezas, oportunidades, debilidades y amenazas (DAFO) de los programas escolares bilingües, según las partes involucradas. Los datos recopilados se completan con la observación en el aula realizada por la doctoranda. Se investigarán los siguientes niveles curriculares y organizativos afectados por los programas AICLE: Competencias, Métodos, Materiales y recursos, Evaluación, Formación de profesores, Programas de movilidad, Carga de trabajo y Coordinación y Organización. Además, el amplio objetivo del estudio para medir la satisfacción de los tres agentes se puede dividir en subobjetivos, formando seis preguntas de investigación separadas.

Esta investigación explorará los siguientes subobjetivos, enumerados aquí como preguntas de investigación concretas:

1- ¿Cuáles son las percepciones de los docentes, los estudiantes y los padres sobre la forma en que funciona el Programa Bilingüe en todos los niveles curriculares y organizativos?

2- ¿Los resultados obtenidos de las entrevistas y la observación en el aula coinciden con los recogidos de los agentes participantes?

3- ¿Existen diferencias estadísticamente significativas entre las percepciones de los tres agentes involucrados?

4- Dentro del grupo de estudiantes, ¿hay diferencias estadísticamente significativas en la percepción en términos de las variables de identificación consideradas (edad, sexo, nacionalidad, tipo de escuela, ambiente, años de experiencia en la sección bilingüe, nivel de inglés, y tiempo de exposición dentro y fuera de la escuela)?

5- Dentro del grupo de docentes, ¿existen diferencias estadísticamente significativas en la percepción en cuanto a las variables de identificación consideradas (edad, sexo, nacionalidad, experiencia docente, experiencia de docencia bilingüe, situación administrativa, tipo de escuela, entorno, tipo de docente – incluyendo coordinadores de la sección bilingüe- y nivel de inglés)?

6- Dentro del grupo de padres, ¿existen diferencias estadísticamente significativas en la percepción en términos de las variables de identificación consideradas (edad, sexo, nacionalidad, tipo de escuela, entorno y nivel de estudios)?

Metodología

Este estudio utiliza métodos mixtos para evaluar la forma en que los programas CLIL se desarrollan y funcionan en las escuelas bilingües. Los métodos incluyen: cuestionarios entregados a maestros, estudiantes y padres; entrevistas solo con maestros y estudiantes; la observación del protocolo de las clases y el contenido en las materias enseñadas en el segundo idioma; así como las propias clases de inglés. Estos métodos de

investigación permitieron la recopilación de una gran cantidad de datos que se pueden aplicar para comprender la educación CLIL y responder a las preguntas de investigación mencionadas anteriormente.

Este proyecto es un ejemplo de investigación primaria y, dentro de ella, de investigación de encuestas, ya que incluye entrevistas y cuestionarios (Brown, 2001). Se emplean triangulaciones múltiples, (Denzin, 1970), específicamente los siguientes cuatro tipos:

- **Triangulación de datos,** múltiples fuentes de información fueron consultadas para medir sesgos interpuestos por personas con diferentes roles en el contexto de enseñanza de idiomas: estudiantes, padres y profesores (y dentro de este último, profesores no lingüísticos, profesores de inglés y auxiliares de conversación).

- **Triangulación metodológica,** se tomaron múltiples procedimientos de recolección de datos: cuestionarios, entrevistas y observación en el aula.

- **Triangulación de ubicaciones**: se recopilaron datos de aprendizaje de idiomas de múltiples sitios de recopilación de datos, que incluían escuelas secundarias rurales y urbanas.

Muestra y participantes

La investigación se llevó a cabo durante el segundo trimestre del año académico 2015-2016. La doctoranda pasó cuatro meses visitando 18 escuelas secundarias bilingües

en la Comunidad Autónoma de Madrid. En el estudio, las escuelas se dividen en tres tipos: públicas (seis), concertadas (seis) y privadas (seis). Nueve de las escuelas están ubicadas en áreas urbanas y las otras nueve están en áreas rurales.

La muestra consta de 908 participantes: 754 de ellos son estudiantes bilingües que cursan el segundo grado de ESO. Todos los estudiantes pertenecían a una sección bilingüe. Igual número de profesores y padres participaron en la investigación: 77 profesores y 77 padres. Aunque representan un porcentaje menor, también son participantes esenciales en el estudio.

Instrumentos

Los instrumentos de la investigación son una batería de herramientas diseñadas por Pérez Cañado como parte de dos proyectos de investigación titulado: '*Los Efectos del Aprendizaje Integrado de Contenidos y Lenguas Extranjeras en Comunidades Monolingües: Un Estudio Longitudinal*' y '*Los efectos del aprendizaje integrado de contenido y lenguaje en comunidades monolingües: una evaluación a gran escala*'; financiado y respaldado por el Ministerio de Economía y Competitividad de España y el gobierno regional andaluz respectivamente. Los instrumentos utilizados fueron cuestionarios, entrevistas y protocolos de observación en el aula. Estas herramientas de investigación cualitativa ya se han utilizado en otros estudios en España.

Estos métodos se consideran estándar y pueden proporcionar los datos necesarios para realizar un análisis estadístico descriptivo. Por las rigurosas razones metodológicas mencionadas a continuación, su validez y fiabilidad pueden confirmarse. La justificación

de mi uso de estos instrumentos fue doble: primero, mis supervisores me aconsejaron que los utilizara y, en segundo lugar, estaban relacionados con las principales preguntas de investigación que tenía que responder sobre AICLE en la región de Madrid.

A) Cuestionario

El primer instrumento cualitativo utilizado para recopilar datos fue un cuestionario, que fue diseñado y validado en español e inglés, y en versiones ligeramente diferentes para profesores, estudiantes y padres. En línea con los tipos de preguntas de Patton (1987), se incluyen preguntas demográficas o de fondo para obtener información biográfica de los encuestados (que corresponde a las variables de identificación del estudio cualitativo) y preguntas de opinión o de valor para sondear los pensamientos, reacciones, actitudes y perspectivas sobre los programas AICLE en los que participan.

Los primeros tipos de preguntas eran de respuesta corta (siguiendo la tipología de Brown de 2001) y la segunda, respuesta alternativa y escala de Likert (de 1 a 4, para evitar el error de tendencia central). Predominan los ítems de respuesta cerrada, para mayor facilidad y rapidez de aplicación, aunque también se incluyeron algunas preguntas de respuesta abierta al final de cada cuestionario para que el grupo elaborara los aspectos que consideraba necesarios. Esta combinación permitió al autor obtener información general de manera objetiva y uniforme y obtener detalles de seguimiento relacionados simultáneamente.

Las entrevistas y observaciones se complementaban entre sí y combinadas proporcionaban datos completos. La versión inicial de las encuestas fue cuidadosamente

editada y validada a través de un proceso piloto, proporcionando opiniones sobre posibles problemas con el contenido del cuestionario, instrucciones vagas, aclaración o reformulación de preguntas, falta de información, especificación de datos o extensión de los cuestionarios. Además, permitieron al autor hallar el cálculo del alfa de Cronbach para cada uno de sus bloques temáticos y para la encuesta como un todo, con el fin de garantizar su fiabilidad o consistencia interna.

B) Protocolo de entrevista

La realización de entrevistas fue la segunda forma de reunir información cualitativa. Específicamente, se han utilizado entrevistas semiestructuradas, donde se establecen preguntas claras de antemano. Sin embargo, hay flexibilidad en el proceso, lo que permite una mayor elaboración en cada una de las áreas de interés. Los entrevistados explicaron sus ideas sobre los aspectos curriculares y organizativos de los programas AICLE. Los protocolos específicos de entrevista, tanto en versiones reducidas como extendidas, proporcionaron detalles que se correspondían con los datos del cuestionario.

Todas las entrevistas fueron cara a cara, con un promedio de cinco docentes por escuela. El profesorado de lengua extranjera, el de áreas no lingüísticas (ANL) y el auxiliar formaron un grupo (para fomentar un mayor grado de confidencialidad y confianza) y se asignó aproximadamente una hora por grupo. La investigadora registró las ideas principales, que pasaron a primer plano en el protocolo extendido, y las grabaciones digitales se realizaron con la autorización previa de los entrevistados. A su vez, los estudiantes fueron entrevistados en grupos focales que se extendieron durante

aproximadamente una hora por clase CLIL. Cada clase se dividió en dos subgrupos de 10 a 15 estudiantes cada uno, con un promedio de veinticinco a treinta minutos de tiempo de debate dedicado a todos los ítems. Posteriormente, se llevó a cabo un examen global con todo el grupo con la intención de destacar las ideas principales y agregar valor a la experiencia. La información recopilada ha sido codificada para garantizar la validez y consistencia de los datos. Además, se realizaron notas de discusión detalladas y grabaciones digitales de cada entrevista de intervención grupal.

C) Protocolo de observación en el aula

La observación directa se empleó a partir de las tres técnicas de recolección de datos dentro de la parte cualitativa de la investigación. Se observó una hora de instrucción de lengua inglesa y otra hora de enseñanza de la materia en inglés por centro. Las clases no se grabaron en video porque casi todos los profesores se negaron a grabar sus clases. Sin embargo, la observación directa se realizó a través de un protocolo. En algunos casos se tomaron notas adicionales.

La observación se centró en el desarrollo de programas AICLE en todos los niveles curriculares y organizativos: uso de lengua extranjera, nivel de LE tanto de profesores como de estudiantes de ANL, competencias desarrolladas, metodología empleada, enfoque instruccional, enfoque en la forma vs. enfoque en el significado de materiales y recursos, tipos de agrupaciones, coordinación y organización de programas bilingües y / o procedimientos de evaluación.

Utilizando este tipo de protocolo para el aula CLIL, el investigador calificó en qué medida los docentes bilingües usan y practican las actividades mencionadas anteriormente, y con qué frecuencia se incorpora cada elemento en la clase. El protocolo usa una escala ascendente con cuatro categorías: "mucho", "suficiente", "poco" y "nada". Los datos se escribieron al final de cada visita y luego se decodificaron de forma descriptiva.

Variables

Se consideran una serie de variables de identificación (sujeto), relacionadas con las características individuales de los tres grupos participantes diferentes que han respondido al cuestionario. Los efectos de modulación ejercidos por estas variables sobre los aspectos considerados dentro del docente / coordinador y los cuestionarios de los estudiantes se evalúan mediante objetivos de preguntas de investigación. Las variables de identificación examinadas para cada colectivo se especifican a continuación:

Estudiantes:

- Edad

- Género

- Nacionalidad

- Tipo de centro (público, concertado, privado)

- Escenario del centro (área urbana, rural)

- Años estudiados en un programa bilingüe

- Asignaturas estudiadas en inglés

Profesores:

- Edad

- Género

- Nacionalidad

- Tipo de profesor (profesores de lengua extranjera, profesores de área no lingüística o auxiliares de conversación)

- Situación administrativa de los docentes (funcionario con destino permanente, funcionario con destino provisional, interinos)

- Nivel de inglés de los profesores (medido a través de los certificados oficiales, su visión personal de su nivel, experiencia previa en programas de movilidad como programas de idiomas en el extranjero o participación en programas de intercambio de docentes)

- Coordinador bilingüe

- Experiencia docente general

- Años de experiencia docente en educación bilingüe

- Tipo de centro (público, concertado, privado)

- Escenario del centro (área urbana, rural)

Padres:

- Edad

- Género

- Nacionalidad

- Nivel de estudios (títulos / diplomas)

- Tipo de centro (público, concertado, privado)

- Escenario del centro (área urbana, rural)

Conclusiones

Esta investigación nos ha permitido evaluar y medir los niveles de satisfacción de los estudiantes, profesores y padres con el programa CLIL. El estudio proporciona una exploración en profundidad del objetivo y las preguntas de investigación planteadas en el capítulo 4, título 4.2. Los hallazgos empíricos en este estudio se descubrieron utilizando triangulación metodológica cualitativa (cuestionarios, entrevistas y protocolo de observación en el aula) y métodos estadísticos descriptivos. Esta metodología combinada

nos proporciona importantes resultados sobre el funcionamiento de un programa bilingüe inglés-español en el segundo grado de Educación Secundaria Obligatoria de la Comunidad de Madrid (CSE). Más de 908 participantes (profesores bilingües, estudiantes bilingües y padres) participaron en este estudio.

La imagen completa de esta investigación revela tendencias significativamente consistentes. Sin embargo, a menudo hay una diferencia entre los resultados de los participantes. Esta diferencia se encuentra en sus percepciones, el uso, la competencia y el desarrollo del inglés de los alumnos en clase; metodología; materiales y recursos; evaluación; uso, competencia y desarrollo del inglés de los profesores en clase; formación docente; formación e información; movilidad; mejora y motivación hacia el inglés; y coordinación y organización. Los datos revelan que los usuarios están muy satisfechos con el contenido y el aprendizaje integrado del lenguaje (AICLE), con la excepción de unos pocos casos.

Esta investigación nos lleva a conclusiones positivas puesto que la gran mayoría de los participantes coincide significativamente en que el aprendizaje en AICLE ofrece mejoría y logros lingüísticos, mayor participación y alta motivación. Por lo tanto, estos resultados atestiguan el éxito de la educación bilingüe en la consecución de un logro académico más amplio. Este resultado positivo es coincidente con otros estudios positivos realizados en Madrid, en algunas comunidades españolas y en toda Europa (Dalton-Puffer, 2011; De Graaff et al., 2007; Gerena & Ramírez-Verdugo, 2014; Lancaster, 2016; Lasagabaster & Doiz, 2016; Llinares y Dafouz, 2010; Lorenzo et al., 2009; Pérez Cañado, 2011).

Sin embargo, los hallazgos de todo el estudio también subrayan dos cuestiones importantes de preocupación. El primer problema es que a la mitad de los estudiantes no les gusta el estudio adicional del inglés. Esto podría atribuirse al hecho de que la mayoría de los estudiantes han estado en el programa CLIL desde el comienzo de sus estudios en la escuela primaria. Además, podría ser que se consideraran con un alto nivel de dominio del idioma. Por lo tanto, para ellos es innecesario saber más inglés ya que pueden mantener conversaciones fluidas en este idioma. En segundo lugar, sería significativo investigar por qué la mitad de los estudiantes no puede determinar si su lengua materna ha mejorado o no, debido a su participación en secciones bilingües.

El hallazgo más obvio que surge de este estudio es que las fortalezas y oportunidades que ofrece la programación bilingüe son claramente mayores que las debilidades y amenazas. En cuanto a las fortalezas, está claro que la mayoría de los estudiantes de las secciones bilingües han tenido mucho éxito en relación con la competencia lingüística. Su nivel de experiencia para hablar y leer en inglés es alto. Desarrollan habilidades de inglés en el aula a través de una integración y participación eficaz. La mayoría de los estudiantes participan con frecuencia y esto es importante para mejorar y convertirse en bilingües.

A través del programa bilingüe, los niveles de inglés de los estudiantes y la comprensión del contenido de la asignatura en inglés definitivamente han mejorado. En otras palabras, los alumnos desarrollan un alto nivel de competencia en muchas habilidades, como la competencia básica, la comprensión, el conocimiento, el pensamiento y las habilidades cognitivas, así como la ampliación de los antecedentes

318

culturales y lingüísticos. En el caso de la calidad del aprendizaje de idiomas, hemos visto que la mayoría de los instructores dependen de un nivel muy alto de inglés. También se puede señalar que un porcentaje muy alto de profesores de AICLE hace que las clases sean lo más dinámicas posible. Las lecciones generalmente requieren más creatividad, como el uso de proyector o actividades interactivas que desarrollan habilidades y un mayor entendimiento, e incluyendo temas motivadores para discusión y debate. El trabajo autónomo generalmente se enfoca en actividades de escritura. Sin embargo, independientemente del contenido o la metodología de la lección, el aprendizaje cooperativo es clave para escuchar las ideas de los demás en el idioma de destino y aprender de los errores a través del intercambio. Por lo tanto, no hay duda de que aprender idiomas tiene varios beneficios y desafíos importantes en la educación convencional, ya que amplía el conocimiento de áreas como Ciencias Naturales, Ciencias Sociales, Artes y Educación Física.

Además, la mayor fortaleza del programa es el alto nivel lingüístico de los profesores que participan en la educación bilingüe. Otra fortaleza es la calidad de los profesores de inglés que hablan el idioma extremadamente bien, están dedicados a su trabajo, están totalmente involucrados en el programa y sus expectativas para los estudiantes son muy altas. Algunos maestros afirman que hicieron un gran esfuerzo por crear un buen ambiente para un aprendizaje óptimo. El segundo hallazgo importante fue que la mayoría de los docentes aprecian el programa, a pesar de que puede haber una mayor carga de trabajo utilizando este medio de instrucción. Los profesores generalmente están entusiasmados con la participación en el programa y el uso del inglés. Son muy

positivos sobre el uso de las nuevas tecnologías en el aula. Algunos de ellos tienen acceso a más recursos y se están beneficiando mucho al usar materiales de TIC como ordenadores, tablets y pizarras digitales. Los factores humanos, tanto los profesores como las familias, tienen un gran impacto en el aprendizaje de los estudiantes. Además, la existencia de asistentes de conversación es una fortaleza sobresaliente, ya que los estudiantes no pueden aprender todo solo de los profesores españoles. Los estudiantes, docentes y padres están motivados con el programa bilingüe porque se dan cuenta de que es una oportunidad para el futuro. El inglés está en demanda al buscar empleo en España, y los estudiantes bilingües tendrán una ventaja sobre otros niños al tener un perfil más fuerte para el mercado de trabajo.

Por otro lado, hay algunos resultados relacionados con las debilidades. Los resultados muestran que la organización de los materiales, el contenido de la asignatura, la disponibilidad mínima de recursos TIC y la movilidad; son las partes más débiles de este programa. En realidad, muchos centros carecen de recursos materiales y equipos digitales en las clases. Los materiales didácticos tradicionales, como las pizarras y los libros de texto (libros del alumno y cuadernos de trabajo) todavía existen en la actualidad en la enseñanza de idiomas. Hay materiales tradicionales adicionales que se espera que se utilicen a fondo: libros de literatura, libros de preparación de exámenes y textos. Es bien sabido que estos materiales tradicionales no son efectivos, no fomentan el interés de los estudiantes en aprender diferentes habilidades lingüísticas, ni atienden a las demandas de aprendizaje, ni atraen la atención de los estudiantes en la clase. Además, el análisis ha demostrado que el personal docente necesita más capacitación en el programa bilingüe.

Finalmente, la debilidad más obvia del programa es que tanto los profesores como los estudiantes tienen menos oportunidades de movilidad para beneficiarse de los programas de inmersión en un país inglés, lo que podría ofrecer una mejor manera de dominar el idioma y obtener una comprensión profunda como los hablantes nativos. Además, se debe mencionar que algunos padres no pueden ayudar a sus hijos con las tareas de AICLE.

