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Jordi Nomen

Jordi Nomen, a Philosophy and History teacher at L'Escola Sadako, has recently published the book ***El Niño Filosósofo***, and here we discuss the possibilities of CLIL in Philosophy and a Socratic approach to teaching in English.

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Editorial

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It is with great pleasure that we present issue 2(1) of the of the *CLIL Journal of Innovation and Research in Plurilingual and Pluricultural Education*.

In Issue 1(1) we established that one of the goals of this publication was to serve as a forum for research leading to innovation for a diverse group of scholars, teacher educators and teachers invested in improving the quality of language education and disciplinary literacies. Issue 2(1) makes a step in that direction by offering a collection of five texts, where authors with different backgrounds and affiliations present their work.

Two of the five articles (those authored by Coyle and Cánovas Guirao; and Pavón Vázquez and Pérez Costa) are co-signed by university-based researchers, and researchers that make their highly demanding work as teachers compatible with the different but no less demanding chores of an investigative approach to teaching and learning in plurilingual contexts. In our view, access to the insights of those who spend most of their working time in the field is an asset that we would like to highlight and encourage. It also suggests that "empowering teachers" is a collocation that needs to be rethought, as it is clear that many teachers do not need to be "empowered" any more since they already are.

The A-B-C section takes on this occasion the form of an interview with a philosophy teacher, providing a hint on how future writers submitting texts to this section might also approach it.

The utility of the three articles to help teachers make informed decisions (those authored by Coyle and Cánovas Guirao; Escobar Urmeneta; Otto and Estrada) gives the issue an important dimension. Special mention should be made of Otto and Estrada's work, which dares to dig into assessment practices in CLIL, a paramount issue that has received less attention from research than needed or desired by teachers.

More specifically, the texts cover the following contents:

Escobar Urmeneta presents an introduction to CLIL for teachers and teacher-educators with little knowledge of CLIL in particular or plurilingual education in general. In it, European policies, school programmes, and classroom practices are brought together. The writer positions herself in defence of a democratic approach to CLIL that overcomes the Matthew effect that which favours students who already have full access to foreign language education, to the detriment of others with few or no opportunities for learning them outside the school.

Coyle and **Cánovas Guirao** illustrate the use of model texts as a written corrective feedback technique with young foreign language learners. The procedure used by the teacher to draw the learners' attention to grammatical, lexical and textual differences between a model story and a draft version written by the children is presented and analysed through excerpts of classroom conversation that illustrate a wide array of teacher's strategies. Implications are suggested for the role of feedback processing in promoting L2 learning.

Otto and **Estrada**, for their part, explore teachers' views on CLIL assessment practices in the Bilingual Sections of the Autonomous Region of Madrid Bilingual Project. The limited instances of formative assessment found in the sample lead the authors to propose a set of recommendations useful for the context examined and for other educational contexts with similar characteristics

Pérez Costa and **Pavón Vázquez** carry out an analysis of teacher-student interactions in science classrooms delivered in L1 (Spanish) and L2 (English) during the teaching of similar content matter with the purpose of identifying how teacher strategies in the two contexts resemble each other and how they differ (if at all) between the two language contexts.

In the A-B-C section **Paul Tompkins** interviews **Jordi Nomen**, a philosophy and history teacher at the Sadako primary school in Barcelona, Associate Professor in the Department of the Didactics of Social Studies at the Universitat Autònoma de Barcelona and the author of the recently published book *El Niño Filosósofo*. Here Topkins and Nomen discuss the possibilities for applying CLIL in the philosophy classroom and the feasibility of a truly Socratic approach to teaching in English. ■

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An Introduction to Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) for Teachers and Teacher Educators

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This paper provides a presentation to Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) aimed at any reader who needs a basic understanding of this approach, be they teachers, teacher educators or education stakeholders in general. The article contextualises CLIL within the European Union (EU) policy intended to promote effective plurilingualism for all, offers a rationale for CLIL and warns policy makers and practitioners of certain practices commonly observed in CLIL settings that may undermine its effectiveness.

KEYWORDS:
CLIL; Classroom Interaction; Democratic CLIL; Dual-focused Instruction; Language Policy; Plurilingual Education; Teacher Education.

Este artículo aspira a familiarizar a cualquier persona interesada –ya sea docente, profesional de la formación del profesorado, o persona con responsabilidades educativas –con el enfoque Aprendizaje Integrado de Contenidos y Lengua (AICLE). El artículo sitúa el AICLE en el contexto de la política lingüística de la Unión Europea (UE) encaminada a promover un plurilingüismo activo para toda la ciudadanía, presenta algunos principios teóricos que fundamentan este enfoque, y advierte sobre prácticas observadas en aulas AICLE que pueden amenazar su potencial educativo.

PALABRAS CLAVE:
AICLE; Interacción en el aula; AICLE democrático; Enseñanza con doble focalización; Política lingüística; Educación plurilingüe; Formación del profesorado.

1. The Plurilingual European Citizen

This paper provides a presentation to Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL). The article is organized into eight sections as follows. Section 1 contextualises CLIL within the European Union (EU) policy intended to promote effective plurilingualism, and section 2 provides a rationale for CLIL. Section 3 describes several of the key characteristics of CLIL classroom interaction, whereas section 4 warns us of certain practices commonly observed in CLIL settings that may undermine its effectiveness. Section 5 identifies common features found in CLIL programmes around Europe, and in section 6 the CLIL approach is related and compared to a number of alternative approaches to plurilingual education. Section 7 concludes the article by advocating in favour of a critical approach to CLIL and underscoring the need for high standards in CLIL teacher education.

Since the Summit of Heads of State Europe that took place in Barcelona in 2002, Europe has been promoting the notion that all EU citizens should be competent in at least two foreign languages (FL), in addition to their native language(s). The desired result is a Europe consisting of multilingual societies—where multiple languages are spoken side by side—made up of plurilingual citizens—citizens who speak two or more languages. This policy will lead, it is expected, to a higher degree of European cohesion and economic benefits for the resulting plurilingual speakers and European society as a whole (European Union 2002; European Commission 1995, 2008). At present, the percentage of Europeans who are monolingual, that is, able to speak only one language, is high, even when they live in multilingual neighbourhoods or travel frequently to areas where their language is not spoken, which means that they are unable to communicate efficiently with anyone who does not belong to their own linguistic community. This is exactly the problem that the European Commission seeks to address. In the words of a 2008 Commission report,

"This communication concentrates on people: their ability to use several languages, their opportunity to access culture and participate as active citizens, to benefit from better communication, inclusiveness and wider employment and business opportunities. The main objective is therefore ***to raise awareness of the value and opportunities of the EU's linguistic diversity and encourage the removal of barriers to intercultural dialogue.*** *A key instrument in this respect is the Barcelona objective—* ***communication in mother tongue plus two languages.*** *More effort is needed towards achieving this objective for all citizens". (European Commission 2008:5 bold in original)*