El programa AICLE realmente ofrece muchas oportunidades ventajosas. Estas oportunidades no solo benefician el aprendizaje y el éxito de los estudiantes, sino que también benefician a la educación y a la sociedad en su conjunto. Por lo tanto, los estudiantes demuestran confianza y entusiasmo al hablar y comunicarse en inglés. La oportunidad de aprender otras materias en inglés como Ciudadanía, Educación Física y Tecnología es una oportunidad de oro para ampliar el conocimiento del inglés. Sobre todo, CLIL promueve la adquisición del lenguaje de forma diferente a los métodos tradicionales de aprendizaje de idiomas y fomenta una gran motivación y aceptación. Por lo tanto, la cantidad de estudiantes ha aumentado en las escuelas bilingües de la comunidad. A medida que aumenta el uso de las tecnologías de la información y la comunicación (TIC) y el equipo digital, también hay una oportunidad no solo para los estudiantes y los docentes, sino también para que los padres se beneficien de una integración rápida y para proporcionar un acceso flexible a la información. Las TIC pueden participar para hacer que el sistema educativo sea más exitoso, juegan un papel importante en la mejora de la competencia lingüística de los estudiantes y en el estudio del contenido a través de diferentes perspectivas. Los estudiantes están más ansiosos de

participar en la movilidad. Son conscientes de que aprender inglés mejora las oportunidades de su carrera estudiantil dentro y fuera del país. Además, aprender sobre otros países aumenta su apreciación tanto de otras culturas como de la suya propia y, gracias a esto, pueden obtener una conciencia global, recibir una educación global, aprender mejor a comprender su papel en el mundo. Esta perspectiva global los prepara mejor para la internacionalización, el estudio futuro y los orienta positivamente para su vida laboral adulta.

Como punto final, es interesante mencionar que el programa bilingüe inglés-español en Madrid adolece de pocas amenazas graves. Aunque desarrollar dos idiomas, especialmente en un entorno monolingüe, es una tarea muy desafiante para todo el personal educativo, los resultados indican algunos inconvenientes que merecen nuestra atención. Hay un claro efecto negativo en el aprendizaje de la materia cuando algunos profesores no asignados usan más traducciones o enseñan en español junto con el inglés. A veces, los estudiantes responden en español, aunque los profesores pueden explicar en inglés. Además, en algunos casos, los exámenes en áreas no relacionadas se realizan en español, aunque la asignatura se imparte en inglés. Bajo este método, los profesores que admiten sus capacidades lingüísticas limitadas y su falta de conocimiento sobre la metodología CLIL pueden hacer que la educación sea compleja y causar malentendidos graves. Algunos profesores de ANL carecen de fundamentos lingüísticos y metodológicos y, en consecuencia, están luchando por aprender más inglés y saber más sobre AICLE. Tienen menos competencia en el uso de las TIC. De hecho, es obvio que hay una falta de capacitación con respecto a los programas bilingües que podría conducir

a una mejora lenta en las habilidades de enseñanza y problemas lingüísticos. A veces, algunas partes interesadas operan en AICLE con información limitada sobre todos los principios de AICLE y eso, en sí mismo, puede amenazar el éxito del programa. Una posible advertencia que debemos tener en cuenta es la gran cantidad de estudiantes en las clases. Los hallazgos adicionales brindan algunas otras amenazas, una de las cuales es que el entorno de aprendizaje debe cambiar (como la forma, el tamaño y el número de estudiantes en la clase) de acuerdo con las nuevas circunstancias de aprendizaje; uso de tecnología y prácticas de aprendizaje participativo. Además, la falta de motivación para usar más inglés se indica en algunos de los datos de los estudiantes. Ésta es una causa probable para algunas amenazas futuras para la continuidad del programa en las escuelas secundarias o en los estudios universitarios.

REFERENCES

References

Admiraal, W., Westhoff, G., and De Bot, K. (2006). Evaluation of bilingual Secondary education in the Netherlands: Students' language proficiency in English. *Educational Research and Evaluation, 12*(1), 75-93.

Adrián, M. M., & Mangado, M. J. G. (2015). Is CLIL instruction beneficial in terms of general proficiency and specific areas of grammar? *Journal of Immersion and Content-Based Language Education*, *3*(1), 51-76.

Agustín Llach, M. P. (2009). The role of Spanish L1 in the vocabulary of CLIL and non-CLIL EFL learners. In Y. Ruiz de Zarobe & R. M. Jiménez Catalán (Eds.), *Content and language integrated learning. Evidence from research in Europe* (pp. 111-129). Bristol: Multilingual Matters.

Agustín Llach, M. P., & Jiménez Catalán, R. M. (2007). Lexical Reiteration in EFL Young Learners' Essays. Effect of the Type of Instruction. *International Journal of English Studies*, *17*(2), 85-103.

Alejo González, R., & Piquer Píriz, A. (2016a). Urban vs. rural CLIL: An analysis of input-related variables, motivation and language attainment. *Language, Culture and Curriculum*, *29*(3), 245-262. doi: 10.1080/07908318.2016.1154068

Alejo González, R., & Piquer Píriz, A. (2016b). Measuring the productive vocabulary of secondary school CLIL students: Is Lex30 a valid test for low-level school learners? *Vigo International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, *13*, 31-53.

Alonso, E., Grisaleña, J., & Campo, A. (2008). Plurilingual education in Secondary schools: Analysis of results. *International CLIL Research Journal, 1*(1), 36-49.

Altieri, J. L. (2011). *Content counts!: Developing disciplinary literacy skills, K–6*. Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

Ament, J. R., & Pérez Vidal, C. (2015). Linguistic outcomes of English medium instruction programmes in higher education: A study on economics undergraduates at a Catalan university. *Higher Learning Research Communications, 5*(1), 47-67.

Anderson, N. J. (2002). The role of metacognition in second language teaching and learning. *ERIC Digest*. Washington, DC: Center for Applied Linguistics.

Appel, R., & Muysken, P. (2006). *Language contact and bilingualism*. Amsterdam: Amsterdam University Press.

Aronin, L., & Singleton, D. (2012). *Multilingualism.* Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

Arribas, M. (2016). Analysing a whole CLIL school: Students' attitudes, motivation, and receptive vocabulary outcomes. *Latin American Journal of Content and Language Integrated Learning*, *9*(2), 267-292. doi:10.5294/la- clil.2016.9.2.2

Arzoz, X. (2012). *Bilingual higher education in the legal context: Group rights, state policies and globalisation*. Leiden: Brill.

Azzaro, G., & Rice, R. (2012). Technology in content and language integrated learning. In J. D. Martínez Agudo (Ed.), *Teaching and learning English through bilingual education* (pp. 149-180). Newcastle upon Tyne: Cambridge Scholars Publishing.

Baker, C., & Jones, S. P. (1998). *Encyclopedia of bilingualism and bilingual education*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

Baker, C. (2011). *Foundations of bilingual education and bilingualism*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

Baker, C., & Lewis, G. (2015). A synthesis of research on bilingual and multilingual education. In W. E. Wright, S. Boun, & O. García. (Eds.), *The Handbook of Bilingual and Multilingual Education* (pp. 109-126). New Jersey, USA: John Wiley and Sons.

Banegas, D. L. (2012a). Integrating content and language in English language teaching in Secondary education: Models, benefits, and challenges. *Studies in Second Language Learning and Teaching*, *2*(1), 111-136.

Banegas, D. L. (2012b). CLIL teacher development: Challenges and experiences. *Latin American Journal of Content & Language Integrated Learning, 5*(1), 46-56.

Barbero, T. (2007). CLIL in scientific fields: From teaching language to learning activities. In D. Marsh, & D. Wolff (Eds.), *Mehrsprachigkeit in schule und unterricht, diverse contexts - converging goals: CLIL in Europe* (pp. 287-298). Frankfurt-am-Main: Peter Lang.

Barrow, L., & Markman-Pithers, L. (2016). Supporting young English learners in the United States. *The Future of Children*, *26*(2), 159-183.

Bhatia, T. K., & Ritchie, W. C. (2012). *Blackwell handbooks in linguistics: Handbook of bilingualism and multilingualism.* Somerset, NJ: Wiley-Blackwell.

Bialystok, E. (2001). *Bilingualism in development: Language, literacy, and cognition*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Bourgeois, D. (2007). *Canadian bilingual districts: From cornerstone to tombstone.* Montreal: McGill-Queen's University Press.

Breeze, R., Saíz, C. L., Pasamar, C. M., & Sala, C. T. (2014). *Integration of theory and practice in CLIL*. Amsterdam: Rodopi.

Breidbach, S., & Viebrock, B. (2013). *Content and language integrated learning (CLIL) in Europe: Research perspectives on policy and practice. Mehrsprachigkeit in schule und unterricht*. New York: Peter Lang.

Brevik, L. M., & Moe, E. (2012). Effects of CLIL teaching on language outcomes. In D. Tsagari, & I. Csépes. *Language testing and evaluation, collaboration in language testing and assessment* (pp. 213-227). Frankfurt-am-Main: Peter Lang AG.

Brindusa, A., Cabrales, A., & Carro, J. (2012). Evaluating a bilingual education program in Spain: The impact beyond foreign language learning. *Economic Inquiry, 54*(2), 1202-1223. doi: 10.1111/ecin.12305

Brondum, J., & Stenson, N. (1998). Types of immersion education: An introduction. *The ACIE Newsletter*, *1*(2). Retrieved from http://carla.umn.edu/immersion/acie/vol1/Feb1998_ImmersTypes.html

Bros Pérez, G. (2015). Content and language integrated learning in the Catalan-speaking territories of Spain: Catalonia, the Valencian community and the Balearic Islands. *European Journal of Language Policy, 7*(1), 43-63. doi:10.3828/ejlp.2015.4

Brown, J. D. (2001). *Using surveys in language programs*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Bruton, A. (2011a). Is CLIL so beneficial, or just selective? Re-evaluating some of the research. *System*, *39*, 523-532.

Bruton, A. (2011b). Are the differences between CLIL and non-CLIL groups in Andalusia due to CLIL? A reply to Lorenzo, Casal and Moore (2010). *Applied Linguistics*, *32*(2), 236-241.

Bruton, A. (2013). CLIL: Some of the reasons why… and why not. *System, 41*, 587-597.

Byram, M., & Grundy, P. (2003). Introduction: Context and culture in language teaching and learning. In M. Byram, & P. Grundy (Eds.), *Languages for intercultural communication & education: Context and culture in language teaching and learning* (pp. 1-17). Clevedon: Multilingual Matters. Retrieved from http://www.ebrary.com

Cabezas Cabello, J. M. (2010). A SWOT analysis of the Andalusian Plurilingualism Promotion Plan (APPP). In M. L. Pérez Cañado (Ed.), *Proceedings of the 23rd GRETA Convention* (pp. 83-91). Jaén: Joxman.

Cabezuelo Gutiérrez, P., & Fernández Fernández, R. (2014). A case study on teacher training needs in the Madrid bilingual project. *Latin American Journal of Content and Language Integrated Learning, 7*(2), 50-70. doi:10.5294/laclil.2014.7.2.3 eISSN 2322-9721

Cabrera, M. D. P. M. (2012). Materials and resources for CLIL classrooms. In J. D. Martínez Agudo (Ed.), *Teaching and learning English through bilingual education* (pp. 111-148). Newcastle upon Tyne: Cambridge Scholars Publishing.

Cachia, R., Ferrari, A., Ala-Mutka, K., & Punie, Y. (2010). *Creative learning and innovative teaching. Final report on the study on creativity and innovation in education in the EU member states.* Luxembourg: European Union.

Cameron, D. R., & Simeon, R. (2009). *Language matters: How Canadian voluntary associations manage French and English*. Vancouver: UBC Press.

Carder, M. (2007). *Bilingualism in international schools: A model for enriching language education*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

Casal, S., & Moore, P. (2009). The Andalusian bilingual sections scheme: Evaluation and consultancy. *International CLIL Research Journal*, *1*(2), 36-46. Retrieved from http://www.icrj.eu/12/article4.html 36

Cenoz, J. (2009). *Towards multilingual education: Basque educational research from an international perspective*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

Cenoz, J., & Genesee, F. (1998). *Beyond bilingualism: Multilingualism and multilingual education*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

Cenoz, J., & Genesee, F. (2001). *Trends in bilingual acquisition.* Amsterdam/Philadelphia: John Benjamins.

Cenoz, J., & Jessner, U. (2009). The study of multilingualism in educational contexts. In L., Aronin, & B. Hufeisen (Eds.), *Exploration of multilingualism: Development of research on L3, multilingualism and multiple language acquisition* (pp. 121-138). Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

Perspectives on individual characteristics and foreign language education. Berlin: De Gruyter Mouton.

Chan, W. M., Chin, K. N., Nagami, M., & Suthiwan, T. (2011). *Processes and process-orientation in foreign language teaching and learning*. Berlin: De Gruyter Mouton.

Cinganotto, L. (2016). CLIL in Italy: A general overview. *Latin American Journal of Content & Language Integrated Learning, 9*(2), 374-400.

Clyne, M. (2003). Towards a more language-centred approach to plurilingualism. In J. M. Dewaele, A. Housen, & L. Wei (Eds.), *Bilingualism: Beyond basic principles* (pp. 43-55). Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

Consejería de Educación, Juventud y Deporte de la Comunidad de Madrid. (2015). *Madrid, Comunidad Bilingüe/ Madrid, a Bilingual Community*. Madrid. Retrieved from http://gestiondgmejora.educa.madrid.org/_documentos/INSTRUCCIONES_201 6_2017.pdf

Consejería de Educación, Juventud y Deporte de la Comunidad de Madrid. (2011). *Orden 2462-01/2011, de 16 de junio.* Rterieved from http://www.madrid.org/wleg_pub/secure/normativas/contenidoNormativa.jsf?op cion=VerHtml&nmnorma=7277&cdestado=P#no-back-button

Consejería de Educación, Juventud y Deporte de la Comunidad de Madrid. (2011). *Inglés: Complementos de formación disciplinar: Theory and practice in English*

language teaching. Ministerio de Educación de España, Madrid. Editorial GRAÓ, de IRIF, S.L.

Consejería de Educación de la Comunidad de Madrid. (2015). *Orden 1012/2015, de 14 de abril, de la Consejería de Educación, Juventud y Deporte, por la que se modifica la Orden 1275/2014, de 11 de abril. BOCM: 93,* (pp. 44-45). Madrid: Comunidad de Madrid.

Consejería de Educación, Juventud y Deporte de la Comunidad de Madrid. (2016). *Datos y Cifras de la Educación 2015-2016*. Madrid. Retrieved from http://www.madrid.org/cs/Satellite?blobcol=urldata&blobheader=application%2Fpdf&blobheadername1=ContentDisposition&blobheadervalue1=filename%3Dlibro+datos+y+cifras+20152016+navegable.pdf&blobkey=id&blobtable=Mungo Blobs&blobwhere=1352898013282&ssbinary=true

Consejería de Educación, Juventud y Deporte de la Comunidad de Madrid. (2016). *Language assistant handbook school year 2015-16*. Madrid. Retrieved from https://comunidadbilingue.educa2.madrid.org/web/educamadrid/principal/files/8c5dec3a-4665-4b9d-a373-46ab12fbef6b/Documentos/Gu%C3%ADa%2015-16_ingles_word_modificado.pdf?t=1435736059943

Consejería de Educación, Juventud y Deporte de la Comunidad de Madrid. (2015). *Order 1317/2015*. Madrid. Retrieved from http://www.madrid.org/wleg/servlet/Servidor?opcion=VerHtml&nmnorma=8929&cdestado=P

Consejería de Educación de la Junta de Andalucía. (2005). *Plan de Fomento del Plurilingüismo* [Plan to Promote Plurilingualism]. Seville. Retrieved from http://www.juntadeandalucia.es/averroes/plurilinguismo

Consejería de Educación de la Junta de Andalucía. (2017). *Plan Estratégico de Desarrollo de las Lenguas en Andalucía.* Retrieved from http://www.juntadeandalucia.es/educacion/webportal/abaco-portlet/content/462f16e3-c047-479f-a753-1030bf16f822

Coyle, D. (1999). Theory and planning for effective classrooms: Supporting students in content and language integrated learning contexts. In J. Masih (Ed.), *Learning through a foreign language: Models, methods and outcomes, CILT* (pp. 46- 62). Grantham: United Kingdom.

Coyle, D. (2006). *Content and language integrated learning. Motivating learners and teachers.* Retrieved from http://www.blocs.xtec.cat/clilpractiques1/files/2008/11/slrcoyle.pdf

Coyle, D. (2007). Content and language integrated learning: Towards a connected research agenda for CLIL pedagogies. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism, 10*(5), 543-562.

Coyle, D. (2012). Content ad language integrated learning: Language using, learning gains. In M. G., Davies & A. Taronna, (Eds.), *New trends in early foreign language learning: The age factor, CLIL and languages in contact. Bridging*

research and good practices (pp. 26-33). Newcastle upon Tyne: Cambridge Scholars Publishing.

Coyle, D., Holmes, B., & King, L. (2009). Towards an integrated curriculum – CLIL national statement and guidelines. *London: The Languages Company*. Retrieved from http://www.unifg.it/sites/default/files/allegatiparagrafo/20-01-2014/coyle_et_al_towards_an_integrated_curriculum_clil_national_statement_and_guidelines.pdf

Coyle, D. (2010). Foreword. In D. Lasagabaster, & Y. Ruiz De Zarobe (Eds.), *CLIL in Spain: Implementation, results and teacher training* (p. viii). Newcastle upon Tyne: Cambridge Scholars Publishing.

Coyle, D., Hood, P., & Marsh, D. (2010). *CLIL: Content and language integrated learning.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Crawford, J. (2000). *At war with diversity: U.S. language policy in an age of anxiety.* Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

Creese, A. (2005). *Teacher collaboration and talk in multilingual classrooms.* Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

Crystal, D. (1997). *English as a global language.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Cummins, J. (2000). *Language, power and pedagogy: Bilingual children in the crossfire*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

Cummins J. (2009). Fundamental psycholinguistic and sociological principles underlying educational success for linguistic minority students. In T. Skutnabb-Kangas, R. Phillipson, A. K. Mohanty, & M. Panda (Eds.), *Social justice through multilingual education* (pp. 19-35). Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

Dalton-Puffer, C. (2007). *Discourse in content and language integrated learning (CLIL) classrooms*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing.

Dalton-Puffer, C. (2011). Content-and-language integrated learning: From practice to principles? *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics, 31*, 182-204.

Dalton-Puffer, C., Nikula, T., & Smit, U. (2010). Charting policies, premises and research on content and language integrated learning. In C. Dalton-Puffer, T. Nikula, & U. Smit (Eds.), *Language use and language learning in CLIL classrooms* (pp. 1- 19). Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing.

Darn, S. (2006). *Content and language integrated learning (CLIL): A European overview*. Retrieved from http://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED490775.pdf

Davies, S. (2003). Content based instruction in EFL contexts. *The Internet TESL Journal*, *9*(2), 9-17. Retrieved from http://iteslj.org/Articles/Davies-CBI

De Courcy, M. (2001). *Bilingual education and bilingualism, 32: Learners experiences of immersion education: Case studies of French and Chinese.* Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

De Graaff, R., Koopman, G. J., & Westhoff, G. (2007). Identifying effective L2 pedagogy in content and language integrated learning (CLIL). *Vienna English Working Papers*, *16*(3), 12-19. doi: 10.2167/beb462.0

De Houwer, A., & Wilton, A. (2011). *English in Europe today: Sociocultural and educational perspectives*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing.

De Mejía, A. M. (2002). *Power, prestige, and bilingualism: International perspectives on elite bilingual education*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

Del Valle, S. (2003). *Bilingual education and bilingualism, 40: Language rights and the law in the United States: Finding our voices.* Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

Denzin, N. K. (1970). *Sociological methods: A source book*. Chicago: Aldine.

Devos, N. (2012). Content and language integrated learning in physical education: evidence for language and content scaffolding during peer interaction abstract. In P. Lennon (Ed.), *Learner autonomy in the English classroom: Empirical studies and ideas for teachers* (pp. 359-381). Frankfurt-am-Main: Peter Lang.

Dobson, A., Pérez Murillo, M. D., & Johnstone, R. M. (2010). *Bilingual education project Spain: Evaluation report.* Madrid: Ministerio de Educación & British

Council, Spain. Retrieved from https://www.britishcouncil.es/sites/default/files/bilingual-education-project-spain-evaluation-report-en.pdf

Döpke, S. (2001). *Cross-linguistic structures in simultaneous bilingualism.* Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing.

Durán-Martínez, R. & Beltrán-Llavador, F. (2013). Nuevos modelos de formación del profesorado de inglés: El caso de Castilla y León. *Profesorado. Revista de Currículum y Formación de Profesorado*, *17*(3), 307-323.

Durán-Martínez, R. & Beltrán-Llavador, F. (2016). A regional assessment of bilingual programmes in Primary and Secondary schools: The teachers' views. *Porta Linguarum, 25*, 79-92.

Elaggoune, A. (2015). Integrating the content-based instruction into the American civilization class. *Arab World English Journal*, 61-69.

Estes, F. (2015). Transference of English culture through language acquisition. In L. Vescan (Ed.)*, Spanish vs. American: Perspectives on bilingual education* (pp. 139-147). Madrid: Servicio de Publicaciones de la Universidad de Alcalá.

Etus, Ö. (2013). Transnationalism in education: CLIL experience in Turkey. In S. Breidbach, & B. Viebrock (Eds.), *Mehrsprachigkeit in schule und Unterricht, Content and language integrated learning (CLIL) in Europe: Research perspectives on policy and practice.* Frankfurt-am-Main: Peter Lang.

European Commission. (1995). *White paper on education and training. Teaching and learning: Towards the learning society.* Retrieved from http://europa.eu/documents/comm/white_papers/pdf/com95_590_en.pdf

Eurydice. (2006). *Content and language integrated learning (CLIL) at school in Europe.* Brussels: Eurydice European Unit.

Eurydice. (2008). *Key data on teaching languages at school in Europe.* Brussels: European Commission.

Evnitskaya, N. & Morton, T. (2011). Knowledge construction, meaning-making and interaction in CLIL science classroom communities of practice. *Language and Education, 25,* (2), 109-127.

Faltis, K. (2011). Bilingual, ESL, and English immersion: Educational models for limited English proficient students in Texas. *Pepperdine Policy Review, 4*, 81-98.

Feinberg, R. C. (2002). *Bilingual education: A reference handbook*. Santa Barbara: ABC-CLIO.

Fernández Cézar, R., Aguirre Pérez, C., & Harris, C. (2009). Implementation of CLIL in Castilla-La Mancha (Spain) and teacher training. In D. Marsh, P. Mehisto, D. Wolff, R. Aliaga, T. Asikainen, M. J. Frigols-Martín, … & G. Langé (Eds.), *CLIL Practice: Perspectives from the Field* (pp. 21-27). Finland: University of Jyväskylä.

Fernández Costales, A. (2014). Teachers' perception on the use of subtitles as a teaching resource to raise students' motivation when learning a foreign language. In *Conference proceedings. ICT for language learning* (p. 426-429). libreriauniversitaria. it Edizioni.Florence, Italy.

Fernández Costales, A., & Lahuerta Martínez, A. C. (2014). New approaches in English language teaching: Teacher training in the framework of content and language integrated learning. *Magister: Revista Miscelánea de Investigación*, *26*(1), 18-24.

Fernández Fernández, R., Pena Díaz C., García Gómez A., & Halbach. A. (2005). La implantación de proyectos educativos bilingües en la Comunidad de Madrid: las expectativas del profesorado antes de iniciar el proyecto. *Porta Linguarum, 3,* 161-173.

Fernández Fontecha, A. (2009). Spanish CLIL: Research and official actions. In Y. Ruiz de Zarobe, & R. M. Jiménez Catalán (Eds.), *Content and language integrated learning. Evidence from research in Europe* (pp. 3-21). Bristol: Multilingual Matters.

Fernández Fontecha. A. (2010). First steps of CLIL in a Spanish monolingual community: The case of La Rioja. In D. Lasagabaster, & Y. Ruiz De Zarobe (Eds.), *CLIL in Spain: Implementation, results and teacher training* (pp. 79-94). Newcastle upon Tyne: Cambridge Scholars Publishing.

Fernández Fontecha, A. (2012). CLIL in the foreign language classroom: Proposal of a framework for ICT materials design in language-oriented versions of content and language integrated learning. *Alicante Journal of English Studies, 25*, 317-334.

Fernández Fontecha, A. (2014). Receptive vocabulary knowledge and motivation in CLIL and EFL. *Revista de Lingüística y Lenguas Aplicadas, 9*, 23-32.

Fernández, R., & Halbach, A. (2011). Analysing the situation of teachers in the Madrid bilingual project after four years of implementation. In Y. Ruiz de Zarobe, J. Sierra, & F. Gallardo del Puerto (Eds.), *Content and foreign language integrated learning* (pp. 241-270). Bern: Peter Lang.

Fernández Nogueira, D. (2012). Motivation in L2 English learning and teaching. In M. P. D., Martínez, & R. Place (Eds.), *Plurilingualism: Promoting co-operation between communities, people and nations* (pp. 127-134). Bilbao: Universidad de Deusto.

Fernández Sanjurjo, J., Fernández Costales, A., & Arias Blanco, J. M. (2017). Analysing students' content-learning in science in CLIL vs. non-CLIL programmes: Empirical evidence from Spain. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism.* doi: 10.1080/13670050.2017.1294142

Field, F. (2011). *Bilingualism in the USA: The case of the Chicano-Latino community.* Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

Flores, B. B. (2001). Bilingual education teachers' beliefs and their relation to self-reported practices. *Bilingual Research Journal*, *25*(3), 275-299.

Fortanet Gómez, I., & Ruiz Garrido, M. F. (2009). Sharing CLIL in Europe. In M. L. Carrió-Pastor (Ed.), *Content and language integrated learning: Cultural diversity* (pp. 47-75). Frankfurt-am-Main: Peter Lang.

Francis, N. (2012). *Bilingual competence and bilingual proficiency in child development*. MIT Press.

Freeman, R. (2007). Reviewing the research on language education programs. In O., García, & C., Baker (Eds.), *Bilingual education: An introductory reader* (pp. 3-18). (Vol. 61). Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

Frigols Martín, M.J. (2008). CLIL implementation in Spain: An approach to different models. In C.M. Coonan (Ed.), *CLIL e l'apprendimento delle lingue. Le sfide del nuovo ambiente di apprendimento*, Venezia, settembre, 2008 (pp. 221–232). Venice, Italy: Libreria Editrice Cafoscarina. Retrieved from http://arca.unive.it/bitstream/10278/1013/1/13Frigols.pdf

Gallardo del Puerto, F., Gómez Lacabex, E., & García Lecumberri, M. L. (2009). Testing the effectiveness of content and language integrated learning in foreign language contexts: The assessment of English pronunciation. In Y. Ruiz de Zarobe & R. M. Jiménez Catalán (Eds.), *Content and language integrated*

learning. Evidence from research in Europe (pp. 63-80). Bristol: Multilingual Matters.

García, O. (1991). *Essays in honor of Joshua A. Fishman: Focus on bilingual education.* Philadelphia: John Benjamins.

Garcia Gurrutxaga, M. L., Del Nozal, M., Villa, M., & Aliaga, R. (2010). Teaching-learning foreign languages in the Basque state schools: the INEB and BHINEBI projects, a practical example for CLIL and competence-based learning. In Y. Ruiz de Zarobe, J. M. Sierra, & F. Gallardo del Puerto (Eds.), *Content and language integrated learning: Contributions to multilingualism in European contexts* (pp. 271-292). Berne, IN: Peter Lang.

Genesee, F. (1994). *Integrating language and content: Lessons from immersion. Educational Practice Reports No. 11. National center for research on cultural diversity and second language learning*. Washington: Center for Applied Linguistics. Retrieved from http://escholarship.org/uc/item/61c8k7kh

Genesee, F. (2004). What do we know about bilingual education for majority language students. *Handbook of Bilingualism and Multiculturalism*, pp. 1-35.

Genesee, F & Lindholm-Leary, K. (2006). Dual language education in Canada and the U.S.A. *Encyclopedia of Language and Education*. Springer, Boston, MA Retrieved from http://www.psych.mcgill.ca/perpg/fac/genesee/21.pdf

Gerena, L., & Ramírez-Verdugo, M. D. (2014). Analyzing bilingual teaching and learning in Madrid, Spain: A Fulbright scholar collaborative research project. *Gist: Education and Learning Research Journal*, *8,* 118-136.

Glaser, B. & Strauss, A. (1967). *The discovery of grounded theory: Strategies for qualitative research.* Chicago: Aldine.

González, J. M. (2008). *Encyclopedia of bilingual education*. Los Angeles: SAGE Publications, Inc.

Grosjean, F. (2010). *Bilingual: Life and reality*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Halbach, A. (2014). Teaching (in) the foreign language in a CLIL context: Towards a new approach. In R. Breeze (Ed), *Integration of theory and practice in CLIL* (pp. 1-14). Amsterdam: Brill Academic Publishers.

Hallin, D. C. (1986). *The "uncensored war"*. The media and Vietnam. New York: Oxford University Press.

Hamers, J. F., & Blanc, M. (2000). *Bilinguality and bilingualism*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Hammond, J. & Gibbons, P. (2001). What is scaffolding. In J. Hammond (Ed.), *Scaffolding: Teaching and learning in language and literacy education* (pp. 1-14). Marrickville, New South Wales: Australia.

Han, W. (2012). Bilingualism and academic achievement. *Child Development, 83*(1), 300-321. doi:10.1111/j.1467-8624.2011.01686. x

Haynes, J., & Zacarian, D. (2010). *Teaching English language learners across the content areas.* Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision & Curriculum Development (ASCD).

Hindin, A. (2010). Linking home and school: Teacher candidates' beliefs and experiences. *The School Community Journal*, *20*(2), 73- 90.

Hoare, P. (2011). Context and constraints: Immersion in Hong Kong and Mainland China. In D. J., Tedick, D., Christian, & T. W., Fortune (Eds.), *Immersion education: Practices, policies, possibilities* (pp. 211-230). Bristol: Channel View Publications.

Hufeisen. B. (2007). Multilingualism (plurilingualism) in Europe and multiple language acquisition. In D. Marsh, & D. Wolff (Eds.), *Mehrsprachigkeit in schule und unterricht: Diverse contexts - converging goals: CLIL in Europe* (pp. 115- 130) (Vol. 6). Frankfurt-am-Main: Peter Lang.

Hughes, S. (2010). The effectiveness of bilingual education: A case study. *Paper presented at the 25ᵗʰ GRETA Convention: Celebrating 25 Years of Teacher Inspiration.* University of Granada.

Huguet, A. (2007). Language use and language attitudes in Catalonia. In D. Lasagabaster, & A., Huguet (Eds.), *Multilingualism in European bilingual*

contexts: Language use and attitudes (pp. 17-39). Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

Infante, D., Benvenuto, G., & Lastrucci, E. (2009). The effects of CLIL from the perspective of experienced teachers. In D. Marsh, P. Mehisto, D. Wolff, R. Aliaga, T. Asikainen, M. J. Frigols-Martín,… & G. Langé (Eds.), *CLIL practice: Perspectives from the field* (pp. 156-163). Finland: University of Jyväskylä.

Jiménez Catalán, R. M., & Fernández Fontecha, A. (2015). Lexical Phrases in Compositions by CLIL and Non-CLIL EFL Learners. In D. March, M. L. Pérez Cañado, & J. Ráez Padilla (Eds.), *CLIL in Action: Voices from the Classroom* (pp. 82-97). Newcastle upon Tyne, UK: Cambridge Scholars Publishing.

Jiménez Catalán, R. M., & Ojeda Alba, J. (2008). The English vocabulary of girls and boys: similarities or differences? Evidence from a corpus-based study. In K. Harrington, L. Litosseliti, H. Sauntson, & J. Sunderland (Eds.), *Language and Gender Research Methodology* (pp. 103-115). London: Palgrave Macmillan.

Jiménez Catalán, R. M., & Ruiz de Zarobe, Y. (2009). The receptive vocabulary of EFL learners in two instructional contexts: CLIL versus non-CLIL instruction. In Y. Ruiz de Zarobe, & R. M. Jiménez Catalán (Eds.), *Content and language integrated learning. Evidence from research in Europe* (pp. 81-92). Bristol: Multilingual Matters.

Jordà, M. P. S. (2005). *Third language learners: Pragmatic production and awareness*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

Kaplan, R. B., & Baldauf Jr., R. B. (2005). Language policy and planning in Hungary, Finland and Sweden: Some common issues. In R. B., Kaplan, & R. B. Baldauf Jr. (Eds.), *Language planning and policy in Europe, Finland, Hungary and Sweden* (pp. 6- 21). Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

Kaufman, D., & Crandall, J. (2005). Standards and content-based instruction: Transforming language education in Primary and Secondary schools. In Kaufman, D. & Crandall, J (Eds.), *Content-based instruction in primary and secondary school settings. Case Studies in TESOL.* (pp. 1–7). Alexandria: Virginia.

Kiely, R. (2009). CLIL: The question of assessment. *Developing-teachers.com.* Retrieved from *http://www.developingteachers. com/articles_tchtraining/clil1_richard. htm*. 1-9.

Kim, Y. K., Hutchison, L. A., & Winsler, A. (2015). Bilingual education in the United States: An historical overview and examination of two-way immersion educational. *Review*, *67*(2), 236-252. doi:10.1080/00131911.2013.865593

Kostogriz, A. (2009). Professional ethics in multicultural classrooms: English, hospitality and other. In J. Miller, A. Kostogriz, & M. Gearon (Eds.), *New perspectives on language and education: Culturally and linguistically diverse*

classrooms: New dilemmas for teachers (pp. 132-150)*.* Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

Kupetz, M., & Kupetz, R. (2014). Empowering the prospective CLIL teacher through the analysis of classroom interaction. In G. Blell, & R. Kupetz (Eds.), *Fremdsprachendidaktik inhalts- und lernerorientiert/foreign language pedagogy -content- and learner-oriented: Content and language integrated learning by interaction* (pp. 45-74). Frankfurt-am-Main: Peter Lang.

Lancaster, N. K. (2016). Stakeholder perspectives on CLIL in a monolingual context. *Canadian Center of Science and Education*, *9*(2), pp 148-177. doi:10.5539/elt.v9n2p148

Lancaster, N. K. (2018). Extramural exposure and language attainment: The examination of input-related variables in CLIL programmes. *Porta Linguarum*, *29*, 91-114.

Lancu, M. (1993). Adapting the adjunct model: A case study. *TESOL Journal, Summer*, *2*(4), 20-24. Retrieved from
http://digitalcommons.georgefox.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=1010&context=lang_fac

Lasagabaster, D. (2011). English achievement and student motivation in CLIL and EFL settings. *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching, 5*, 3-18.

Lasagabaster, D., & Huguet, A. (2007). *Multilingualism in European bilingual contexts: Language use and attitudes*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

Lasagabaster, D., & Sierra, J. M. (2009), Language attitudes in CLIL and traditional EFL classes. *International CLIL Research Journal, 1*(2), *4-17.*

Lasagabaster, D., & Doiz, A. (2016). CLIL students' perceptions of their language learning process: Delving into self-perceived improvement and instructional preferences. *Language Awareness*. *25*(1-2), 110-126. doi: 10.1080/09658416.2015.1122019

Geladari, A., & Mastrothanasis, K. (2014). The Employment of Cognitive and Metacognitive Strategies in Bilingual Pupils' Creative Writing. In N. Lavidas, T., Alexiou, & A.M., Sougari (Eds), *Major Trends in theoretical and applied linguistics 1: Selected papers from the 20th ISTAL* (pp. 97- 113), (Vol. 1). London, UK: Versita, Versita, Ltd.

Lenker, A., & Rhodes, N. (2007). Foreign language immersion programs: Features and trends over 35 years. *The ACIE Newsletter*, *10*(2), 1-8.

Lennon, P. (2012). The story of learner autonomy: From self-access to social learning. In P. Lennon (Ed.), *Learner autonomy in the English classroom: Empirical studies and ideas for teachers* (pp. 19-64). Frankfurt-am-Main: Peter Lang.

Leyva, M. O., & Díaz, C. P. (2013). How do we teach our CLIL teachers? A case study from Alcalá University. *Porta Linguarum 19*, 87-100.

Lillie, K. E., Markos, A., Estrella, A., Nguyen, T., Peer, K., Pérez, K., ... & Wiley, T. G. (2010). Policy in practice: The implementation of structured English immersion in Arizona. *Civil Rights Project/Proyecto Derechos Civiles,* 1-45.

Llinares, A., & Dafouz, E. (2010). Content and language integrated language programmes in the Madrid region: Overview and research findings. In D. Lasagabaster & Y. Ruiz de Zarobe (Eds.), *CLIL in Spain: Implementation, results and teacher training* (pp. 95-113). Newcastle upon Tyne: Cambridge Scholars Publishing.

Llinares, A, Morton, T., & Whittaker, R. (2012). *The roles of language in CLIL.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Llinares, A., & Pascual Peña, I. (2015). A genre approach to the effect of academic questions on CLIL students' language production. *Language and Education, 29*(1), 15-30. doi:10.1080/09500782.2014.924964

Llinares, A. & Whittaker, R. (2010). Writing and speaking in the history class: Data from CLIL and first language contexts. In C. Dalton-Puffer, T. Nikula, & U. Smit (Eds.), *Language use and language learning in CLIL classrooms* (pp. 125-144). Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

Llinares, A. & Whittaker, R. (2011). Content and language integrated learning (CLIL) in Secondary school. F. B. Llavador, V. Hobbs, A. Llinares, G. Motteram, A. Paran, S. Sánchez-Reyes, & R. Whittaker (Eds), *Inglés. Complementos de*

formación disciplinar: Theory and Practice in English Language Teaching (Vol. 1). España: Ministerio de Educación de España - Editorial GRAÓ, de IRIF, S.L.

Liddicoat, A. J., & Scarino, A. (2013). *Intercultural language teaching and learning*. Somerset, NJ: John Wiley & Sons.

Lindholm-Leary, K. J. (2001). *Bilingual education and bilingualism, 28: Dual language education*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

Lorenzo, F. (2010). CLIL in Andalusia. In D. Lasagabaster & Y. Ruiz de Zarobe (Eds.), *CLIL in Spain: Implementation, results and teacher training* (pp. 2-11). Newcastle upon Tyne: Cambridge Scholars Publishing.

Lorenzo, F., Casal Madinabeitia, S., De Alba Quiñones, V., & Moore, P. (2007). Introduction. *RESLA*, *Vol. Extra 1,* 11-13.

Lorenzo, F., Casal, S., & Moore, P. (2009). The effects of content and language integrated learning in European education: Key findings from the Andalusian bilingual sections evaluation project. *Applied Linguistics*, *31*(3), 418-442.

Lyon, J. (1996). *Becoming bilingual: Language acquisition in a bilingual community*. Clevedon: Multilingual matters.

Lyster, R. (2007). *Learning and teaching languages through content: A counterbalanced approach*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing.

Madrid, D., & Hughes, S. (2011). Introduction to bilingual and plurilingual education. In D. Madrid, & S. Hughes (Eds.), *Studies in bilingual education* (pp. 17-50). Frankfurt-am-Main: Peter Lang.

Madrid, D, & Barrios, E. (2018). A comparison of students' educational achievement across programmes and school types with and without CLIL provision. *Porta Linguarum, 29,* 29-50.