This policy in favour of plurilingualism is well accepted by most modern societies, which attribute a high symbolic and practical value to the ability to speak one or several foreign languages. However, school-leavers in many European countries show unsatisfactory competence levels even in a first foreign language by the end of compulsory education (see, for example, Eurobarometer 2012). Sociolinguistic factors aside, schooling has traditionally done very little to boost FL learning in compulsory education in many contexts. The fact that learners' contact with the target language (L2) is usually restricted to two to four slots per week in the school timetable of traditional grammar-based instruction largely explains the limited results obtained. It is not uncommon to find that students in schools which limit themselves to the minimum exposure time guaranteed by law fail to reach the threshold level of competence needed for effective communication in an L2, let alone two L2s. This is particularly the case, for example, of countries such as Spain, France or the United Kingdom, whose languages are learnt and spoken by millions around the globe, whether by native speakers or otherwise.

On the other hand, throughout Europe, students coming from affluent families can usually benefit from costly extra-curricular activities, private lessons and travel-abroad programmes to advance their FL learning, leading to a situation where language resources—parallel with economic resources—are unevenly divided across societies. It is clear, therefore, that the democratization of plurilingual education requires the adoption of educational policies that make enriched foreign language learning experiences available to all types of students, regardless of socioeconomic status. Content and Language Integrated Learning or CLIL is one approach to FL education which may help to promote effective plurilingualism across wide sectors of society within a reasonable span of time.

2. Why CLIL?

CLIL is an umbrella term which became popular in Europe in the 1990s in reference to any sort of educational programmes in which a non-native, second language (or L2) is used to teach disciplinary content to learners with developing competences in the language used as a means of instruction. This would be the case, for instance, when Spanish-speaking students learn music in French, French-speaking students learn science in German or Catalan-speaking students learn mathematics in English.

CLIL fits well with powerful language learning theories and, in general, with theories that acknowledge the role that language plays in all learning. In this respect, Halliday (1993) presents a complex perspective of learning in general, and language learning in particular, which consists of a continuum of three main interdependent processes: **learning language**, **learning through language** and **learning about language** (see **Figure 1**):

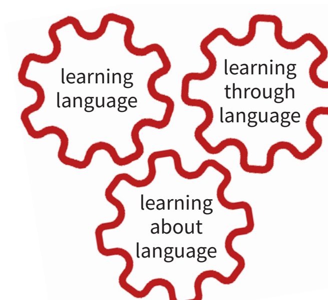

Figure 1. Halliday's model of learning

The interdependence and structural continuity of the learning processes thus is explained by the fact that all 'learning is learning to mean, and to expand one's meaning potential' (1993:113).

Indeed, schools are institutions where teaching languages, developing educated ways of using them, and focusing on the use and uses of language are primary interdependent goals. However, schooling, with its traditional segmentation of the syllabus in school subjects with clearly drawn boundaries, often overlooks the continuity among the axes signalled by Halliday, and their corresponding learning goals. All too frequently, the result of this is that teachers of subjects labelled 'Language' (be it English, Italian, Russian or Arabic) commonly approach language leaning/teaching through the strategy of 'learning /teaching about language' whereas teachers of subjects labelled 'other-than-language', such as Science, History or Music, expect students to absorb the particular ways of disciplinary literacies simply by teaching through language, with little attention paid to the ways in which language is employed in meaning-making within the field. Mohan (1985) puts it very simply: 'In research and in classroom practice this relationship is frequently ignored. In subject matter learning we overlook the role of language as a medium of learning. In language learning we overlook the fact that content is being communicated' (p.1).

Content and Language Integrated learning (CLIL) is a plurilingual approach to learning and teaching in formal contexts that creates a space which naturally leads to the implementation of Halliday's triadic perspective on (language) learning by placing the language learning continuum at its very heart.

Although the literature recommended in many teacher-education courses often employs the collocation 'CLIL methodology', CLIL can hardly be considered 'a method' strictly speaking, as there is no such thing as a specific inventory of teaching rules, restricted to CLIL, nor a defining list of steps to follow when implementing CLIL in the classroom (see Dalton-Puffer et al. 2010b on the same issue). In fact, although many definitions of CLIL have been proposed, none of the most widespread ones include the terms 'method' or 'methodology', as can be observed in the definitions presented below.

"The Content and Language Integrated learning (CLIL) is a plurilingual approach to learning and teaching in formal contexts that creates a space which naturally leads to the implementation of Halliday's triadic perspective on (language) learning by placing the language learning continuum at its very heart."

- ***'[CLIL] is a dual-focused educational approach in which an additional language is used for learning and teaching of both content and language. There is a focus not only on content and not only on language. Each is interwoven —even if the emphasis is greater on one than the other at a given time'***

  (Coyle, Hood & Marsh 2010: 1)

- ***'CLIL can be described as an educational approach where curricular content is taught through the medium of a foreign language, typically to students participating in some form of mainstream education at the primary, secondary, or tertiary level'***

  (Dalton-Puffer 2011:183)

- ***'CLIL embraces those educational practices in which content subjects—excluding those labelled as 'language subjects'—are taught and learned through a language of instruction, second or foreign, in which a learner has a basic or advanced developing communicative competence, and which explicitly:***
  - ***Promote the preservation and development of the learner's first language(s) and the consideration of and mise en valeur of cultural forms attached to that (those) language(s);***
  - ***Promote a truly integrated approach, with a dual focus of pedagogical attention, i.e., language and content; and***
  - ***Provide learners with all the assistance needed to comprehend, produce and negotiate academic messages in the target language adopted as the medium of instruction'***

  (Escobar Urmeneta 2011: 203–204)

Bilingual programmes are not new in the field of foreign language learning. In Spain, international schools such as the Lycée Francais or the Deutsche Schule, for example, have always taught large parts of the curriculum in a second language with noteworthy results. Lately, bilingual programmes for non-bilingual populations have started to overcome their traditionally exclusive character and are becoming increasingly popular in many schools throughout the European Union (Coyle 2005, Marsh et al. 2001). But what is it that accounts for the sudden upsurge of interest in integrating language and content in mainstream schooling?

According to Cenoz ‘the basic idea behind the integration of content and language is that languages are not learned first and then used but that they are learned by being used’ (2015: 17). In the following paragraphs I will try to analyse the implications of this very appealing (and intriguing) maxim.

According to language acquisition research theories (e.g., Lightbown & Spada 2006 or Swain 2000), an L2 can be most effectively acquired in conditions which resemble those present during the acquisition of the L1. That is,

- the **focus of instruction is on meaning** rather than exclusively on form;
- there is **abundant language input** roughly tuned to the level of the learners;
- learners are given every opportunity to engage in **meaningful exchanges**;
- learners obtain **plenty of support** to succeed in understanding others and making themselves understood.