Madrid Fernández, D., & Pérez Cañado, M, L. (2012). CLIL teacher training. In J. D. Martínez Agudo (Ed.), *Teaching and learning English through bilingual education* (pp. 181-121). Newcastle upon Tyne: Cambridge Scholars Publishing.

Manzano Vázquez, B. (2015). CLIL in three Spanish monolingual communities: The examples of Extremadura, Madrid and La Rioja. *ELIA, 15*, 135-158. Retrieved from http://revistas.uned.es/index.php/ELIA/article/view/18002

Marenzi, I. (2014). Interactive and collaborative support for CLIL: Towards a formal model based on digital literacy. In G. Blell, & R. Kupetz (Eds.), *Fremdsprachendidaktik inhalts- und lernerorientiert /Foreign language pedagogy -content- and learner-oriented: Content and language integrated learning by interaction* (pp. 75-99). Frankfurt-am-Main: Peter Lang.

Marsh, D. (2002). *CLIL/EMILE. The European dimension. Actions, trends, and foresight potential.* Jyväskylä: University of Jyväskylä. Retrieved from http://ec.europa.eu/education/languages/pdf/doc491_en.pdf

Marsh. D. (2009a). Forward. In Y. Ruiz de Zarobe & R. M. Jiménez Catalán (Eds.), *Content and language integrated learning: Evidence from research in Europe* (pp. vii- viii). Bristol: Multilingual Matters.

Marsh, D. (2009b). Adding language without taking away. *The Guardian Weekly*. Retrieved from. http://www.guardian.co.uk/guardianweekly/story/0,12674,1464367, 00.htm

Marsh, D. (2012). *Content and language integrated learning (CLIL). A development trajectory* (Doctoral Dissertation). Córdoba: University of Cordoba Academic Press.

Marsh, D., Mehisto, P., Wolff, D., & Frigols Martín, M. J. (2012). *European framework for CLIL teacher education*. European Centre for Modern Languages. Retrieved from https://ebuah.uah.es/dspace/bitstream/handle/10017/14881/CLIL-Framework_Marsh.pdf?sequence=1

Marsh, D, & Wolff, D. (2007). *Mehrsprachigkeit in schule und unterricht: Diverse contexts - converging goals: CLIL in Europe*. Frankfurt-am-Main: Peter Lang.

Martínez Adrián, M. (2011). An overview of content and language integrated learning: Origins, features and research outcomes. *Huarte de San Juan. Filología y Didáctica de la Lengua, 11,* 93-101.

Martín de Lama, M. A. (2015). Making the match between content and foreign language: A case study on university students' opinions towards CLIL. *Higher Learning Research Communications*, *5*(1), 29-46.

McNeal, R. B., Jr. (2014). Parent involvement, academic achievement and the role of student attitudes and behaviors as mediators. *Universal Journal of Educational Research, 2*(8), 564-576.

Mehisto, P. (2013). Integrating CLIL with other mainstream discourses. In S. Breidbach, & B. Viebrock (Eds.), *Mehrsprachigkeit in Schule und Unterricht: Content and language integrated learning (CLIL) in Europe: Research perspectives on policy and practice* (pp. 25-50). Frankfurt-am-Main: Peter Lang.

Meyer, O. (2010). Towards quality CLIL: Successful planning and teaching strategies. *Pulso, 33*, 11-29.

Milla Lara, M. D, & Casas Pedrosa, A. V. (2018). Teacher perspectives on CLIL implementation: A within-group comparison of key variables. *Porta Linguarum, 29,* 159-180.

Milla, R., & Mayo, M. P. G. (2014). Corrective feedback episodes in oral interaction: A comparison of a CLIL and an EFL classroom. *International Journal of English Studies*, *14*(1), 1-20.

Muñoz, C. (2000). Bilingualism and trilingualism in school students in Catalonia. In J. Cenoz & U. Jessner (Eds.), English in Europe: The acquisition of a third language (pp.157-178). Clevedon: Multilingual Matters

Muñoz, C. (2007). CLIL: Some thoughts on psycholinguistic principles. RESLA, 1, 17-26.

Mougeon, R., Nadasdi, T., & Rehner, K. (2010). *The sociolinguistic competence of immersion students*. Bristol: Multilingual Matters.

Nagy, W. E., & Anderson, R. C. (1995). Metalinguistic awareness and literacy acquisition in different languages. *Center for the Study of Reading. Technical Report no. 618*. Champaign, IL: University of Illinois.

National Research Council Staff. (1992). *Assessing evaluation studies: The case of bilingual education strategies.* Washington: National Academies Press.

Naugle, W. R. (2015). My language 'Tis of thee: Bilingual education and language policy in Spain and the U.S. In L., Vescan (Ed), *Spanish vs. American: Perspectives on bilingual education* (pp. 15-28). Madrid: University of Alcalá.

Navarro-Pablo, M., & Jiménez, E. G. (2018). Are CLIL students more motivated? An analysis of affective factors and their relation to language attainment. *Porta Linguarum,* 29, 71-90.

Navés, T. (2009). Effective content and language integrated learning (CLIL) programmes. In Y., Ruiz de Zarobe, & R. M. Jimémez Catalán (Eds.), *Content and language integrated learning: Evidence from research in Europe* (pp. 22-40). Bristol: Multilingual Matters.

Nieto Moreno De Diezmas, E. (2016). The impact of CLIL on the acquisition of language competences and skills in L2 in primary education. *International Journal of English Studies*, *16*(2), 81-101.

Nieto Moreno De Diezmas, E. (in press for 2018). *CLIL in monolingual settings: new insights from the Spanish context*. Amsterdam: Springer.

Obiakor, F. E., Bakken, J. P., & Rotatori, A. F. (2010). *Current issues and trends in special education: Research, technology, and teacher preparation.* Bingley: Emerald Group Publishing.

O'Dowd, R. (2018). Innovations and challenges in using online communication technologies in CLIL. *Theory into Practice, 57*: 232-240. doi: /10.1080/00405841.2018.1484039

Ojeda Alba, J. (2009). Themes and vocabulary in CLIL and non-CLIL instruction. In Y. Ruiz de Zarobe & R. M. Jiménez Catalán (Eds.), *Content and language integrated learning. Evidence from research in Europe* (pp. 130-156). Bristol: Multilingual Matters.

Olmedo, I. (2010). Teaching bilingually across the content areas. In S. A., Reyes, & T., Kleyn. *Teaching in two languages: A guide for K–12 bilingual educators* (pp. 55-70). Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin.

Orden 3245/2009, por la que se regulan los institutos bilingües de la Comunidad de Madrid. BOCM Nº170, de 20 de julio de 2009. Madrid: Consejería de Educación de la Comunidad de Madrid. Retrieved from https://www.bocm.es/boletin/CM_Orden_BOCM/2009/07/20/2009-07-20_17072009_0011.pdf

Orden 9961/2012, de 31 de agosto, por la que se establece el currículo de inglés avanzado del tercer y cuarto cursos de la Educación Secundaria Obligatoria para las secciones bilingües de los institutos bilingües de la Comunidad de Madrid. Madrid: Consejería de Educación de la Comunidad de Madrid. Retrieved from http://www.bocm.es/boletin/CM_Orden_BOCM/2012/09/07/BOCM- 20120907-7.pdf

Ovando, C. J. (2003). Bilingual education in the United States: Historical development and current issues. *Bilingual Research Journal, 27*(1), 1-24. doi: 10.1080/15235882.2003.10162589

Oxbrow, G. (2018). Students' perspectives on CLIL programme development: A quantitative analysis. *Porta Linguarum, 29*, 137-158.

Pacific Policy Research Center. (2010). Successful bilingual and immersion education models/programs. *Honolulu: Kamehameha Schools, Research & Evaluation Division.*

Papaja, K. (2014). *Focus on CLIL: A qualitative evaluation of content and language integrated learning (CLIL) in Polish Secondary education*. Newcastle upon Tyne: Cambridge Scholars Publishing.

Paran, A. (2013). Content and language integrated learning: Panacea or policy borrowing myth? *Applied Linguistics Review*, *4*(2), 317-342.

Patton, M. Q. (1987). How to use qualitative methods in evaluation. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Paulston, C. B. (1988). *International handbook of bilingualism and bilingual education*. Westport: Greenwood Publishing Group.

Pavón Vázquez, V., & Rubio, F. (2010). Teachers' concerns and uncertainties about the introduction of CLIL programmes. *Porta Linguarum, 14*, 45-58.

Pavón, Vázquez, V., & Ellison, M. (2013). Examining teacher roles and competences in content and language integrated learning (CLIL). *Linguarum Arena, 4,* 65-78.

Pavón Vázquez, V., & Gaustad, M. (2013). Designing bilingual programmes for higher education in Spain: Organisational, curricular and methodological

decisions. *International CLIL Research Journal*, *2*(1), 82-94. Retrieved from http://www.icrj.eu/21/article7.html

Pavón Vázquez, V. (2014). Enhancing the quality of CLIL: Making the best of the collaboration between language teachers and content teachers. *Encuentro*, *23,* 115-127.

Pavón Vázquez, V. (2018). Learning outcomes in CLIL programmes: A comparison of results between urban and rural environments. *Porta Linguarum, 29*, 9-28.

Pena Díaz, C., & Porto Requejo, M. (2008). Teacher beliefs in a CLIL education project. *Porta Linguarum*, *10*, 151-161.

Pérez Cañado, M. L. (2011). The effects of CLIL within the APPP: Lessons learned and ways forward. In R. Crespo, & M. García De Sola (Eds.), *Studies in honour of Ángeles Linde López* (pp. 389-406). Granada: Universidad de Granada.

Pérez-Cañado, M. L. (2012). CLIL research in Europe: Past, present, and future. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, *15*(3), 315-341. Retrieved from http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/13670050.2011.630064

Pérez Cañado, M. L. (2013). Introduction. *Revista de Lenguas para Fines Específicos, 19,* 12-27.

Pérez Cañado, M. L. (2016a). Are teachers ready for CLIL? Evidence from a European study. *European Journal of Teacher Education*, *39*(2), 1-21. doi: 10.1080/02619768.2016.1138104

Pérez Cañado, M. L. (2016b). From the CLIL craze to the CLIL conundrum: Addressing the current CLIL controversy. *Bellaterra Journal of Teaching & Learning Language & Literature,* *9*(1), 9-31. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.5565/rev/jtl3.667

Pérez Cañado, M. L. (2016c). Evaluating CLIL programmes: Instrument design and validation. *Pulso: Revista de Educación*, *39,* 79-112.

Pérez Cañado, M. L. (2017). CLIL teacher education: Where do we stand and where do we need to go? In E. Gómez Parra, & R. Johnstone (Eds.), *Educación bilingüe: tendencias educativas y conceptos claves: Bilingual educational: trends and key concepts* (pp. 129-144). Madrid: Ministerio de Educación, Cultura y Deporte.

Pérez Cañado, M. L. (2018a). The Evolution of bilingual education in monolingual contexts: An Andalusian case study, In P. Romanowski & M. Jedynak (Eds.), *Current Research in Bilingualism and Bilingual Education* (pp. 201-247). Amsterdam: Springer.

Pérez Cañado, M. L. (2018b). The effects of CLIL on L1 and content learning: Updated empirical evidence from monolingual contexts. *Learning and Instruction*, *57*, 18-33. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.learninstruc.2017.12.002

Pérez Cañado, M. L. (2018c). CLIL and educational level: A longitudinal study on the impact of CLIL on language outcomes. *Porta Linguarum*, (*29),* 51-70.

Pérez Cañado, M. L. (2018d). CLIL and pedagogical innovation: Fact or fiction? International Journal of Applied Linguistics. doi: 10.1111/ijal.12208

Pérez Cañado, M. L., & Lancaster, N. K. (2017). The effects of CLIL on oral comprehension and production: A longitudinal case study. *Language, Culture, and Curriculum*, *30*(3), 300–316.

Pérez-Vidal, C. (2009). The integration of content and language in the classroom: A European approach to education (the second time around). In E. Dafouz & M. Guerrini (Eds.), *CLIL across educational levels* (pp. 3-16). Madrid: Santillana.

Pérez-Vidal, C., & Juan-Garau, M. (2010). To CLIL or not to CLIL? From bilingualism to multilingualism in Catalan/Spanish communities in Spain. In D. Lasagabaster & Y. Ruiz de Zarobe (Eds.), *CLIL in Spain: Implementation, results and teacher training* (pp. 115-138). Newcastle upon Tyne: Cambridge Scholars Publishing.

Potowski, K. (2007). *Language and identity in a dual immersion school*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

Potowski, K., & Rothman, J. (2011). *Bilingual youth Spanish in English-speaking societies.* Amsterdam / Philadelphia: John Benjamins.

Quecedo, C. H. (2015). The impact of bilingual education on average school performance: An evaluation of Madrid's bilingual schools programme. *The Public Sphere*, 158-162.

Ráez-Padilla, J. (2018). Parent perspectives on CLIL implementation: Which variables make a difference? *Porta Linguarum, 29,* 181-196.

Ramírez, A. G. (1985). *Bilingualism through schooling: Cross-cultural education for minority and majority students*. Albany, NY: State University of New York Press.

Ramirez, J. D., Yuen, S. D., Ramey, D. R., & Pasta, D. J. (1991). *Longitudinal study of structured English immersion strategy, early-exit and late-exit transitional bilingual education programs for language-minority children. Final Report*. Retrieved from https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED330216.pdf

Ramos Ordóñez, M. C., & Pavón Vázquez, V. (2015). Developing cooperative learning through tasks in content and language integrated learning. *Multidisciplinary Journal of Educational Research, 5*(2), 136-166. doi: 10.17583/remie.2015.1429

Rascón Moreno, D. J. & Bretones Callejas, C. M. (2018). Socioeconomic status and its impact on language and content attainment in CLIL contexts. *Porta Linguarum, 29,* 115-135.

Ravelo, L. C. (2014). Demystifying some possible limitations of CLIL (Content and language integrated learning) in the EFL classroom/desmistificando algunas

posibles limitaciones del enfoque AICLE (aprendizaje integrado de contenidos y lenguas extranjeras) en la clase de inglés como lengua extranjera (LE). *Latin American Journal of Content & Language Integrated Learning*, *7*(2), 71-82.

Relaño Pastor, A. M. (2014). The commodification of English in 'Madrid, comunidad bilingue': Insights from the CLIL classroom. *Springer Science+Business Media Dordrecht, 14,* 131-152. doi: 10.1007/s10993-014-9338-7

Rennie, J. (1993). ESL and bilingual program models. *ERIC Digest*. Washington, D.C.: Center for Applied Linguistics.

Risager, K. (2006). *Language and culture: Global flows and local complexity*. Buffalo: Multilingual matters.

Roa, J., Madrid, D., & Sanz, I. (2011). A bilingual education research report in monolingual areas. In D. Madrid & S. Hughes (Eds.), *Studies in bilingual education* (pp. 107-133). Frankfurt-am-Main: Peter Lang.

Roberts, C. A. (1995). Bilingual education program models: A framework for understanding. *Bilingual Research Journal*, *19*(3-4), 369-378.

Roldán Tapia, A. R. (2012). The shaping of Spanish CLIL. *Encuentro*, *21*, 71-79.

Roo, J. (2014). CLIL: Approaching content through communicative interaction. In R., Kupetz, & C., Becker (Eds.), *Fremdsprachendidaktik inhalts- und lernerorientiert/foreign language pedagogy -content- and learner-oriented:*

Content and language integrated learning by interaction (pp. 101-122). Frankfurt am Main: Peter Lang.

Ruiz de Zarobe, Y. (2008). CLIL and foreign language learning: A longitudinal study in the Basque Country. *International CLIL Research Journal, 1*(1), 60-73.

Ruiz de Zarobe, Y., & Lasagabaster, D. (2010). The emergence of CLIL in Spain: An educational challenge. In D. Lasagabaster, & Y. Ruiz De Zarobe (Eds.), *CLIL in Spain: Implementation, results and teacher training* (pp, ix- xvii). Newcastle upon Tyne: Cambridge Scholars Publishing.

Ruiz Gómez, D. (2015). A practical approach to CLIL in L2 content-based courses: Methodological guidelines for the Andalusian bilingual classroom. In D. Marsh, M. L. Pérez Cañado & J. Ráez Padilla (Eds.), *CLIL in action: Voices from the classroom* (pp. 14-30). Newcastle upon Tyne: Cambridge Scholars Publishing

San Isidro, X. (2010). An insight into Galician CLIL: Provision and results. In D. Lasagabaster, & Y. Ruiz de Zarobe (Eds.), *CLIL in Spain: Implementation, results and teacher training* (pp. 55-78). Newcastle upon Tyne: Cambridge Scholars Publishing.

Sarı, İ., Alcı, B., & Karataş, H. (2015). Students' content responsibility in content-based instruction (CBI) and active participation. *International Online Journal of Educational Sciences*, *7*(3), 101-112.

Sasajima, S. (2013). How CLIL can impact on EFL teachers' mindsets about teaching and learning: An exploratory study on teacher cognition. *International CLIL Research Journal*, *2*(1), 55-66.

Schleppegrell, M. J., Achugar, M., & Oteíza, T. (2004). The grammar of history: Enhancing content-based instruction through a functional focus on language. *TESOL Quarterly*, *38*(1), 67-93.

Scott, D., and Beadle, S. (2014). *Improving the effectiveness of language learning: CLIL and computer assisted language learning.* London: Watling House.

Sercu, L. (2005). *Foreign language teachers and intercultural competence: An international investigation.* Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

Shin, S. J. (2004). *Developing in two languages: Korean children in America.* Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

Smit, U. (2007). ELF (English as a lingua franca) as medium of instruction-interactional repair in international hotel management education. In C. Dalton-Puffer, & U. Smit (Eds.), *Sprache im kontext: Empirical perspectives on CLIL classroom discourse* (pp. 227-252). Frankfurt-am-Main, Peter Lang.

Swain, M., & Johnson, R. (1997). Immersion education: A category within bilingual education. In R. Johnson, & M. Swain (Eds.), *Immersion education: International perspectives* (pp. 1-16). New York: Cambridge University Press.

Swain, M., & Lapkin, S. (2000). Task-based second language learning: The uses of the first language. *Language Teaching Research*, *4*(3), 251-274.

Tabatadze, S. (2015). Factors influencing the effectiveness of bilingual educational programs: The prospects of pilot programs in Georgia. *Sino-US English Teaching*, *12*(2), 93-109.

Thomas, W. P., Collier, V. P., & Abbott, M. G. (1993). Academic achievement through Japanese, Spanish, or French: The first two years of partial immersion. *Modern Language Journal, 77*, 170-179. doi: 10.2307/328941

Tobin, N. A. & Abello-Contesse, C. (2013). The use of native assistants as language and cultural resources in Andalusia's bilingual schools. In C. Abello-Contesse, P. M. Chandler, M. D. López-Jiménez, & R. Chacón-Beltrán (Eds.), *Bilingual and multilingual education in the 21st century. Building on experience* (pp. 231-255). Bristol: Multilingual Matters.

Tong, F., Lara-Alecio, R., Irby, B., Mathes, P., & Kwok, O. M. (2008). Accelerating early academic oral English development in transitional bilingual and structured English immersion programs. *American Educational Research Journal, 45*(4), 1011-1044.

Vázquez, B. M. (2015). CLIL in three Spanish monolingual communities: The examples of Extremadura, Madrid and La Rioja. *Elia*, *15*, 135-158. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.12795/elia.2015.i15.07

Vásquez, A., Hansen, A. L., & Smith, P. C. (2013). *Teaching language arts to English language learners* (2nd edition). New York/Oxon: Routledge.

Vez, J. M. (2009). Multilingual education in Europe: Policy developments. *Porta Linguarum, 12,* 7-24.

Vincett, K., Cremin, H., & Thomas, G. (2005). *Teachers and assistants working together*. Maidenhead: McGraw-Hill Education.

Wei, L. (2011). *Contributions to the sociology of language [CSL]: Opportunities and challenges of bilingualism.* Berlin: De Gruyter Mouton.

Wesche, M. B. (2002). *Early French immersion: How has the original Canadian model stood the test of time?*.na.

Whittaker, R., & Llinares, A. (2009). CLIL in social science classrooms: Analysis of spoken and written productions. In Y. Ruiz de Zarobe & R. M. Jiménez Catalán (Eds.), *Content and language integrated learning. Evidence from research in Europe* (pp. 215-234). Bristol: Multilingual Matters.

Wolff, D. (2005). Approaching CLIL. In D. Marsh (Coord.), *The CLIL quality matrix. Central workshop report* (pp. 10-25). *Graz: European Centre for Modern Languages.* Retrieved from http://www.ecml.at/mtp2/CLILmatrix/pdf/wsrepD3E2005_6.pdf

Wolff, D. (2011). CLIL and learner autonomy: Relating two educational concepts. *Education et Sociétés Plurilingues, 30,* 69- 80.

Woore, R. (2015). Madrid, a bilingual community: A view from the classroom. *A report for EMI Oxford.* Retrieved from http://www.education.ox.ac.uk/wordpress/wp-content/uploads/2014/09/Woore-R.-2015-Madrid-a-Bilingual-Community-a-view-from-the-classroom-unpublished-report.pdf

Wynne, S. A., & XAM. (2010). *English as a second language (ESL): Teacher certification exam.* Boston: XAM Online, Inc.

Xu, S. H. (2010). *Tools for teaching literacy: Teaching English language learners (Literacy strategies and resources for K-6).* New York: Guilford Press.

Zacarian, D., & Haynes, J. (2012). *The essential guide for educating beginning English learners.* Thousands Oaks, CA: Corwin.

Zwiers, J. (2014). *Building academic language: Meeting common core standards across disciplines, grades 5-12.* Somerset, NJ: John Wiley & Sons.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX I

STUDENT QUESTIONNAIRE

Proyecto MON-CLIL: *Los Efectos del Aprendizaje Integrado de Contenidos y Lenguas Extranjeras en Comunidades Monolingües: Un Estudio Longitudinal*

Cuestionario

ALUMNADO

1. CENTRO: _____
2. CURSO Y CLASE: _____
3. EDAD: _____
4. SEXO: ☐ Hombre   ☐ Mujer
5. NACIONALIDAD: _____
8. ¿CÚANTOS AÑOS HAS ESTUDIADO EN UN PROGRAMA BILINGÜE? _____
9. ASIGNATURAS QUE ESTUDIAS EN INGLÉS ESTE CURSO:
    ☐ Ciencias Naturales
    ☐ Ciencias Sociales
    ☐ Matemáticas
    ☐ Dibujo
    ☐ Música
    ☐ Educación Física
    ☐ Otra _____
10. EXPOSICIÓN AL INGLÉS DENTRO DEL PROGRAMA BILINGÜE:
    ¿Qué porcentaje de cada asignatura bilingüe se enseña en inglés?   ☐ 30% ☐ 40% ☐ 50%
    ☐ No sé

POR FAVOR, INDICA HASTA QUÉ PUNTO ESTÁS DE ACUERDO CON LOS SIGUIENTES ASPECTOS RELACIONADOS CON LA ENSEÑANZA BILINGÜE (1=Totalmente en desacuerdo; 2=En desacuerdo; 3=De acuerdo; 4=Totalmente de acuerdo).

1. USO, COMPETENCIA Y DESARROLLO DEL INGLÉS DE LOS ALUMNOS EN CLASE

ASPECTOS	TOTALMENTE EN DESACUERDO	EN DESACUERDO	DE ACUERDO	TOTALMENTE DE ACUERDO
1. Se desarrollan las competencias clave en clase	1	2	3	4
2. Mi inglés ha mejorado debido a mi participación en un programa bilingüe	1	2	3	4
4. Mi español ha mejorado debido a mi participación en un programa bilingüe	1	2	3	4
5. Mi conocimiento de los contenidos de las asignaturas impartidas en inglés ha mejorado debido a mi participación en un programa bilingüe	1	2	3	4

	TOTALMENTE EN DESACUERDO	EN DESACUERDO	DE ACUERDO	TOTALMENTE DE ACUERDO
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 (*software*) en clase	1	2	3	4
26. Se utilizan materiales de referencia *online* en clase	1	2	3	4
27. Se utilizan *blogs, wikis* (herramientas Web 2.0) y *webquests* 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., *e-Twinning)*	1	2	3	4
Otro (especificar):	1	2	3	4

4. EVALUACIÓN

ASPECTOS	TOTALMENTE EN DESACUERDO	EN DESACUERDO	DE ACUERDO	TOTALMENTE DE ACUERDO
30. Se evalúan todos los contenidos enseñados en el programa bilingüe	1	2	3	4
31. A la hora de evaluar, se tienen más en cuenta los contenidos que la expresión lingüística	1	2	3	4

32. Se evalúa también oralmente	1	2	3	4
33. Se practica la evaluación continua y final	1	2	3	4
Otro (especificar):	1	2	3	4

5. USO, COMPETENCIA Y DESARROLLO DE INGLÉS DE LOS PROFESORES EN CLASE

ASPECTOS	TOTALMENTE EN DESACUERDO	EN DESACUERDO	DE ACUERDO	TOTALMENTE DE ACUERDO
34. Mis profesores de lenguas extranjeras imparten sus clases con éxito	1	2	3	4
35. Mis profesores de asignaturas bilingües imparten sus clases con éxito	1	2	3	4
36. Mis auxiliares de conversación imparten sus clases con éxito	1	2	3	4
37. Mis profesores de lenguas extranjeras motivan al alumno	1	2	3	4
38. Mis profesores de asignaturas bilingües motivan al alumno	1	2	3	4
39. Mis auxiliares de conversación motivan al alumno	1	2	3	4
40. Mis auxiliares de conversación colaboran con éxito con los alumnos de la clase bilingüe	1	2	3	4
41. Mis profesores tienen una capacidad adecuada en comprensión y expresión orales en inglés	1	2	3	4
42. Mis profesores tienen una capacidad adecuada en comprensión y expresión escritas en inglés	1	2	3	4
43. Mis profesores tienen un conocimiento adecuado de aspectos socio-culturales en la lengua inglesa	1	2	3	4
Otro (especificar):	1	2	3	4

6. MOVILIDAD

ASPECTOS	TOTALMENTE EN DESACUERDO	EN DESACUERDO	DE ACUERDO	TOTALMENTE DE ACUERDO
44. He participado en programas de intercambio dentro del programa bilingüe	1	2	3	4
45. Mis profesores de la sección bilingüe fomentan la participación en programas de intercambio	1	2	3	4
46. Mi familia me anima a participar en programas de intercambio	1	2	3	4
Otro (especificar):	1	2	3	4

7. MEJORAS Y MOTIVACIÓN PARA EL APRENDIZAJE DE INGLÉS

ASPECTOS	TOTALMENTE EN DESACUERDO	EN DESACUERDO	DE ACUERDO	TOTALMENTE DE ACUERDO
47. Formar parte de una sección bilingüe compensa el incremento de trabajo que implica	1	2	3	4
48. Ha habido una mejoría general de mi aprendizaje de inglés debido a mi participación en un programa bilingüe	1	2	3	4
49. Mi motivación hacia el aprendizaje del inglés ha aumentado debido a mi participación en un programa bilingüe	1	2	3	4
50. Tengo un acceso adecuado a materiales en inglés fuera del centro	1	2	3	4
Otro (especificar):	1	2	3	4

MUCHAS GRACIAS POR TU COLABORACIÓN

APPENDIX II

TEACHER QUESTIONNAIRE

Proyecto MON-CLIL: Los Efectos del Aprendizaje Integrado de Contenidos y Lenguas Extranjeras en Comunidades Monolingües: Un Estudio Longitudinal

Cuestionario

PROFESORADO

1. CENTRO: _____
2. EDAD: _____
3. SEXO: ☐ Hombre ☐ Mujer
4. NACIONALIDAD: _____
5. TIPO DE PROFESORADO:
   ☐ Lengua extranjera
   ☐ Área no lingüística
   ☐ Auxiliar lingüístico
   ☐ Otro: _____
6. SITUACIÓN ADMINISTRATIVA:
   ☐ Funcionario/a con destino definitivo
   ☐ Funcionario/a con destino provisional
   ☐ Interino/a
   ☐ Otro: _____
7. SU NIVEL EN LA LENGUA EXTRANJERA QUE ENSEÑA ES:
   ☐ A1
   ☐ A2
   ☐ B1
   ☐ B2
   ☐ C1
   ☐ C2
8. ASIGNATURAS QUE ENSEÑA EN INGLÉS:
   ☐ Ciencias Naturales
   ☐ Ciencias Sociales
   ☐ Matemáticas
   ☐ Dibujo
   ☐ Música
   ☐ Educación Física
   ☐ Otro _____
9. EXPOSICIÓN AL INGLÉS DE LOS ALUMNOS DENTRO DEL PROGRAMA BILINGÜE:
   ¿Cúantas asignaturas se enseñan en inglés? _____
   ¿Qué porcentaje de cada asignatura se enseña en inglés? ☐ 30% ☐ 40% ☐ 50% ☐ Otro_____
10. ¿ES COORDINADOR/A DE SU SECCIÓN BILINGÜE? ☐ Sí ☐ No
11. EXPERIENCIA DOCENTE GENERAL:
    ☐ Menos de 1 año
    ☐ 1-10 años
    ☐ 11-20 años
    ☐ 21-30 años
    ☐ Más de 30 años
12. EXPERIENCIA DOCENTE EN UN CENTRO BILINGÜE:
    ☐ Menos de 1 año
    ☐ 1-5 años
    ☐ 6-10 años
    ☐ 11-15 años
    ☐ Más de 15 años

POR FAVOR, INDIQUE HASTA QUÉ PUNTO ESTÁ DE ACUERDO CON LOS SIGUIENTES ASPECTOS RELACIONADOS CON LA ENSEÑANZA BILINGÜE (1=Totalmente en desacuerdo; 2=En desacuerdo; 3=De acuerdo; 4=Totalmente de acuerdo).

1. USO, COMPETENCIA Y DESARROLLO DEL INGLÉS DE LOS ALUMNOS EN CLASE

ASPECTOS	TOTALMENTE EN DESACUERDO	EN DESACUERDO	DE ACUERDO	TOTALMENTE DE ACUERDO
1. Se desarrollan las competencias clave en clase	1	2	3	4
2. El inglés de mis alumnos ha mejorado debido a su participación en un programa bilingüe	1	2	3	4
4. El español de mis alumnos ha mejorado debido a su participación en un programa bilingüe	1	2	3	4
5. El conocimiento por parte de mis alumnos de los contenidos de las asignaturas enseñadas en inglés ha mejorado debido a su participación en un programa bilingüe	1	2	3	4
6. La comprensión de mis alumnos de cómo funcionan las lenguas ha mejorado debido a su participación en un programa bilingüe	1	2	3	4
7. La comprensión de la conexión entre el inglés y el español de mis alumnos ha mejorado debido a su participación en un programa Bilingüe	1	2	3	4
8. Mis alumnos tienen más confianza en sí mismos dentro de la clase bilingüe	1	2	3	4
9. Mis alumnos son participativos en la clase bilingüe	1	2	3	4
10. Mis alumnos se interesan en la clase bilingüe	1	2	3	4
11. A mis alumnos les gustaría más uso del inglés dentro de la clase Bilingüe	1	2	3	4
12. Mis alumnos tienen una capacidad adecuada en comprensión y expresión orales en la lengua extranjera	1	2	3	4
13. Mis alumnos tienen una capacidad adecuada en comprensión y expresión escritas en la lengua extranjera	1	2	3	4
14. Mis alumnos tienen un conocimiento adecuado de aspectos socio-culturales y una conciencia	1	2	3	4

intercultural en la lengua extranjera				
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 L1y 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 (*software*) en clase	1	2	3	4
29. Se utilizan materiales de referencia *online* en clase	1	2	3	4
30. Se utilizan *blogs, Wikis* (herramientas Web 2.0) y *webquests* 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., *e-Twinning*)	1	2	3	4
33. Los materiales incluyen algunas pautas en español para que los padres puedan ayudar a sus hijos en casa				
Otro (especificar):	1	2	3	4

4. EVALUACIÓN

ASPECTOS	TOTALMENTE EN DESACUERDO	EN DESACUERDO	DE ACUERDO	TOTALMENTE DE ACUERDO
34. Se evalúan todos los contenidos enseñados en el programa bilingüe	1	2	3	4
35. A la hora de evaluar, se da prioridad al dominio de los contenidos frente a la competencia lingüística	1	2	3	4
36. A la hora de evaluar, se incluye un componente oral	1	2	3	4
37. Se practica la evaluación diversificada, formativa, sumativa y holística	1	2	3	4
Otro (especificar):	1	2	3	4

5. FORMACIÓN DEL PROFESORADO

ASPECTOS	TOTALMENTE EN DESACUERDO	EN DESACUERDO	DE ACUERDO	TOTALMENTE DE ACUERDO
38. Los profesores de lengua extranjera necesitan más formación	1	2	3	4
39. Los profesores de áreas no lingüísticas necesitan más formación	1	2	3	4
40. Los auxiliares lingüísticos necesitan más formación	1	2	3	4
41. Los profesores de lengua extranjera motivan al alumno en su aprendizaje del inglés	1	2	3	4
42. Los profesores de áreas no lingüísticas motivan al alumno en su aprendizaje del inglés	1	2	3	4
43. Los auxiliares lingüísticos motivan al alumno en su aprendizaje del inglés	1	2	3	4
44. Los auxiliares lingüísticos colaboran con éxito con los alumnos de la clase bilingüe	1	2	3	4
45. Los auxiliares lingüísticos colaboran con éxito con los otros profesores de la sección bilingüe	1	2	3	4
46. Tengo una capacidad adecuada en comprensión y expresión orales en inglés	1	2	3	4
47. Tengo una capacidad adecuada en comprensión y expresión escritas en inglés	1	2	3	4
48. Tengo un conocimiento adecuado de aspectos socio-culturales y una conciencia intercultural sobre la LE	1	2	3	4
49. Tengo conocimiento del plan de fomento del plurilingüismo de mi comunidad autónoma: objetivos, acciones, pilares, y marco legislativo	1	2	3	4
50. Tengo conocimiento de los principios básicos del Aprendizaje Integrado de Contenidos y Lenguas Extranjeras dentro de la educación bilingüe	1	2	3	4
51. He participado en formación sobre el Aprendizaje Integrado de Contenidos y Lenguas Extranjeras	1	2	3	4
52. He realizado cursos de actualización lingüística en las EOIs	1	2	3	4

Otro (especificar):	1	2	3	4

6. MOVILIDAD

ASPECTOS	TOTALMENTE EN DESACUERDO	EN DESACUERDO	DE ACUERDO	TOTALMENTE DE ACUERDO
53. He participado en programas de intercambio dentro de la sección bilingüe	1	2	3	4
54. He participado en cursos lingüísticos en el extranjero	1	2	3	4
55. He participado en cursos metodológicos en el extranjero	1	2	3	4
56. He obtenido licencias de estudios/investigación	1	2	3	4
Otro (especificar):	1	2	3	4

7. COORDINACIÓN Y ORGANIZACIÓN

ASPECTOS	TOTALMENTE EN DESACUERDO	EN DESACUERDO	DE ACUERDO	TOTALMENTE DE ACUERDO
57. Formar parte de una sección bilingüe compensa el incremento de trabajo que implica	1	2	3	4
58. Colaboro en la elaboración, adaptación e implementación del Currículo Integrado de las Lenguas	1	2	3	4
59. 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

APPENDIX III

PARENT QUESTIONNAIRE

Proyecto MON-CLIL: Los Efectos del Aprendizaje Integrado de Contenidos y Lenguas Extranjeras en Comunidades Monolingües: Un Estudio Longitudinal

Cuestionario

PADRES Y MADRES

1. CENTRO EN EL QUE ESTÁ ESCOLARIZADO SU HIJO:
2. CURSO DE SU HIJO: ☐ 6º EP ☐ 4º ESO
3. EDAD: _____
4. SEXO: ☐ Hombre ☐ Mujer
5. NACIONALIDAD: _____
6. NIVEL DE ESTUDIOS:
   ☐ Sin estudios
   ☐ Título de Graduado Escolar
   ☐ Título de Bachiller
   ☐ Título de Formación Profesional
   ☐ Diplomatura Universitaria
   ☐ Licenciatura Universitaria
   ☐ Doctorado

POR FAVOR, INDIQUE HASTA QUÉ PUNTO ESTÁ DE ACUERDO CON LOS SIGUIENTES ASPECTOS RELACIONADOS CON LA ENSEÑANZA BILINGÜE (1=Totalmente en desacuerdo; 2=En desacuerdo; 3=De acuerdo; 4=Totalmente de acuerdo).