These characteristics can be grouped into the two characteristic features of CLIL that make this approach potentially productive for FL learning in mainstream education: the quantity and the quality of opportunities for L2-medium purposeful interaction. It is precisely these two qualities that have earned CLIL the favour of EU language policy-makers (Eurydice 2006), and they therefore deserve our closer scrutiny.

Increased contact time with the L2

The length of time that students are in contact with the L2 has been found to be a major predictor of L2 learning success. If, in addition to ordinary foreign language classes, students are taught a non-language subject in that foreign language, the number of contact hours with the L2 doubles. A school which offers two CLIL subjects triples the number of contact hours compared with a school merely offering a standard L1-medium programme with foreign language classes. This increased contact time with the L2 makes CLIL a potentially suitable strategy to promote plurilingual education (see, for example, Artieda et al. 2017; Dalton-Puffer 2008).On the other hand, a minimal CLIL programme may not be sufficient to make a difference, at least in the short run (Pladevall-Ballester & Vallbona 2016).

Increased quality of the interaction in L2

First and second language acquisition in natural contexts such as encounters of daily life differs from instructed foreign language learning in the classroom in several ways. One important difference is that in natural settings learners focus primarily on meaning, that is, they try to express what they mean and try to comprehend other people’s messages using whatever verbal and non-verbal resources they have at hand. In such settings the effectiveness of a learner’s use of language is judged primarily according to how successful the communicative exchange is, that is, the mutual understanding achieved by the interlocutors, the veracity of the content or the appropriateness of the resources deployed to the given situation. The learner’s performance in terms of the formal correctness of their utterances very much plays a secondary role. Feedback received from interlocutors in the form of clarification requests or reformulations of the learner’s original wording help learners in natural settings to develop their capacity to make more precise and context-appropriate statements.

Against all the available evidence on how foreign languages are actually learnt, the conventional FL or L2 classroom usually plans and evaluates students according to a well-established—no matter how arbitrary—morphosyntactic sequence, as can be observed in a majority of course books, where, for example, first the present simple is presented, then the present continuous, then the regular past and so on. Under this paradigm, a traditionally-minded teacher would be inclined to say that a statement that formulates a hypothesis about ‘what will happen if we do this experiment’ cannot be used in a science lesson in Grade 7 since ‘conditionals’ is a ‘structure’ that needs to be presented only when the paradigms of present, past and future tenses have been mastered (this being a real-life example reported by Sanmartí, an expert in science education in a personal communication). Using Halliday’s terms, this paradigm equates language learning with learning about language.

By contrast, in CLIL programmes lessons are organized around the exchange of messages with curricular content, and the sequencing of the syllabus is conceptual rather than purely grammatical. In CLIL, the content to be covered is the starting point for planning, and teachers and students work together, making the most of all the verbal and non-verbal resources at hand, to understand one another and be understood in relation to the target content. Discussion of subject-matter content often leads to the emergence of interactional sequences where mutual comprehension problems are dealt with. Such side-sequences, where meaning comes first, and the form of the message is often problematized in relation to its meaning, bear a sharp resemblance to what can be observed in natural

“In CLIL, the content to be covered is the starting point for planning, and teachers and students work together, making the most of all the verbal and non-verbal resources at hand, to understand one another and be understood in relation to the target content.”

language learning settings and are potentially fecund for language learning. It is important to highlight that CLIL does not altogether discard form-focused instruction (see Coyle et al.'s definition in section 2, and sample lesson in section 4 below), but rather embeds attention to discourse and form within the teaching of the content in meaningful ways. In short, CLIL equates language learning with 'learning through language', without disregarding the added benefits that may be brought about by the third element of Halliday's continuum,'learning about language'.

Therefore, not only is the amount of contact time with the L2 higher in CLIL, but the quality of the interactions is also usually higher, or at least different and complementary to the type that takes place in the standard FL classroom. Thus, the CLIL teacher focuses on the content of the disciplinary message, introduces linguistic support in the task design and builds interactional scaffolding for learners to participate in academic discourse, understand what is being discussed and get to say what they mean through the L2. But just as importantly, learners are simultaneously developing their L2 linguistic resources, so that progressively their contributions to the lesson become not only more in line with the conventions of the disciplinary discourse, but also more fluent and more linguistically precise and complex.

3. Interaction in a CLIL classroom

Classroom interaction is central to the integrated learning of content and language, as it is to learning in general. I illustrate this here by means of various examples from the Language and Education (LED)[1] data corpus, which have been combined and reconstructeLEdd in **Excerpt 1** below, where the CLIL teacher, is teaching science to primary-level students. The reconstruction of material was deliberately done so that the excerpt would include a high density of the typical features observed in CLIL classroom interactions in primary and lower secondary education in Barcelona, but also in other parts of Spain (See for example, Escobar Urmeneta 2016a; Escobar Urmeneta and Evnitskaya, 2013, 2014).

"Not only is the amount of contact time with the L2 higher in CLIL, but the quality of the interactions is also usually higher, or at least different and complementary to the type that takes place in the standard FL classroom."

Excerpt 1

Primary and Secondary Colours. Grade 5.

```
1.  TEACHER:  Younis?
2.  YOUNIS:   [Reading from blackboard (BB)].
              Is green a primary +pri'mary+
              or a secondary +secon'dari+
              colour?
3.  TEACHER:  Thank you, Younis. Now, class,
              what do you think? Is green
              a PRImary or a SEcondary
              colour [exaggerated correct
              syllable stress, underlining
              on BB stressed syllable on BB]?
              PRImary or SEcondary?
4.  SSs:      [Many students at once]
              Secondary, secondary, primary.
5.  TEACHER:  Primary? Secondary? Hmmmm.
              Let's think [finger to forehead
              as if thinking] Why? [Writes
              huge 'why' on BB] WHY is it
              primary? WHY is it secondary?
6.  SSs:      [Many hands go up; Not Luca's]
7.  TEACHER:  Luca?
8.  LUCA:     Yes!
9.  TEACHER:  [to Luca] Maybe you are right,
              Luca. [To whole class] See,
              Luca thinks that green is a
              SEcondary colour. Why is that?
              [private turns mostly in L1
              for 3'] Look at the diagram
              (points at diagram and then at
              'green' between 'blue' and
              'yellow'). [2'] What makes
              green a SEcondary colour?
10. SSs:      [Several hands up; Private
              chats in L1] [2']
11. TEACHER:  Beatriz?
12. BEATRIZ:  Blue and yellow, green.
13. TEACHER:  Hmmm. Interesting! [To class]
              Is that correct? If we mix blue
              and yellow, do we get green?
14. SSs:      YES! GREEN!
15. TEACHER:  OK. So let's answer the
              question now. Younis, please,
              can you read the question
              again? [Signals with hand the
              part of the text Younis is
              about to read].
16. YOUNIS:   Is green a pri +pri+ primary
              +'primari+ or a secondary
              colour?
17. TEACHER:  Good, Younis! Now. This is to
              help you just a little bit.
              [Talks while writing down
              sentence on BB] Green is a
              secondary colour because…
18. SSs:      [Many hands go up] Teacher!
              Teacher!
19. TEACHER:  Rosa?
```

```
20. ROSA:     Green is secondary colour
              because blue and yellow mix
              green.

21. TEACHER:  Excellent Rosa! [recasting the
              sentence and writing it down
              on BB] Green is A secondary
              colour because … if we mix …

22. CLASS:    blue and yellow

23. TEACHER:  [echoing and writing down] blue
              and yellow … we get …

24. CLASS:    Green.

25. TEACHER:  Green. Good! Now, girls, you
              ask the question and boys
              answer it. Ready? Girls?

26. GIRLS:    [chorus] Is green a primary or
              a secondary colour?

27. BOYS:     [chorus] Green is a secondary
              colour because if we mix blue
              and yellow we get green.

28. TEACHER:  That was excellent class! One
              smiley face for us all!

29. SSs:      [happy faces and private chats
              in L1]
```