1. USO, COMPETENCIA Y DESARROLLO DEL INGLÉS DE LOS ALUMNOS EN CLASE

ASPECTOS	TOTALMENTE EN DESACUERDO	EN DESACUERDO	DE ACUERDO	TOTALMENTE DE ACUERDO
1. El nivel de inglés de mi hijo/a ha mejorado debido a su participación en un programa bilingüe	1	2	3	4
2. El español de mi hijo/a ha mejorado debido a su participación en un programa bilingüe	1	2	3	4
3. El conocimiento por parte de mi hijo/a de los contenidos de las asignaturas enseñadas en inglés ha mejorado debido a su participación en un programa bilingüe	1	2	3	4
4. A mi hijo/a le resulta más difícil aprender los contenidos de las asignaturas enseñadas en inglés	1	2	3	4
5. La comprensión de la conexión entre el inglés y el español por parte de mi hijo/a ha mejorado debido a su participación en un programa bilingüe	1	2	3	4

ASPECTOS				
6. Mi hijo/a tiene más confianza en sí mismo con respecto a las lenguas	1	2	3	4
7. Mi hijo/a tiene una capacidad adecuada en comprensión y expresión orales en inglés	1	2	3	4
8. Mi hijo/a tiene una capacidad adecuada en comprensión y expresión escritas en inglés	1	2	3	4
9. Mi hijo/a tiene un conocimiento adecuado de aspectos socio- culturales y una conciencia intercultural sobre el inglés	1	2	3	4
Otro (especificar):	1	2	3	4

2. METODOLOGÍA

ASPECTOS	TOTALMENTE EN DESACUERDO	EN DESACUERDO	DE ACUERDO	TOTALMENTE DE ACUERDO
10. Mi hijo/a aprende mucho vocabulario dentro de la clase bilingüe	1	2	3	4
11. Se utilizan metodologías más innovadoras y centradas en el estudiante en la clase bilingüe	1	2	3	4
12. Soy capaz de ayudar a mi hijo/a con los deberes de enseñanza bilingüe	1	2	3	4
Otro (especificar):	1	2	3	4

3. MATERIALES Y RECURSOS

ASPECTOS	TOTALMENTE EN DESACUERDO	EN DESACUERDO	DE ACUERDO	TOTALMENTE DE ACUERDO
13. Los materiales para la enseñanza				

bilingüe son interesantes e innovadores	1	2	3	4
14. Los materiales de enseñanza bilingüe fomentan la comunicación en inglés dentro y fuera de la clase	1	2	3	4
15. Los materiales de enseñanza bilingüe están adaptados para atender las necesidades de todos los alumnos	1	2	3	4
16. Se utilizan más las nuevas tecnologías en la enseñanza bilingüe	1	2	3	4
17. Los materiales para la educación bilingüe tienen un precio más elevado	1	2	3	4
18. Los materiales incluyen algunas pautas en español para que pueda ayudar a mi hijo/a en casa	1	2	3	4
19. Mi hijo/a está expuesto/a al inglés fuera del centro	1	2	3	4
20. Mi hijo/a tiene un acceso adecuado a materiales en inglés fuera del centro	1	2	3	4
Otro (especificar):	1	2	3	4

4. EVALUACIÓN

ASPECTOS	TOTALMENTE EN DESACUERDO	EN DESACUERDO	DE ACUERDO	TOTALMENTE DE ACUERDO
21. La evaluación en los programas bilingües es adecuada	1	2	3	4
22. Se hacen exámenes periódicamente para evaluar todos los contenidos enseñados en el programa bilingüe	1	2	3	4
23. Se evalúa también oralmente	1	2	3	4
24. A la hora de evaluar los profesores toman más en cuenta el aprendizaje de los contenidos que la competencia en inglés	1	2	3	4
25. Mi hijo/a ha alcanzado mejores resultados formando parte del programa bilingüe	1	2	3	4

Otro (especificar):	1	2	3	4

5. FORMACIÓN E INFORMACIÓN

ASPECTOS	TOTALMENTE EN DESACUERDO	EN DESACUERDO	DE ACUERDO	TOTALMENTE DE ACUERDO
26. Los profesores de mi hijo/a tienen una capacidad adecuada en comprensión y expresión orales en inglés	1	2	3	4
27. Los profesores de mi hijo/a tienen una capacidad adecuada en comprensión y expresión escritas en inglés	1	2	3	4
28. Los profesores de mi hijo/a tienen un conocimiento adecuado de aspectos socio-culturales y una conciencia intercultural sobre la lengua extranjera	1	2	3	4
29. Conozco el funcionamiento del programa bilingüe en el centro de mi hijo/a	1	2	3	4
30. Estoy bien informado/a sobre el plan de fomento del plurilingüismo de la comunidad autónoma: objetivos, acciones, pilares y marco legislativo	1	2	3	4
31. Estoy bien informado/a sobre los principios básicos del Aprendizaje Integrado de Contenidos y Lenguas Extranjeras dentro de la educación bilingüe	1	2	3	4
Otro (especificar):	1	2	3	4

6. MOVILIDAD

ASPECTOS	TOTALMENTE EN DESACUERDO	EN DESACUERDO	DE ACUERDO	TOTALMENTE DE ACUERDO
32. Mi hijo/a ha participado en programas de intercambio / lingüísticos	1	2	3	4

ASPECTOS	TOTALMENTE EN DESACUERDO	EN DESACUERDO	DE ACUERDO	TOTALMENTE DE ACUERDO
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 IV

STUDENT INTERVIEW PROTOCOL

Proyecto MON-CLIL: *Los Efectos del Aprendizaje Integrado de Contenidos y Lenguas Extranjeras en Comunidades Monolingües: Un Estudio Longitudinal*

Protocolo de entrevista

ALUMNADO

1. CENTRO: _____
2. CURSO: ☐ 6º EP   ☐ 4º ESO
3. EDAD: _____
4. SEXO: ☐ Hombre   ☐ Mujer
5. NACIONALIDAD: _____

1) USO DE LA L2 ENCLASE

¿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
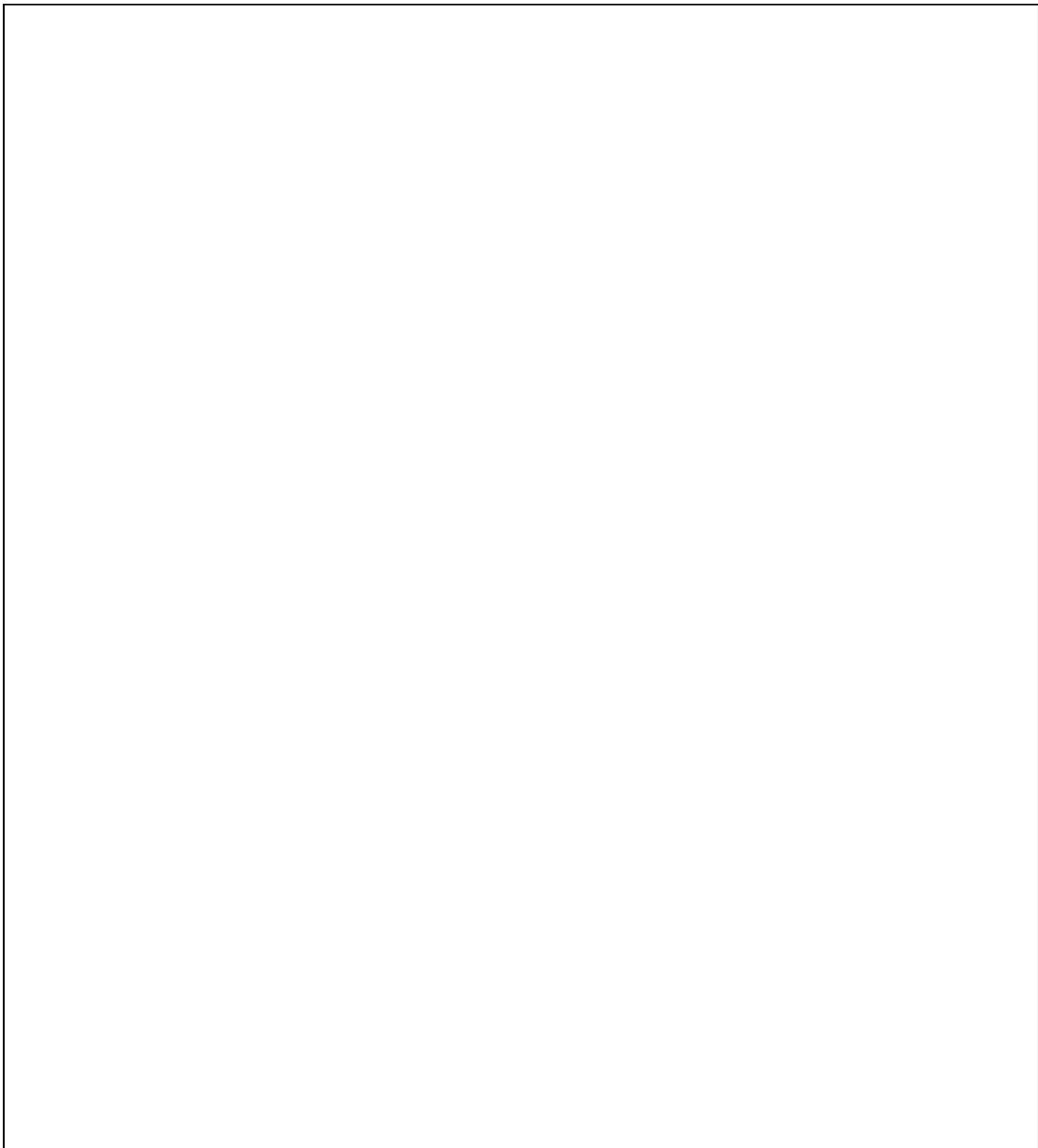
4) METODOLOGÍA Y TIPOS DE AGRUPAMIENTO

¿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
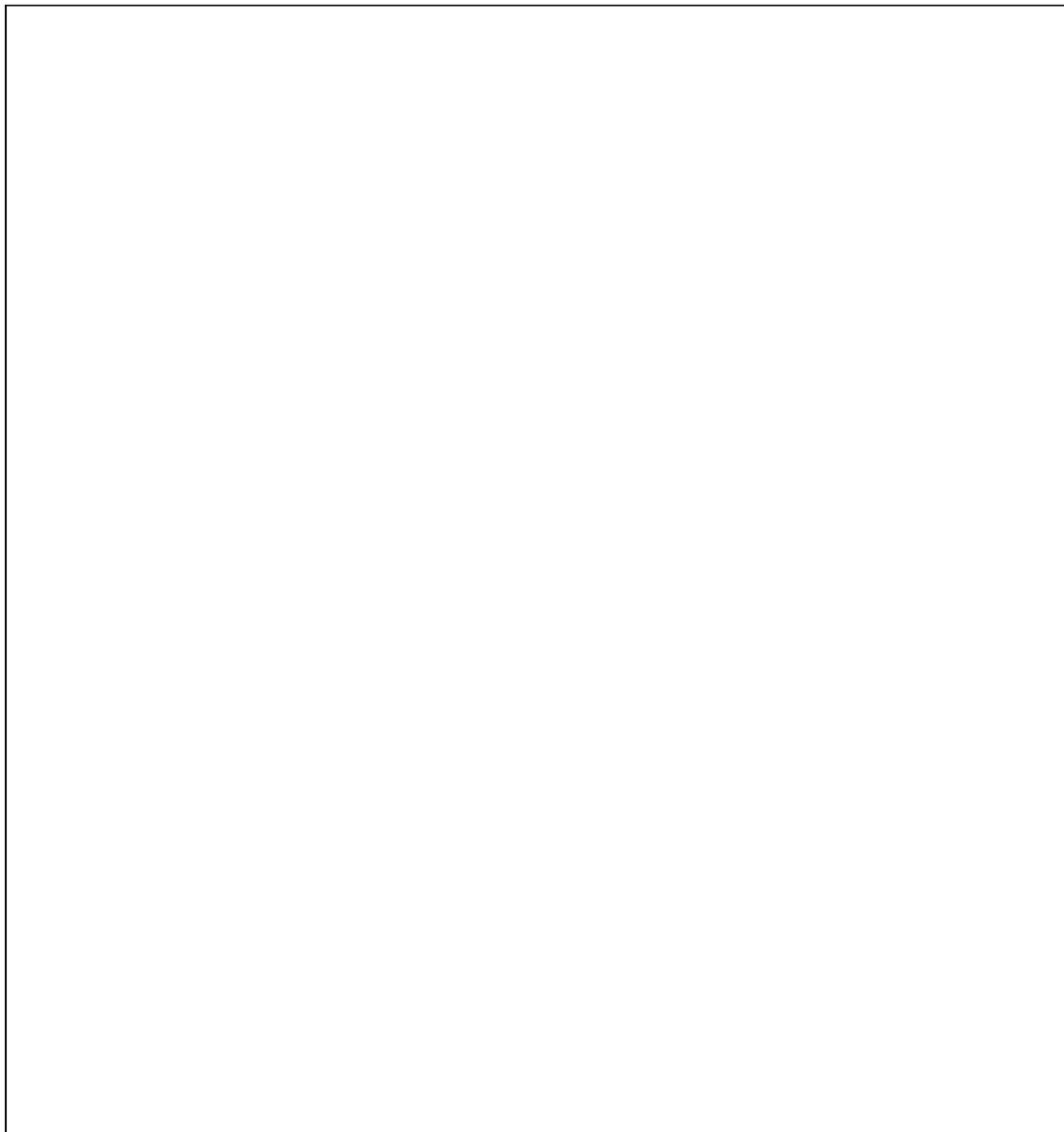
5) MATERIALES Y RECURSOS

¿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
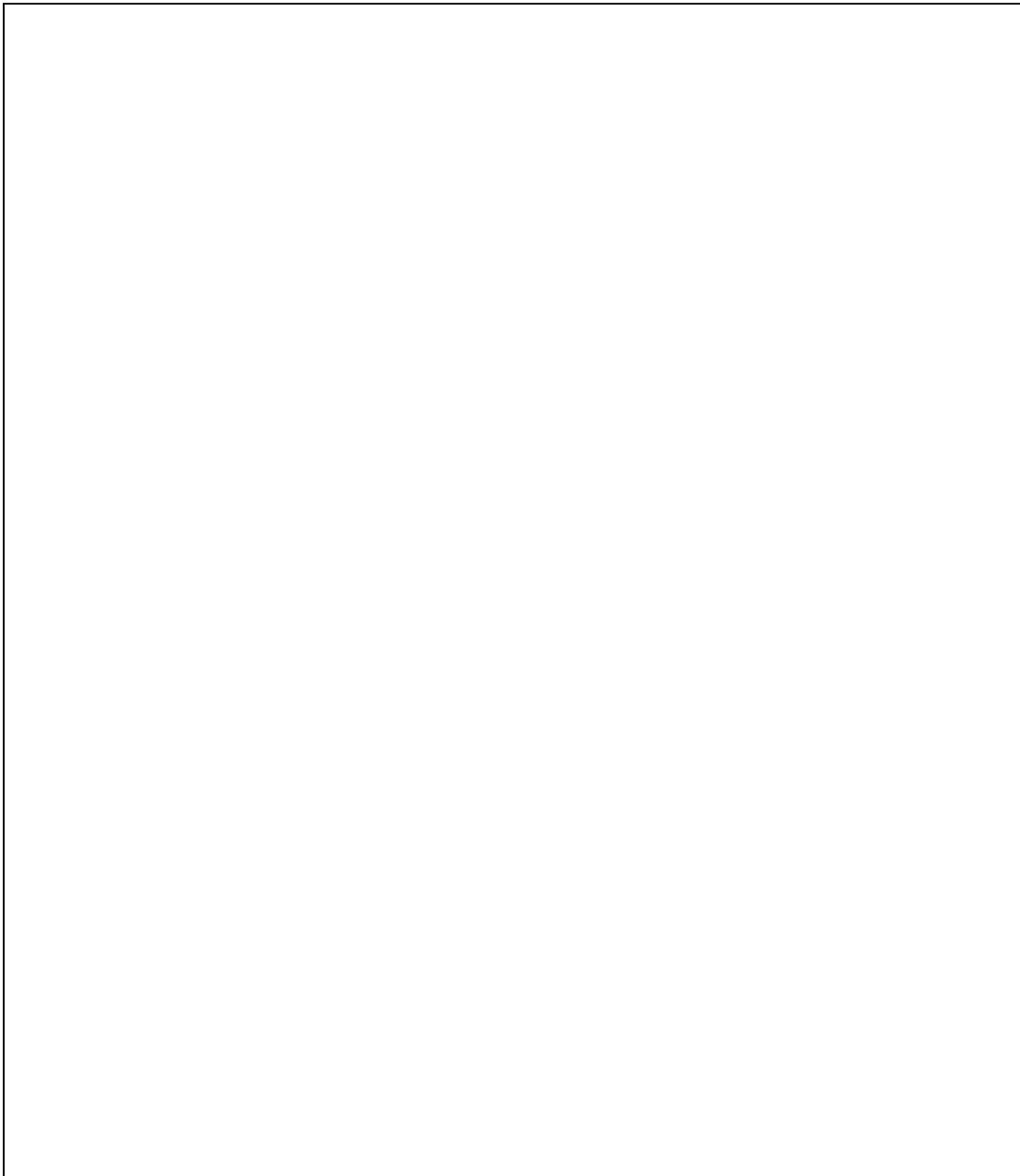
6) OORDINACIÓN Y ORGANIZACIÓN
¿Existe suficiente comunicación y coordinación entre tus profesores?

7) EVALUACIÓN

¿Cómo realiza la evaluación en clase? ¿Qué instrumentos y criterios se utilizan? ¿Qué importancia se da a los aspectos lingüísticos (la L2) y a los contenidos de las materias? ¿Qué aspectos cuentan más en la calificación? ¿En qué porcentaje cuentan unos y otros?

EJEMPLOS: De forma holística / formativa / sumativa / diversificada

En inglés y español

Primando contenido / lengua

Con énfasis en los aspectos orales / escritos

Fomentando la autoevaluación (e.g., a través del Portfolio Europeo de Lenguas)

8) FORMACIÓN DEL PROFESORADO Y MOVILIDAD

¿Consideras que tus profesores tienen suficiente formación para participar en un programa bilingüe?

¿Has participado en algún programa de intercambio? Si es así, ¿te resultó beneficioso?

¿Te ha animado tu familia a que participes en ellos?

9) MOTIVACIÓN Y CARGA DE TRABAJO

¿Consideras que participar en un programa bilingüe ha incrementado tu carga de trabajo? ¿Ha merecido la pena? ¿Estás más motivado?

10) VALORACIÓN GLOBAL

¿Cuáles son las principales dificultades que has encontrado al participar en un programa bilingüe?

¿Y las principales ventajas?

¿Cómo lo valoras de modo global?

Appendix V

TEACHER INTERVIEW PROTOCOL

Proyecto MON-CLIL: Los Efectos del Aprendizaje Integrado de Contenidos y Lenguas Extranjeras en Comunidades Monolingües: Un Estudio Longitudinal

Protocolo de entrevistas

PROFESORADO

1. CENTRO: _____
2. CURSO: ☐ 6º EP   ☐ 4º ESO
3. ASIGNATURA: _____
4. TIPO DE PROFESORADO:
    ☐ Lengua extranjera
    ☐ Área no lingüística
    ☐ Auxiliar lingüístico
5. ¿ES COORDINADOR/A DE SU SECCIÓN BILINGÜE? ☐ Sí ☐ No
6. EDAD: _____
7. SEXO: ☐ Hombre   ☐ Mujer
8. NACIONALIDAD: _____
9. SITUACIÓN ADMINISTRATIVA:
    ☐ Funcionario/a con destino definitivo
    ☐ Funcionario/a con destino provisional
    ☐ Interino/a
    ☐ Otro: _____
10. SU NIVEL EN LA LENGUA EXTRANJERA QUE ENSEÑA ES:
    ☐ A1
    ☐ A2
    ☐ B1
    ☐ B2
    ☐ C1
    ☐ C2
11. EXPERIENCIA DOCENTE GENERAL:
    ☐ Menos de 1 año
    ☐ 1-10 años
    ☐ 11-20 años
    ☐ 21-30 años
    ☐ Más de 30 años
12. EXPERIENCIA DOCENTE EN UN CENTRO BILINGÜE:
    ☐ Menos de 1 año
    ☐ 1-5 años
    ☐ 6-10 años
    ☐ 11-15 años
    ☐ Más de 15 años

1) USO DE LA L2 ENCLASE
¿Considera que su nivel de inglés es adecuado para participar en el programa bilingüe?
¿En qué porcentaje diría que utiliza usted el inglés en clase?
¿Considera que el inglés de sus alumnos ha mejorado como consecuencia de su participación en el programa bilingüe?
¿Considera que el conocimiento por parte de sus alumnos de los contenidos de las asignaturas enseñadas en inglés ha mejorado debido a su participación en un programa bilingüe?
¿Considera que sus alumnos son participativos en clase y utilizan el inglés para ello?

2) DESARROLLO DE LA L2 EN CLASE: FUNCIONES DISCURSIVAS

¿Para qué funciones discursivas utiliza el inglés en clase: *transmisivas* o *interaccionales*?

EJEMPLOS: *Dar instrucciones*

Introducir el tema

Transmitir contenidos

Realizar actividades

Aclarar dudas y explicar dificultades

Formular preguntas

Corregir tareas

Consolidar y repasar conocimientos

Organizar la clase con distintos tipos de agrupamiento

Interactuar con el alumnado/profesorado

Suministrar feedback sobre las actuaciones de clase

3) DESARROLLO DE COMPETENCIAS EN CLASE

¿Qué competencias-*lingüísticas*, *interculturales* y *genéricas*- considera que desarrolla en clase?