For purposes of analysis, let us group the features of the interactions we see here into six categories according to the instructional function they pursue.

A

Making the language comprehensible

In the excerpt, we observe how the teacher deploys a set of multimodal strategies such as the use of gestures (turns 5 and 15), the repetition of keywords and concepts (turn 5), or the use of paralinguistic resources, such as the large 'WHY' written on the blackboard, in order to help students understand the literal meaning of the messages.

B

Scaffolding leading to conceptualization

The teacher also uses her turns to provide interactional scaffolding to favour the appropriation of concepts being taught through that language (turns 17 and 19 to 24, for example). Indeed the cycles of Socratic questioning such as those concatenated by the teacher observed here are a favourite strategy in CLIL (Dalton-Puffer 2007), probably because they serve to open the floor to language-and-content learners, thus allowing them to become active participants in the academic conversation as co-constructors of meaning.

C

Fostering participation

She manages learners' verbal participation by asking open questions (turn 3) and then calling on not only students who self-select by raising their hands (turns 6, 10, 18 and 19) but also on those who do not, as in the case of Luca (7). The learners' eagerness to contribute to the conversation can be partially explained by the tolerance the teacher shows of the learners' private chatting (turns 9, 10, 21), mostly in the learners' L1. However not all contributions are treated in the same way by the teacher.

D

Shaping the learner's language

The teacher deploys a range of strategies to shape learners' language, such as using exaggerated emphasis to model correct pronunciation (turn 9) or form (turn 21); using recasts (turn 21); using the blackboard (turns 5 and 21) to officialise important information and help learners to absorb it, or help them focus on certain difficulties (turns 3 and 9); leaving unfinished sentences for the students to complete (turn 17); or giving the students an opportunity for controlled language practice in the form of a chorus drill (turns 25 to 27). These strategies exemplify the abundance and variety of teachers' proactive moves and the sort of feedback provided to students which can be observed in the LED corpus. This is consistent with Dalton-Puffer, who reports that the frequency of feedback has been found to be higher in CLIL settings that in traditional foreign language environments (2007).

E

Reassuring students—or deliberately leaving them in uncertainty

Evaluative feedback appears at different times (turns 13, 15, 17, 21, 25 and 28) and in different degrees, from a luke warm 'interesting' (turn 13), to the echoing of the correct answer (turn 23) or an emphatic 'excellent' (turn 28). On the other hand, there are occasions where the teacher opts for delaying the reward in order to exploit uncertainty, thus leaving the matter open for further exploration (turns 5, 9 and 13).

In short, the sequence of interactions shows a double focus on language and content learning, with emphasis alternating

between one and the other (Coyle, Hood & Marsh 2010), but with a tendency to attend to content in the first place, and generate affordances for language learning in relation to the content by giving students opportunities for language practice in side-sequences where specific formal problems are dealt with. It is also clear that the teacher's agenda includes many other concerns apart from purely instructional ones, such as dealing with the students' emotional welfare and maintaining an atmosphere of mutual support.

F

Creating a community of learners

The teacher's orientation towards creating and maintaining an atmosphere of collaboration and support is noticeable, for example, in her display of face-saving strategies when she pretends to accept Luca's (failed) contribution and uses it as the starting point for her next step in the interactive explanation. It is also apparent in the way she concludes the sequence (turn 28) by celebrating and rewarding the collaborative success achieved by the class ('for us', which includes herself) in a highly explicit way.

4. Common pitfalls in CLIL

Although the available research provides clear evidence that carefully designed CLIL programmes are effective when they are sensitive to the emerging needs of the students the implementation of CLIL does not always provide the results expected in terms of language gains, content gains or both. In this respect, Escobar Urmeneta and Evnitskaya (2013: 160) identify the following threats:

- There is a risk that 'academic standards' in the content subject will be lowered due to the students' poor command of the FL (Escobar Urmeneta 2011).
- Teachers may be insufficiently prepared to teach CLIL programmes, usually because of inadequate L2 language skills.
- Some students may experience specific difficulties because of assumptions held by teachers, the institution or students themselves that only those students with above average intellectual capacities, prior content knowledge and higher levels of communicative competence in the foreign language are able to successfully meet the communicative and cognitive demands imposed by a CLIL subject.

This last threat has been becoming increasingly evident in many Spanish contexts, where—ignoring the high symbolic value that society attributes to these kind of programmes—students with certain profiles are segregated out of the CLIL track in order to, as it is argued, protect these 'less advanced' learners from the steep challenges that CLIL may present to them. In this respect, in some regions, it has been observed how certain schools disregard official instructions in favour of inclusive CLIL. Paradoxically, in other Spanish regions, tracking students is precisely the direct result of the guidelines provided by educational authorities in relation to CLIL. It looks like finding arguments in favour of segregations is easy peasy. More specifically, different types of practices have been observed which result in some type of segregation are:

"Students with certain profiles are segregated out of the CLIL track in order to, as it is argued, protect these 'less advanced' learners from the steep challenges that CLIL may present to them."

- Streaming of students into CLIL or non-CLIL tracks according to L1 achievement test results.
- Streaming of students into CLIL and non-CLIL tracks according to L2 achievement test results.
- Streaming of students into CLIL or non-CLIL tracks according to global academic achievement.
- Organising support L1 lessons for students of migrant origin that run parallel to the CLIL lessons, which often in effect leads to their exclusion from the CLIL program.
- Excluding students of migrant origin from a CLIL track by default because, it is alleged, being part of it may involve an added burden that these students will not be able to cope with.