EJEMPLOS: *Comprensión oral*

Comprensión escrita

Expresión oral

Expresión escrita

La interacción comunicativa oral (listening+speaking)

La interacción comunicativa escrita (reading+writing)

Capacidad crítica

Creatividad

Autonomía en el aprendizaje

Conciencia metalingüística

Conciencia intercultural
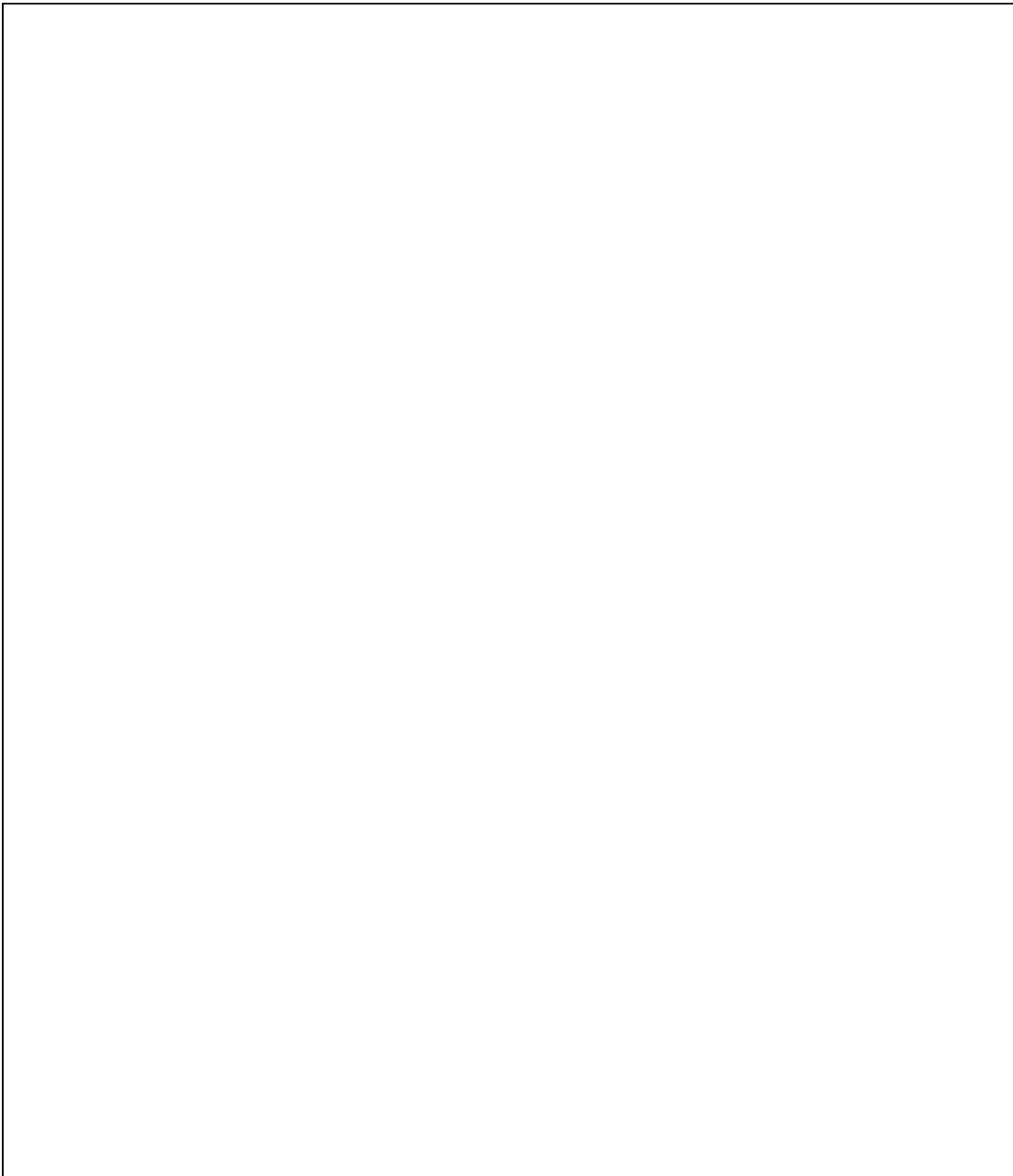
4) METODOLOGÍA Y TIPOS DE AGRUPAMIENTO

¿Qué metodologías, tipos de agrupamiento y actividades emplea en clase? ¿Diría que son tradicionales o innovadores / basadas en el profesor o centradas en el alumno / que movilizan de procesos cognitivos de nivel bajo o más complejos?

EJEMPLOS: Aprendizaje basado en tareas

Aprendizaje basado en proyectos

Aprendizaje cooperativo

Enfoque léxico

CEFR

ELP

Trabajo con toda la clase

Trabajo en grupos

Trabajo en parejas

Trabajo autónomo

Actividades abiertas vs. de respuesta única

Actividades que implican memorizar, comprender y aplicar vs. analizar, evaluar y crear
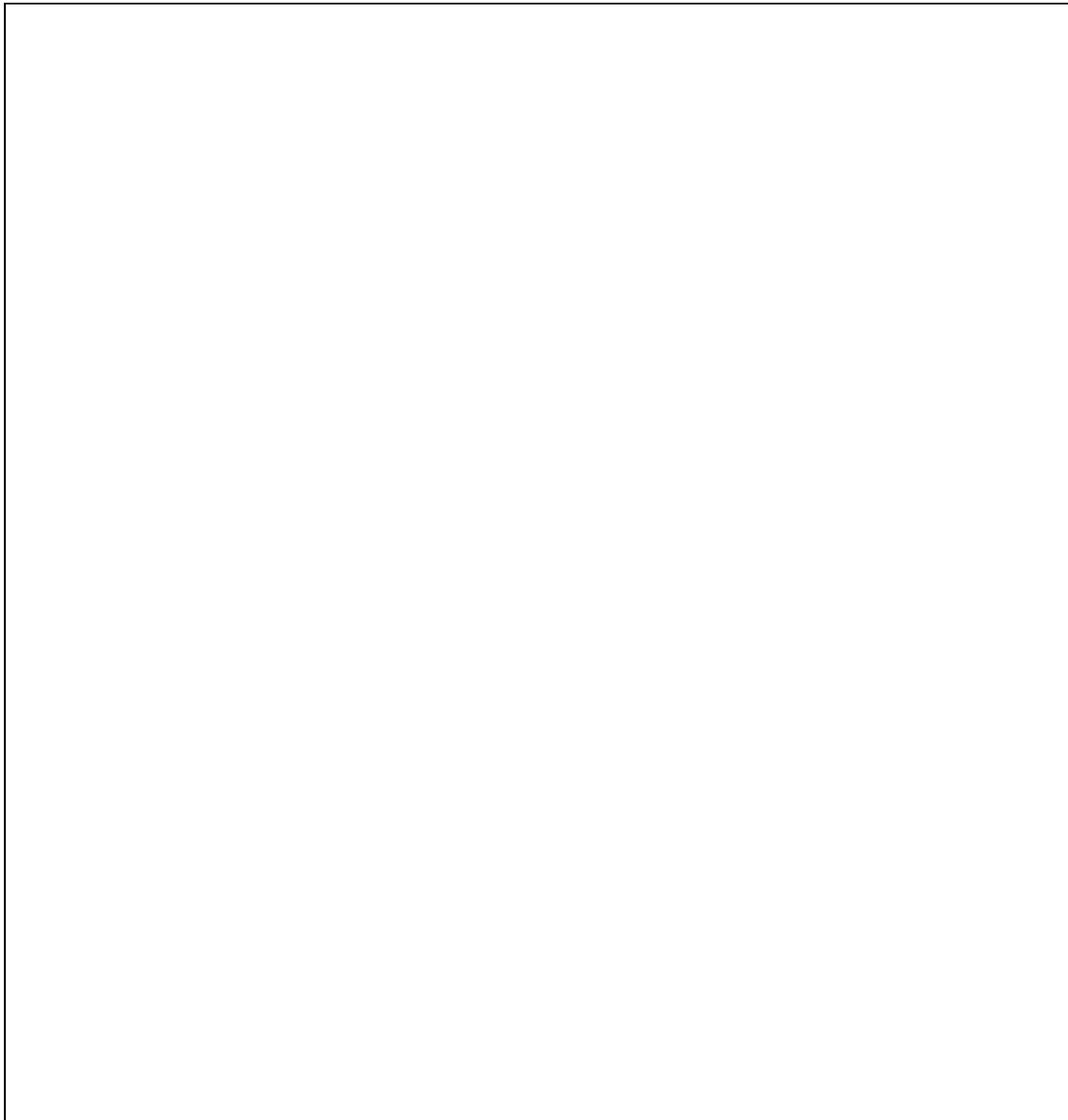
5) MATERIALES Y RECURSOS

¿Qué materiales y recursos emplea en su clase?

EJEMPLOS: Materiales auténticos

Materiales adaptados

Materiales originales

Libro de texto

Software específico

Recursos online

Blogs

Wikis

Webquests

Pizarra electrónica

e-Twinning
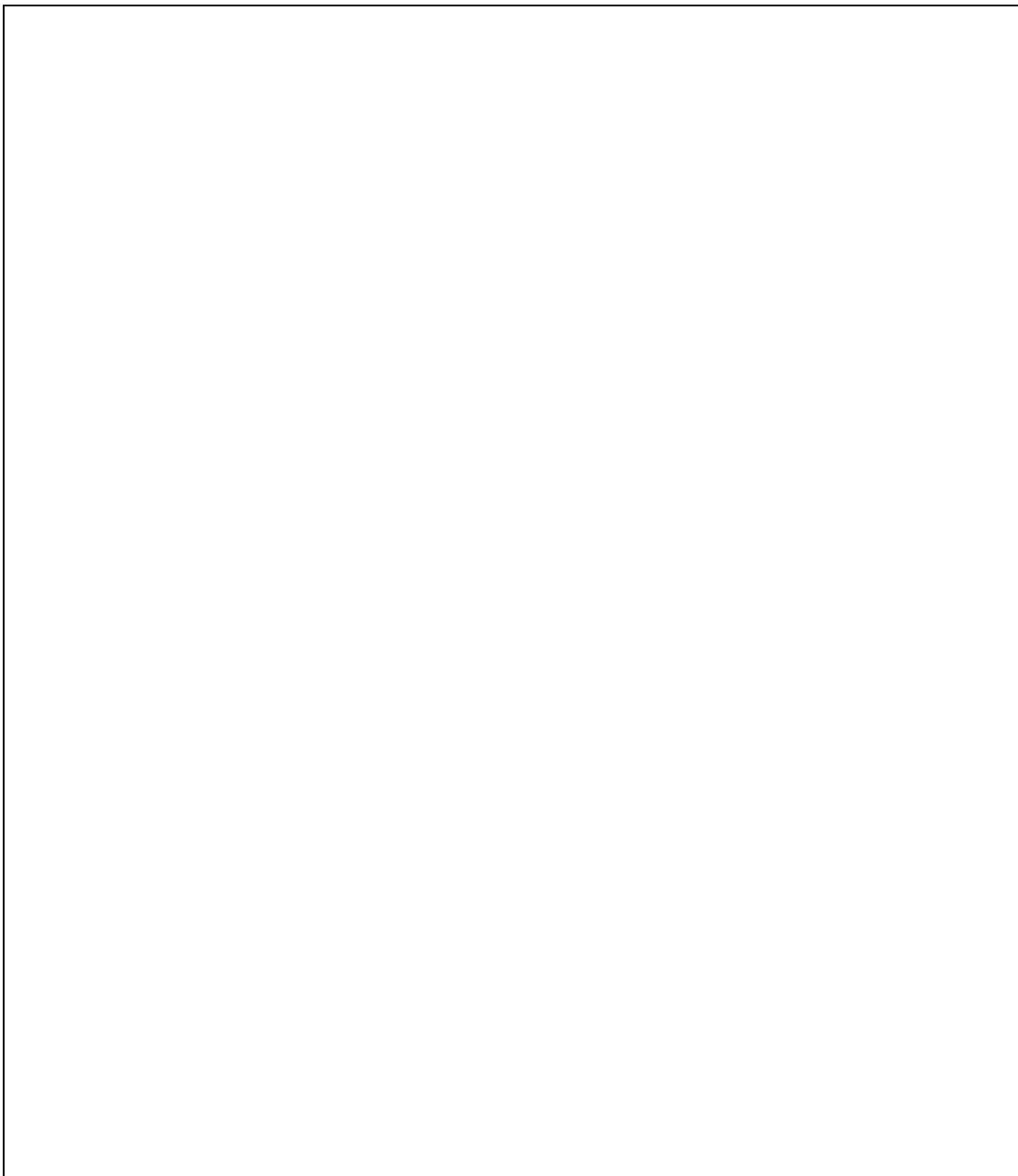
6) COORDINACIÓN Y ORGANIZACIÓN

¿Considera que está desarrollando el Currículo Integrado de Lenguas?

¿Existe suficiente comunicación y coordinación entre el profesorado implicado en el programa bilingüe? ¿Y con el coordinador bilingüe?

¿Se recibe apoyo adecuado del centro, del claustro y de las autoridades educativas?

7) EVALUACIÓN

¿Cómo realiza la evaluación en su clase? ¿Qué instrumentos y criterios utiliza? ¿Qué importancia le da a los aspectos lingüísticos (la L2) y a los contenidos de las materias? ¿Qué aspectos cuentan más en la calificación? ¿En qué porcentaje cuentan unos y otros?

EJEMPLOS: De forma holística / formativa / sumativa / diversificada

En inglés y español

Primando contenido / lengua

Con énfasis en los aspectos orales / escritos

Fomentando la autoevaluación (e.g., a través del Portfolio Europeo de Lenguas)

8) FORMACIÓN DEL PROFESORADO Y MOVILIDAD

¿Considera que su formación es adecuada para participar en un programa bilingüe?

¿En qué iniciativas de formación / movilidad ha participado?

¿En cuáles cree que le sería beneficioso participar?

EJEMPLOS: Curso lingüísticos

Cursos metodológicos

Programas de intercambio

Licencias de estudio/investigación

¿En qué aspectos del AICLE cree que requiere más formación?

EJEMPLOS: Bases teóricas del AICLE

Plan de Fomento del Plurilingüismo

Aspectos lingüísticos

Aspectos interculturales

Metodologías centradas en el estudiante

Uso de las TIC

Investigación en el aula

Investigación sobre los efectos del AICLE

9) MOTIVACIÓN Y CARGA DE TRABAJO
¿Considera que participar en un programa bilingüe ha incrementado su carga de trabajo? ¿Ha merecido la pena? ¿Está más motivado?
¿Considera que sus alumnos están más motivados como resultado de su participación en el programa bilingüe?
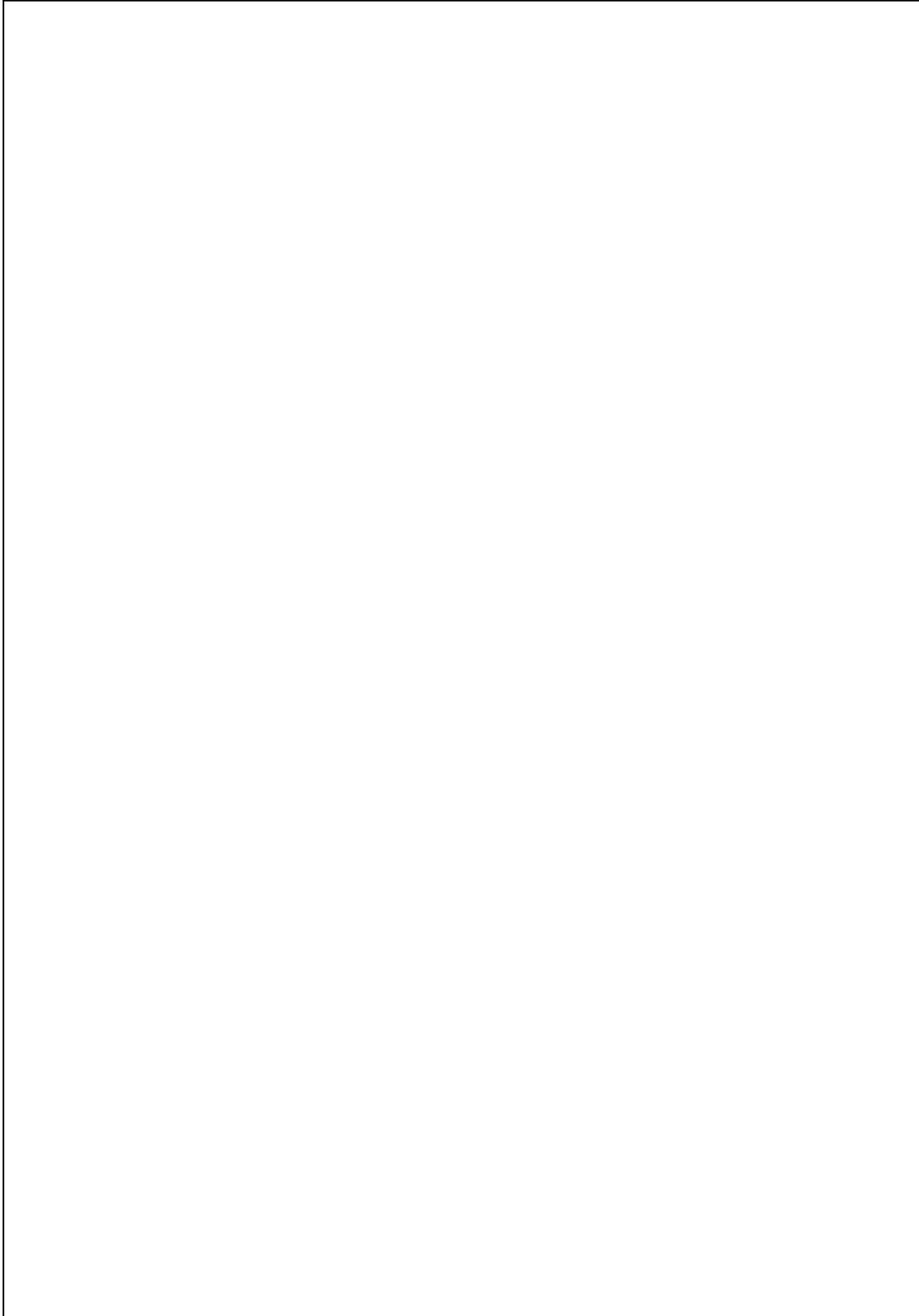
10) VALORACIÓN GLOBAL

¿Cuáles cree que son las principales dificultades en el correcto desarrollo del programa bilingüe en su centro?

¿Y sus principales fortalezas?