The underlying causes of such segregation are both ideological and technical.The problem lies, on the one hand, in the conception of 'education' (even compulsory education) as a tool for selecting rather than integrating students. On the other, it is not unusual to find schools whose plan to develop plurilingualism is poorly designed or executed, or absent altogether or teachers in charge of CLIL classes whose scientific, linguistic or CLIL-specific pedagogical qualifications are insufficient or inappropriate. Lack of adequate training for CLIL commonly results in the inability to deal with the complexities of CLIL settings in effective ways.

Other weaknesses identified by the researchers in the LED team relate to:

The prohibition or overuse of the L1 in the CLIL class

- The teacher strictly forbids students to speak in their L1.
- Students do not understand the content because the teacher speaks almost exclusively in the L2.
- The teacher speaks mostly in the L1 or uses self-translation as practically the only strategy to make herself understood.

Unbalanced treatment of content and language

- Subject content is trivialized in favour of language practice.
- There is insufficient planning to address the special challenges usually encountered in CLIL environments.
- Strategies chosen for L2 learning are inappropriate for a CLIL environment, such as following traditional foreign language teaching methods.
- There is a low density of affordances, that is, of the generation of favourable conditions, for the learning of the L2.
- The students' L2-literacy skills seem to progress at a very slow pace.
- Disciplinary literacy in the L2 develops insufficiently since teachers rarely explicitly work on the subject-specific genres/text types which students have to understand and produce in content classes.

Insufficient understanding of the stakes of plurilingual education and/or low commitment on the part of the school leadership team.

- There is insufficient planning and minimal contact with the target language.
- The programme does not accommodate the rhythm and personal traits of a large minority of the students.
- Content teachers and L2 teachers do not cooperate in the planning of CLIL teaching units.
- Content teachers and L2 teachers do not cooperate in the assessment of academic language skills.
- Insufficient information is provided to parents and families, leading to unrealistic expectations in terms of language learning outcomes.

5. Common Features of CLIL Settings across Europe

At the present time, CLIL is a well-established practice throughout Europe and, although it takes many forms depending on the context, there are a number of features that most programmes seem to share (see, for example, Cenoz 2015; Cenoz et al. 2014; Dalton-Puffer 2011, 2015; Dalton-Puffer et al. 2010a; Dalton-Pufferet al. 2014; Escobar Urmeneta 2016b; Nikula et al. 2013; Pérez-Vidal 2015).

Teacher Profile

Teachers tend to be non-native speakers of the target language. In the case of secondary education, CLIL teachers are usually first and foremost expert teachers of the discipline in question, and their awareness of language-related issues may vary according to the amount and quality of the specific training for CLIL that they have undergone. By contrast, the generalist profile of primary teachers equips them with an advantage for the teaching of CLIL, provided their language and specific CLIL teaching skills are firmly grounded.

In the case of English as an L2, the command of English shown by teachers in different countries varies from A2 to C2 according to the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR). In the specific case of Spain, the L2 competence required of CLIL teachers ranges from B2 to C1, depending on the legislation of each autonomous region.

Language choice

The term 'CLIL' is preferred when the L2 chosen as a means of instruction is a European language of international status. English—internationally recognised as the world's lingua franca of the 21st century—is the preferred target language for CLIL, although French, German or Spanish are also used to a lesser extent in CLIL contexts (Dalton-Puffer et al. 2010a). On the other hand, the term 'immersion' is preferred when the L2 is a minority language (see section 6). With regard to language use in the typical European CLIL classroom, teachers tend to promote the use of the L2 for all purposes, although they may resort to the L1 when they feel there is a need for it (Escobar Urmeneta 2016b).

Timetable

Typically less than 50% of the curriculum is taught in the foreign language, and in some contexts this may go down to 10%. CLIL lessons generally appear in the timetable as 'content' lessons, whereas foreign language lessons are programmed separately as such. There are of course many variations to this scheme, particularly in innovative schools, which encourage language and content teachers to work hand-in-hand in the planning and co-teaching of subject matter through English. This type of organization favours the transfer of literacy skills from one language to another. Also, schools that value the CLIL approach but do not have the human resources to implement it often adopt in the foreign

language classroom a variation of standard CLIL that has been termed 'content-rich language learning' (see section 5).

Curriculum

The curriculum taught in CLIL lessons must comply with the national curriculum corresponding to a given content area. In this respect, CLIL programmes differ from the approach taken in what are commonly known as the so-called 'international schools', which typically implement the curriculum of a different country. For example, because it is accredited by several US states, the American School of Barcelona follows a curriculum consistent with US schools.

Assessment

Assessment is mostly carried out in relation to mastery of the content. At initial stages, as the learner's capacity to display content-related knowledge in a foreign language may be influenced by their incomplete communicative competence in that language, programmes often develop strategies to get around this by, for example, allowing students to answer test questions in their L1.

School Language Projects

Typically schools that adopt a CLIL approach develop comprehensive language plans or 'projects' in order to systematically foster the development of literacy skills in the L2, as well as in the L1, or at least the school's official language(s), since some students may speak a different language (or languages) altogether at home. The design of a school language project is mandatory in bilingual communities such as the Basque Country or Catalonia in Spain, where CLIL actually entails the use of an L3 as a vehicle for learning. **Figure 2** summarises the characteristics shared by CLIL programmes in the EU.

- A European foreign language of international status is used as a language of instruction, English being the most common.
- Typically between 10% and 50% of the curriculum is taught in the L2 in CLIL classes.
- CLIL teachers are usually non-native speakers of the target language.
- CLIL teachers are subject-matter experts.
- The subject-matter curriculum is the same as for the content subjects taught in the L1.
- The culture of the classroom is that of the L1.
- The school language project seeks to guarantee the development of literacy skills in the school's official L1, as well as in the target L2.
- The school's official L1 plays an important role in the CLIL classroom.

Figure 2. Some common features of CLIL contexts across Europe. (Adapted from Dalton-Puffer 2015)

6. Commonly Used Terminology Related to Plurilingual Education

CLIL is just one of the options available in plurilingual education. It shares several features with other types of home-school language-switch programmes and also differs from them in a number of ways. Sometimes the differences between these approaches lie in the pedagogical principles that underlie them and the different practices they promote. On other occasions, a different term simply responds to a different tradition or language policy in a given territory. In most cases, a combination of such factors has given rise to the term in question. Below we present some of the most common.

Language Across the Curriculum

Language Across the Curiculum or LAC (pronounced read 'L-A-C'). According to Vollmer (2006), LAC acknowledges the fact that formal language learning does not only take place in specific timetable slots labelled 'language class'. The learning of language for personal, social and academic purposes takes place in each and every subject in school, in each and every activity, across the whole curriculum. LAC experts warn that schools all too often underestimate the linguistic dimension in subject-matter learning activities, and they underscore the need to integrate the development of language skills and competences into subject-specific teaching. In short, LAC regards all teachers as language teachers, and argues that they should plan and implement their lessons taking this principle into account. Rather than a method for teaching languages, LAC refers to a set of principles that need be acknowledged in school language projects and implemented in all school subjects, be they language or non-language content areas. According to Corson (1990), LAC is grounded on the following principles (from Vollmer 2006: 6):

- Language develops mainly through its purposeful use
- Learning (often) involves talking, writing, shaping and moving (normally in reaction to perceptions)
- Learning often occurs through speaking or writing as much as through shaping and moving
- Language use contributes to/is a pre-requisite for cognitive development
- Language is the medium for reflecting on learning, for improving it, for becoming (more or less) autonomous as learners.

LAC principles apply as much to the development of first languages as to the learning of any additional one. In fact, the majority of the approaches for teaching second languages described below adhere to the aforementioned tenets.

- *ILLUSTRATIVE CASE: In the Santissima Annunziata primary school (Italy), all teachers in all subjects work together in subsidiary ways to plan how to help students develop their literacy skills in Italian as an L1 in every subject in the curriculum. The school is now studying how to adapt the traditional methodology hitherto employed for English instruction to the principles of Content-Rich Language Learning (see below) as a preliminary stage towards introducing CLIL.*

Content-Based Instruction

Content-Based Instruction or CBI, also known as Content-Teaching, is an umbrella term used mainly in Canada and the USA to designate host language programmes for non-English-speaking students, and the term is often restricted to programmes addressed to students from a migrant background. Immersion (see below) is just one very intensive type of CBI (Cenoz 2015). Planning in CBI starts by selecting relevant content-related goals, concepts and skills. In a second step, teachers identify the content-obligatory language items needed to tackle the content and possibly the content-compatible language items which may not be indispensable but fit well within the lesson plan (Snow et al. 1989).

Sheltered Instruction

Sheltered Instruction is an approach to English-medium CBI (see above) developed in the USA which places a heavy emphasis on how support to comprehension and production is provided to students of migrant origins in compulsory education. It emphasises both use of the target language for all purposes and support for cognitive and communicative development. In line with this approach, Echeverria and Short developed the Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol (SIOP) (pronounced as one single word: /ˈsaɪ.əp/)(http://www.cal.org/siop/), a tool for observing and improving the quality of lessons. Its proponents claim that 'the SIOP Model improves teaching effectiveness and results in academic gains for students'(Echeverria et al. 2006).

Language Immersion

Language Immersion is the term commonly used when students coming from families who speak a majority language are schooled in the minority language present in the social environment of the school.

- *ILLUSTRATIVE CASE: This approach was extensively tested inFrench language immersion programmes in Quebec, Canada, and is currently applied within the Spanish public education systemfor Catalan language immersion in Catalonia and Basque language immersion in the Basque Country.*

Two-way or dual immersion is a variant of this approach in which learners coming from two different language communities learn together using both languages as a means of instruction.

- *ILLUSTRATIVE CASE: In some Boston primary schools half of students in the classroom are speakers of Spanish and the other half are English speakers. Instruction is provided in both languages with the goal that students will become bilingual or biliterate* (see https://www.bostonpublicschools.org/Page/5735).

Immersion and dual immersion programmes respond as much to language learning goals as to social cohesion goals.

English-Medium Instruction

English-Medium Instruction or EMI (pronounced as E-M-I) may refer to any kind of programme taught in English, but its use is usually restricted to programmes addressed to adults, such as a Master's Degree in Engineering offered in English to international students by a Spanish or Portuguese university. In EMI the L2 is the working language, but the development of learner competences in English is not necessarily an associated goal, the focus being on the learning of content.

Integrating Content and Language in Higher Education

Integrating Content and Language in Higher Education (ICLHE) (Wilkinson, ed., 2004) refers to CLIL programmes offered by tertiary institutions. ICLHE is therefore a very specific type of EMI that aims at the development of professional competence in a particular speciality and simultaneously communicative competence in the L2 in a specific professional context such as business management or medicine. Sometimes ICLHE programmes are simply labelled CLIL, as can be inferred from Dalton-Puffer's definition of CLIL (see section 2 above). Elsewhere they are equated with EMI. My own sense is that programmes in tertiary education with language development goals deserve a specific term since university students and professors face particular challenges not commonly found in compulsory education (Escobar Urmeneta 2018).

Content-Rich Language Learning

Content-Rich Language Learning (CRLL), also known as Language-Driven CLIL (LD-CLIL) or soft CLIL. The evidence provided by research regarding the high quality of the interactions that emerge in CLIL classrooms has encouraged many foreign language teachers to plan their lessons according to CLIL pedagogical principles. For example, a teacher of English as an L2 might plan a teaching unit for Grade 4 students around the myth of Robin Hood, using it as a starting point to explore in the L2 some aspects of everyday life in the Middle Ages. Or a teacher of French

as an L2 might follow up a recent school visit with her Grade 7 class to some nearby Roman ruins by having student role-play in French a 'Patrician Roman Dinner'. This approach is often referred to as Content-Rich Language Learning (Escobar Urmeneta 2012) or Language-Driven CLIL. It should be noted that in the case of quality CRLL, the potential quality of interactions is maintained while the potential benefits of the increase in contact hours with the L2 present in standard CLIL programmes disappears.

The CRLL (or LD-CLIL) approach to foreign language learning excludes classic classroom activities such as 'one day in the life of' or 'the horoscope', far-fetched topics selected for the repetitive practice of pre-determined specific language forms (like the present simple or will-future forms) without any real meaningful content. For the same reason, the CRLL approach also rules out the use of texts on topics of current social or scientific interest such as 'acid rain' or 'animal experimentation' when they are merely used to showpiece certain language items (the passive voice, for instance). Such reading activities illustrate how 'hot' scientific and social issues can be trivialized to serve as the context for contrived grammar practice (Escobar Urmeneta 2012).

Bilingual (or Trilingual) Education

Bilingual education is a generic term referring to educational programmes that consistently use two (or more) languages as a vehicle for instruction. Immersion, CLIL and ICLHE are different types of bilingual (or trilingual) programmes. The main advantage of this term is its transparency for non-experts, which is why some educational authorities prefer it to the more technical 'CLIL' (or AICLE, EMILE, etc. in its different translations). Its main drawback is that the term 'bilingual' (or trilingual) only refers to the number of languages, but does not provide information on the purpose of the programme or the pedagogical approach adopted.