¿Cómo lo valora de modo global?
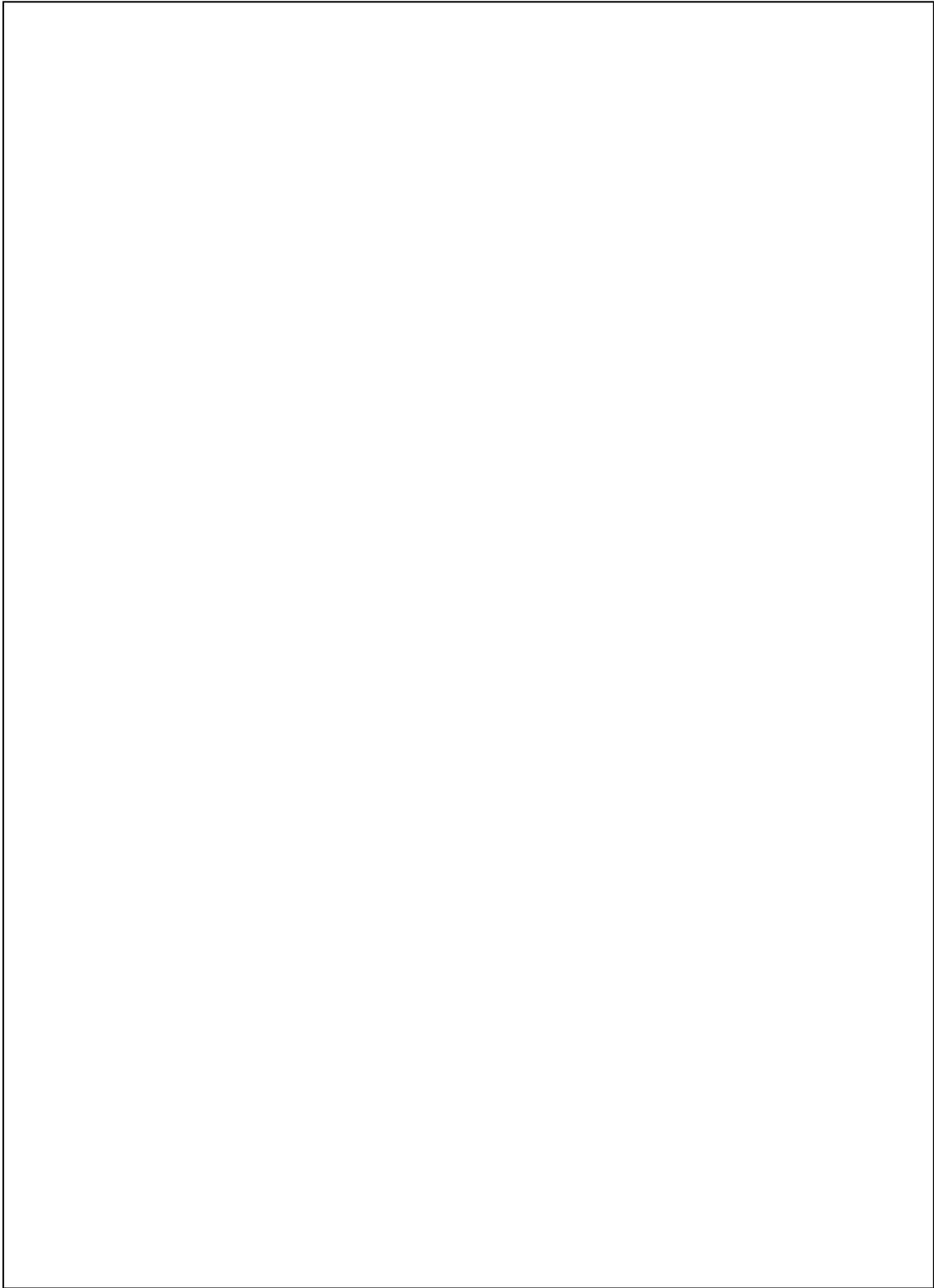
APPENDIX VI

CLASSROOM OBSERVATION PROTOCOL

Proyecto MON-CLIL: *Los Efectos del Aprendizaje Integrado de Contenidos y Lenguas Extranjeras en Comunidades Monolingües: Un Estudio Longitudinal*

PROTOCOLO DE OBSERVACIÓN

VARIABLES DE IDENTIFICACIÓN

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. EXPERIENCIA DOCENTE GENERAL:
    ☐ Menos de 1 año
    ☐ 1-10 años
☐ 11-20 años
☐ 21-30 años
    ☐ Más de 30 años
11. EXPERIENCIA DOCENTE EN UN 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

1. El nivel de competencia lingüística del profesor en clase se asemeja a:
   ☐ A1
   ☐ A2
   ☐ B1
   ☐ B2
   ☐ C1
   ☐ C2

2. El profesor utiliza el inglés para el desarrollo de la clase
☐ Entre 0%-25%
☐ Entre 25%-50%
☐ Entre 50%-75%
☐ Entre 75%-100%

3. El profesor traduce del español al inglés en el desarrollo de la clase
- ☐ Mucho
- ☐ Bastante
- ☐ Poco
- ☐ Nada

4. El profesor practica el "code-switching" de manera razonada y sistemática
- ☐ Mucho
- ☐ Bastante
- ☐ Poco
- ☐ Nada

5. El nivel de competencia lingüística del alumnado es adecuado para su etapa educativa
- ☐ Mucho
- ☐ Bastante
- ☐ Poco
- ☐ Nada

6. El alumnado utiliza el inglés en clase
- ☐ Entre 0%-25%
- ☐ Entre 25%-50%
- ☐ Entre 50%-75%
- ☐ Entre 75%-100%

7. El alumnado traduce del español al inglés en el desarrollo de la clase
- ☐ Mucho
- ☐ Bastante
- ☐ Poco
- ☐ Nada

8. El alumnado practica el "code-switching" de manera razonada y sistemática
- ☐ Mucho
- ☐ Bastante
- ☐ Poco
- ☐ Nada

Otras observaciones: ....
....
....
....
....
....
....
....
....
....
....
....
....
....
....
....
....
....
....
....
....

2. DESARROLLO DE LA L2 EN CLASE: FUNCIONES DISCURSIVAS

Se utiliza el inglés en clase para:

9. Dar instrucciones	Mucho	Bastante	Poco	Nada
10. Introducir el tema	Mucho	Bastante	Poco	Nada
11. Transmitir contenidos	Mucho	Bastante	Poco	Nada
12. Realizar actividades	Mucho	Bastante	Poco	Nada
13. Aclarar dudas	Mucho	Bastante	Poco	Nada
14. Formular preguntas				
15. Corregir tareas	Mucho	Bastante	Poco	Nada
16. Repasar conocimientos	Mucho	Bastante	Poco	Nada
17. Organizar los distintos tipos de agrupamiento	Mucho	Bastante	Poco	Nada
18. Interactuar con compañeros/alumnos/profesores	Mucho	Bastante	Poco	Nada
19. Suministrar *feedback* sobre las actuaciones de clase	Mucho	Bastante	Poco	Nada
Otras observaciones:	……			

3. DESARROLLO DE COMPETENCIAS EN CLASE

En la clase, se favorece el desarrollo de:

20. La comprensión oral	Mucho	Bastante	Poco	Nada
21. La expresión oral	Mucho	Bastante	Poco	Nada
22. La comprensión escrita	Mucho	Bastante	Poco	Nada
23. La expresión escrita	Mucho	Bastante	Poco	Nada

24. La interacción comunicativa oral (*listening+speaking*)	Mucho	Bastante	Poco	Nada
25. La interacción comunicativa escrita (*reading+writing*)	Mucho	Bastante	Poco	Nada
26. La capacidad crítica	Mucho	Bastante	Poco	Nada
27. La creatividad	Mucho	Bastante	Poco	Nada
28. La autonomía en el aprendizaje	Mucho	Bastante	Poco	Nada
29. La conciencia metalingüística	Mucho	Bastante	Poco	Nada
30. Aspectos interculturales de la lengua extranjera	Mucho	Bastante	Poco	Nada
Otras observaciones:	…………………………………………………………………………………… ………………………………………………………………….			

4. METODOLOGÍA Y TIPOS DE AGRUPAMIENTO

31. Se utiliza el aprendizaje basado en tareas en clase	Mucho	Bastante	Poco	Nada
32. Se utiliza el aprendizaje basado en proyectos en clase	Mucho	Bastante	Poco	Nada
33. Se da prioridad a la dimensión léxica en la clase bilingüe	Mucho	Bastante	Poco	Nada
34. Se utiliza aprendizaje cooperativo en la clase bilingüe	Mucho	Bastante	Poco	Nada
35. Se utiliza el método transmisivo de gramática-traducción en clase	Mucho	Bastante	Poco	Nada
36. Se utiliza el método audiolingual en clase	Mucho	Bastante	Poco	Nada
37. Se realizan actividades abiertas	Mucho	Bastante	Poco	Nada
38. Se realizan actividades de respuesta única	Mucho	Bastante	Poco	Nada

39. Se realizan actividades que requieren únicamente la activación de procesos cognitivos de nivel bajo (tales como memorizar, comprender y aplicar)	Mucho	Bastante	Poco	Nada
40. Se realizan actividades que exigen movilizar procesos cognitivos complejos (tales como analizar, evaluar y crear)	Mucho	Bastante	Poco	Nada
41. El docente favorece el andamiaje lingüístico (mediante paráfrasis, repeticiones, ejemplos, definiciones, sinónimos y antónimos, etc.)	Mucho	Bastante	Poco	Nada
42. El docente favorece que los alumnos aprendan y usen estrategias de compensación y de aprendizaje (e.g., para resolver problemas de comprensión lingüística)	Mucho	Bastante	Poco	Nada
43. Se siguen las recomendaciones del Marco Común Europeo de Referencia	Mucho	Bastante	Poco	Nada
44. Se siguen las recomendaciones del Portfolio Europeo de Lenguas	Mucho	Bastante	Poco	Nada
45. Se utiliza el agrupamiento "lockstep" en clase	Mucho	Bastante	Poco	Nada
46. Se utiliza el trabajo en grupo en clase	Mucho	Bastante	Poco	Nada
47. Se utiliza el trabajo en parejas en clase	Mucho	Bastante	Poco	Nada
48. Se utiliza el trabajo individual en clase	Mucho	Bastante	Poco	Nada

Otras observaciones:	....

5. MATERIALES Y RECURSOS

49. Se utilizan materiales auténticos para la enseñanza bilingüe	Mucho	Bastante	Poco	Nada
50. Se utilizan materiales adaptados para la enseñanza bilingüe	Mucho	Bastante	Poco	Nada
51. Se utilizan materiales originales diseñados por el profesorado para la enseñanza bilingüe	Mucho	Bastante	Poco	Nada
52. Se tiene en cuenta la atención a la diversidad en los materiales que se emplean	Mucho	Bastante	Poco	Nada
53. Se utiliza *software* multimedia en clase	Mucho	Bastante	Poco	Nada
54. Se utilizan materiales de referencia *online* en clase	Mucho	Bastante	Poco	Nada
55. Se utilizan *blogs, Wikis* (herramientas Web 2.0) y *webquests* en clase	Mucho	Bastante	Poco	Nada
56. Se utilizan pizarras electrónicas interactivas en clase	Mucho	Bastante	Poco	Nada
57. Se utiliza comunicación mediada por ordenador en clase (e.g., *e-Twinning*)	Mucho	Bastante	Poco	Nada

Otras observaciones:	....

6. COORDINACIÓN Y ORGANIZACIÓN

58. Se constata la coordinación entre el profesorado de ANLs y los auxiliares de conversación	Mucho	Bastante	Poco	Nada
59. Se constata la coordinación entre el profesorado de ANLs y el profesorado de inglés como lengua extranjera	Mucho	Bastante	Poco	Nada
60. Se constata la coordinación entre el profesorado de inglés como lengua extranjera y los auxiliares de conversación	Mucho	Bastante	Poco	Nada
61. Existe integración curricular (se integran contenidos de distintas asignaturas y campos de conocimiento)	Mucho	Bastante	Poco	Nada
62. Se apoya el aprendizaje lingüístico en clases de contenido	Mucho	Bastante	Poco	Nada
63. Se apoya el aprendizaje de contenidos en clases lingüísticas	Mucho	Bastante	Poco	Nada
64. Se enfatiza la conexión entre la L1, L2 y L3	Mucho	Bastante	Poco	Nada
65. Se colabora en la preparación y diseño de materiales	Mucho	Bastante	Poco	Nada
	....			

Otras observaciones:

....
....
....
....
....
....
....
....
....
....
....
....
....
....
....
....
....
....
....
....
....
....
....
....
....

7. EVALUACIÓN

66. A la hora de evaluar, se da prioridad al dominio de los contenidos frente a la competencia lingüística	Mucho	Bastante	Poco	Nada
67. A la hora de evaluar, se incluye un componente oral	Mucho	Bastante	Poco	Nada
68. Se practica la evaluación diversificada	Mucho	Bastante	Poco	Nada
69. Se practica la evaluación formativa	Mucho	Bastante	Poco	Nada
70. Se practica la evaluación sumativa	Mucho	Bastante	Poco	Nada
71. Se utiliza la autoevaluación (e.g., a través del Portfolio Europeo de Lenguas)	Mucho	Bastante	Poco	Nada

Otras observaciones:	....

APPENDIX VII

LIST OF PARTICIPATING SCHOOLS

List of participating schools

Institutos Públicos de Madrid Capital

IES Blas de Otero	Contacto (director)	Miguel Ángel Villa Cascos
	Dirección	C/ de Maqueda,130 Madrid – Aluche
	Teléfono	917191511
	e-mail	ies.blasdeotero.madrid@educa.madrid.org
	Cómo llegar	Metro Aluche o Metro de Empalme
	Web del centro	http://ies.blasdeotero.madrid.educa.madrid.org/

IES Fortuny	Contacto (director)	María Ángeles Sánchez Martos
	Dirección	C/ de Fortuny, 24
	Teléfono	91 310 18 39
	e-mail	ies.fortuny.madrid@educa.madrid.org
	Cómo llegar	Metro Rubén Darío
	Web del centro	http://ies.fortuny.madrid.educa.madrid.org/

IES García Morato	Contacto (director)	Rosa María Santander Santos,
	Dirección	Calle del General Saliquet, 34
	Teléfono	917050818
	e-mail	rsantandersantos@educa.madrid.org
	Cómo llegar	Autobús N 34
	Web del centro	ies.garciamorato.madrid@educa.madrid.org

Institutos Públicos de fuera de Madrid – Capital Rurales (seudorurales)

IES Carmen Martín Gaite	Contacto (director)	Salvador Donet I Montagut
	Dirección	Ctra. de Cadalso de los Vidrios Navalcarnero – Madrid
	Teléfono	918110565
	e-mail	ies.carmenmartingai.navalcarner@educa.madrid.org
	Cómo llegar	Autobús 528 desde Príncipe Pío
	Web del centro	http://www.iescarmenmartingaite.com/

IES Humanes	Contacto (director)	Rafael Álvarez Rello
	Dirección	Avda. de los Deportes, 2 Humanes de Madrid
	Teléfono	914982020
	e-mail	ies.humanes.humanes@educa.madrid.org

	Cómo llegar	Estación de Renfe Humanes
	Web del centro	http://www.ieshumanes.com/

IES Neil Armstrong	Contacto (director)	José Andrés González Gómez
	Dirección	Cuesta de Valderremata s/n Valdemoro
	Teléfono	639314247
		ies.neilarmstrong.valdemoro@educa.madrid.org
	Cómo llegar	Estación de Renfe Valdemoro
	Web del centro	http://www.iesneilarmstrong.org/index.htm

Colegios Concertados de Madrid Capital

IES Nuestra Señora de las Nieves	Contacto (director)	José Burgueño
	Dirección	C/ Alcalá, 589 Madrid 28022
	Teléfono	91- 741 00 09
	e-mail	cc.nsdelasnieves.madrid@educa.madrid.org nsnievesm@planalfa.es
	Cómo llegar	Metro Torrearias o Canillejas
	Web del centro	http://colegionuestrasradelasnieves.es/

IES San Javier	Contacto (directora)	Isabel Pérez Ongoz
	Dirección	Paseo Santa María de la Cabeza, 85 Madrid 28045
	Teléfono	91-473 42 16
	e-mail	cc.sanjavier.madrid@educa.madrid.org csanjavier1@hotmail.com
	Cómo llegar	Metro Delicias
	Web del centro	http://colegiosanjavier.es/

IES Santa Francisca Javier Cabrini	Contacto (directora)	Virginia Barahona
	Dirección	C/ Santa Francisca Javier Cabrini, 2 Madrid 28043
	Teléfono	91 – 3002513
	e-mail	cabrini_secundaria@planalfa.es
	Cómo llegar	Metro Canillas
	Web del centro	http://www.colegiocabrini.es/

Colegios Concertados de fuera de Madrid – Capital Rurales (seudorurales)

IES Las Tablas Valverde	Contacto (directora)	Paloma Marín, Secretaria técnica
	Dirección	Paseo de la Tierra de Mélide s/n 28050 Madrid
	Teléfono	91 – 4273506/07
	e-mail	VALV_PMARIN@FOMENTO.EDU
	Cómo llegar	Metro Las tablas, l 10
	Web del centro	http://www.fomento.edu/lastablasvalverde/

IES IBN Gabirol	Contacto (directora)	Luna Alfón
	Dirección	Paseo de Alcobendas, 7 Alcobendas
	Teléfono	91- 650 12 29
	e-mail	lunaalfon@ibngabirol.com
	Cómo llegar	Metro la Moraleja, bus 155, Plaza Castella
	Web del centro	http://www.colegiogabiroltoledano.com/

IES Madrigal	Contacto (directora)	Carmen Guerra Pérez
	Dirección	Tía Javiera, 2 Fuenlabrada
	Teléfono	91- 486 38 51
	e-mail	cc.madrigal.fuenlabrada@educa.madrid.org informacion@colegiomadrigal.com
	Cómo llegar	Metro Loranca
	Web del centro	http://colegiomadrigal.com/

Colegios Privados de fuera de Madrid – Capital Rurales (seudorurales)

IES Europeo	Contacto (directora)	Daniela Wamsteker Mast
	Dirección	Calle Cólquide, 14, 28231, Madrid, España
	Teléfono	916 36 19 19
	e-mail	info@educacem.com
	Cómo llegar	Metro las Rosas
	Web del centro	www.colegioeuropeodemadrid.com/

International schools IES SEK el Castillo	Contacto (directora)	Marta Rodger

	Dirección	
	Teléfono	916 596 300
	e-mail	marta.rodger@sek.es
	Cómo llegar	Metro las Rosas + Taxi
	Web del centro	http://elcastillo.sek.es/

IES Europeo Aristos	Contacto (directora)	Director: Luís Ramirez
	Dirección	Av. Juan Carlos I, 12, 28905 Getafe, Madrid
	Teléfono	916 83 98 89
	e-mail	Director: direccion@colgioaristos.com
	Cómo llegar	Metro Getafe
	Web del centro	http://www.colegioaristos.com/

Colegios Privados de Madrid Capital

IES Fem	Contacto (directora)	Jorge Vila
	Dirección	Loma, 4, Metropolitano28003 Madrid
	Teléfono	915345073
	e-mail	jorgevila@colegiofem.es
	Cómo llegar	L 6, Metropolitano
	Web del centro	http://fem-school.com/

IES Joyfe	Contacto (directora)	Juan José Fernández
	Dirección	Vital Haza, 65, 28017 Madrid
	Teléfono	914 08 22 63
	e-mail	eso-bachillerato@joyfe.es
	Cómo llegar	L 5 de metro
	Web del centro	http://www.joyfe.es/

IES Bristol	Contacto (directora)	Mercedes Fuentes
	Dirección	Calle de Enrique Prada, 9, 28042 Madrid
	Teléfono	917 42 86 87
	e-mail	mfuentest@colegiobristol.es
	Cómo llegar	Metro
	Web del centro	http://colegiobristol.es/

APPENDIX VIII

CD RECORDINGS OF BOTH TEACHER AND

STUDENT INTERVIEWS