Content Driven CLIL

Content-Driven CLIL, also known as hard CLIL. This is usually contrasted with Language-Driven CLIL (Met 1998) to distinguish the approaches in which CLIL is implemented in a content class (hence 'content-driven') from the 'content-rich' approaches, which in effect involve implementing CLIL in a foreign language class. Content-driven CLIL is commonly referred to simply as 'CLIL'. The differences between standard CLIL and Content-Rich Approaches to foreign language learning are summarised in **Figure 3** below.

7. To Conclude

Dalton-Puffer et al. (2010b: 3) argue that the term CLIL 'has acquired some characteristics of a brand name, complete with the symbolic capital of positive description: innovative, modern, effective, efficient and forward-looking'.This glamour must not interfere with a commitment to the progressive understanding of the intricacies and challenges that the CLIL approach brings into schools, classrooms and the teaching profession. Nor must it blind us to the risks for democratic education implied by certain ways of implementing CLIL which enforce the Matthew effect by favouring students who already have full access to foreign language education, to the detriment of others with few or no opportunities for learning languages of high symbolic and practical value outside the school.

CLIL is not the only approach to plurilingual education, but under certain circumstancesit appears to be a reasonably good one. However, one condition is indispensable if CLIL programmes are to achieve success, namely that the teachers who carry it out in the classroom must have appropriate and sufficient training in not only subject content but also the L2 vehicle they will use to deliver that content. One inexcusable condition to achieve success through CLIL is the satisfactory linguistic and professional training of content, and language teachers who have learned to work closely together. ■

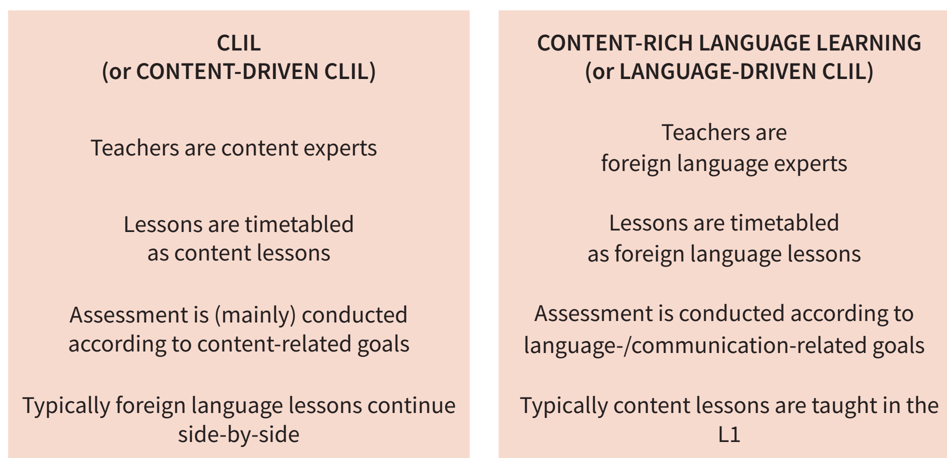

Figure 3
Differences between content-driven and language-driven CLIL

Notes

1 LED refers to the Language and Education Research team. More information available at: www.http://grupsderecerca.uab.cat/led/

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9. Appendix

Transcription Conventions

`+word+`	Word pronounced approximately in that way
`'word`	Stressed syllable
`WORD`	Louder speech
<u>word</u>	Emphasis on word or syllable
`[word or phrase]`	Comment from transcriber
`wo::rd`	Prolonged sound
`BB`	Blackboard
`2'`	2-second pause

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Learning to Write in a Second Language:

The Role of Guided Interaction in Promoting Children's Noticing from Model Texts

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This paper illustrates the use of model texts as a written corrective feedback technique with young foreign language learners. The procedure used by the teacher to focus the learners' attention on grammatical, lexical and textual differences between a model story and a draft version written by the children is described, and implications are suggested for the role of feedback processing in promoting L2 learning.

KEYWORDS:
writen corrective feedback; models; young learners; EFL classroom.

Este trabajo examina el papel de los textos modelo como técnica de feedback correctivo con aprendices de inglés en el aula de primaria. Describimos cómo por medio de la interacción discursiva la maestra logra dirigir la atención de los aprendices hacia las diferencias léxicas, gramaticales y textuales entre una historia modelo y una versión escrito por los niños. Proponemos algunas implicaciones del uso de modelos para el aprendizaje de la L2.

PALABRAS CLAVE:
feedback correctivo; textos modelo; niños; inglés lengua extranjera.

Introduction

In foreign language learning contexts such as Spain, children spend at least twelve years of their lives in primary and secondary education. During this time, they are exposed to English as a subject in the school curriculum for a few hours a week and often with little or no contact with the language beyond the classroom. In many schools, under the guise of a communicative approach to language learning, much of the time is dedicated to explicit focus on forms (FonFs) (Long, 1996) and vocabulary teaching in teacher-dominated classrooms. The development of competence in foreign language (FL) writing is rarely contemplated beyond the completion of textbook exercises. Young learners in mainstream and content classrooms frequently copy, match, underline, circle and fill in gaps in sentences with topic vocabulary, but they are seldom required to write different types of texts in English. As a result, they are denied important opportunities to try out their developing knowledge of the FL and to receive feedback on their writing. Against this backdrop, it seems that many English as a foreign language (EFL) teachers of younger learners in the Spanish educational context are unaware of the instrumental role that writing practice and written corrective feedback (WCF) can play in the linguistic development of their pupils. The idea that engaging in both of these activities might actively contribute to children's foreign language development does not normally form part of current pedagogical agendas. The aim of the present paper is to present and illustrate an instructional approach using model texts as a WCF technique with a group of young EFL learners that led them to engage in collaborative reflection on written narratives with their class teacher, an experience that was found over time to improve the quality of the children's written output.

A rationale for the language learning potential of written corrective feedback

This neglect of writing in young learner classrooms clashes with contemporary theory and research in the field of foreign language writing. The cognitive'*writing-to-learn-language*' strand of second language acquisition research (Manchón, 2011) highlights the potential of writing to contribute to foreign and second language learning. From this theoretical perspective, it is argued that language learners should be given frequent opportunities to write in the second language (L2) and provided with relevant feedback on their language errors in order to trigger important learning processes including noticing, hypothesis testing and metalinguistic reflection (Ferris, 2010; Williams, 2012). By allowing learners to try out their developing knowledge of the L2 in writing, and by scaffolding this process with corrective feedback, teachers may be able to help learners become more aware of what they know in the L2 and what they do not. From this perspective, raising learners' awareness of 'gaps' in their L2 knowledge can be facilitative of interlanguage development (Schmidt, 2001; Swain, 1985).

"When pairs share their L2 knowledge when writing a joint text and then discuss together the corrections or differences they notice between their own work and the teacher's feedback, or when teachers help learners to focus on errors in their own writing or on the positive qualities of model texts, they are engaging in an important learning activity."

Sociocultural theory has similarly advanced our appreciation of the language learning potential of WCF through the importance attached to cognitive development as a socially constructed activity. Inherent to this idea is the Vygotskian premise that the individual appropriation of linguistic knowledge can be co-constructed through collaborative talk during problem-solving tasks. Therefore, when pairs share their L2 knowledge when writing a joint text and then discuss together the corrections or differences they notice between their own work and the teacher's feedback, or when teachers help learners to focus on errors in their own writing or on the positive qualities of model texts, they are engaging in an important learning activity. Seen from both cognitive and sociocultural perspectives, the scaffolding afforded by the pooling of linguistic resources during feedback analysis both in teacher-led whole class discussions or in pair work, would appear to be a useful starting point to promote the creation of new knowledge through a process of what Swain (2006) has referred to as '*languaging*' or '*...making meaning and shaping knowledge and experience through language*' (p98).

Model texts as a written corrective feedback technique

Written corrective feedback can be delivered in a variety of different ways including (a) explicit error correction, (b) use of codes or underlining to signal that an error has been made or (c) the provision of metalinguistic explanations or rules. In recent years alternative techniques including reformulations or model texts have become popular. Both of these more discursive types of feedback consist of providing learners with whole texts rather than lists of errors or codes. Reformulation involves rewriting the learners' text but correcting any grammatical, lexical, spelling or stylistic mistakes while maintaining the original ideas. Models are complete, well-written texts created by teachers taking into consideration the content and the genre of the target text, as well as learners' age, proficiency level, etc., but without specifically referring to the learners' written output. Models provide learners with rich sets of appropriate L2 words and structures for a given context, which can help them both identify their own errors and become aware of the alternative ideas and content in the model. They are also a less time-consuming feedback technique for teachers than individual corrections or reformulations, as one or two models can be used in a given class and tailored to meet the proficiency levels of the children.

Studies of model texts with young learners (Cánovas, Roca de Larios & Coyle, 2015) have found them to be useful in allowing the children not only to identify their own errors, but also to incorporate new lexis and chunks of language and improve the overall structure of their writing. However, since working with models requires further analysis and reflection than when errors are explicitly highlighted by the teacher, researchers have also suggested a useful role for instruction in helping learners take advantage of models. In some classrooms, especially with older learners, a focus on form and writing activities are often the norm and learners are well accustomed to receiving and analysing feedback.

"Models are complete, well-written texts created by teachers taking into consideration the content and the genre of the target text, as well as learners' age, proficiency level, etc., but without specifically referring to the learners' written output."

"Models provide learners with rich sets of appropriate L2 words and structures for a given context, which can help them both identify their own errors and become aware of the alternative ideas and content in the model."

However, in young learner classrooms, writing tasks and the provision of feedback are often overlooked in favour of oral communication tasks. This means that children are not only unfamiliar with writing regularly in the L2, but also that they have very little experience of handling feedback on their texts. Consequently, teaching aimed specifically at helping learners to identify and understand the nature of errors in their written output would seem to be a worthwhile venture. This was what we set out to explore.

Multi-stage Writing and Written Corrective Feedback Tasks

The experience we describe below took place in a small state school in a village in southeast Spain as part of a larger study on feedback processing. Sixteen children forming a total of eight pairs from two EFL classes in primary education, a grade 4 (aged 9-10 years old) and a grade 5 (aged 10-11 years old) took part in the research. The two EFL classes were divided into a teaching group (grade 5) and the non-teaching group (grade 4), since despite the age difference, the children in both classes had overall similarly low levels of L2 competence.Over the school year, the children took part in two multi-stage writing and feedback tasks. At **Stage 1 (Composing stage)**, the children were asked to jointly write a story in response to a picture prompt. At **Stage 2 (Comparison stage)**, two days later, the pairs were provided with the stories they had written and a model text written by their teacher and discussed or made a note of any differences they could find. At **Stage 3 (Rewriting stage)**, one week after having completed the initial writing task, the children were given the pictures again and asked to rewrite their stories. Between each task and over a period of six weeks, the children in the teaching group devoted one weekly English lesson to writing stories and discussing model versions with their class teacher while the non-teaching group continued with their regular EFL lessons. The procedure followed will be described and illustrated below.

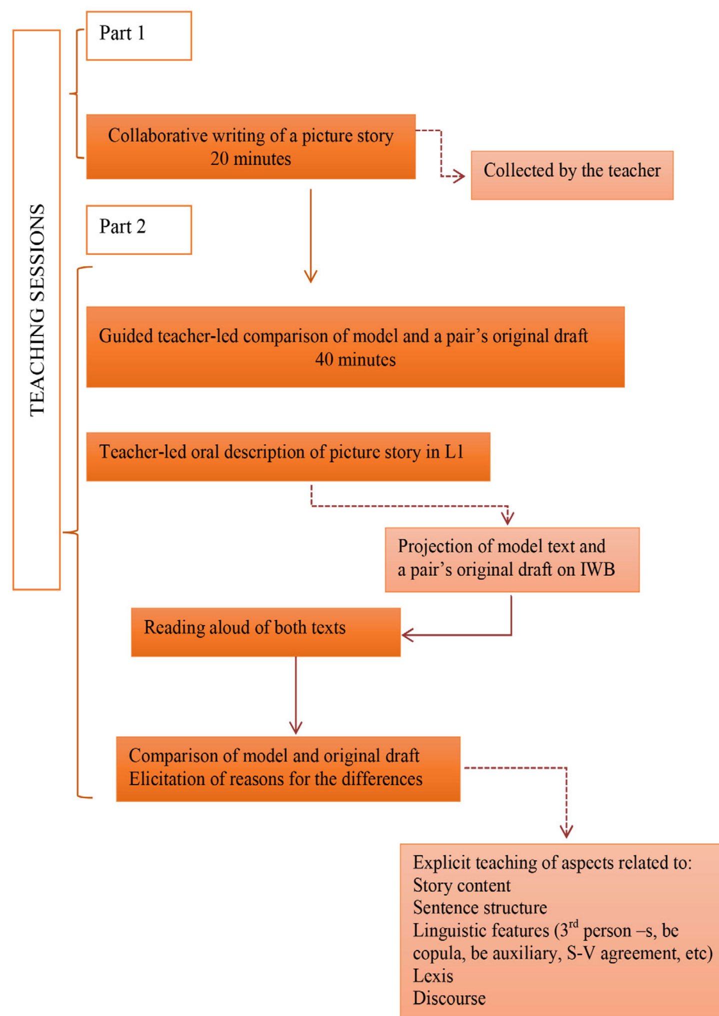


Figure 1.
Structure of the teaching sessions

Teaching children with model texts

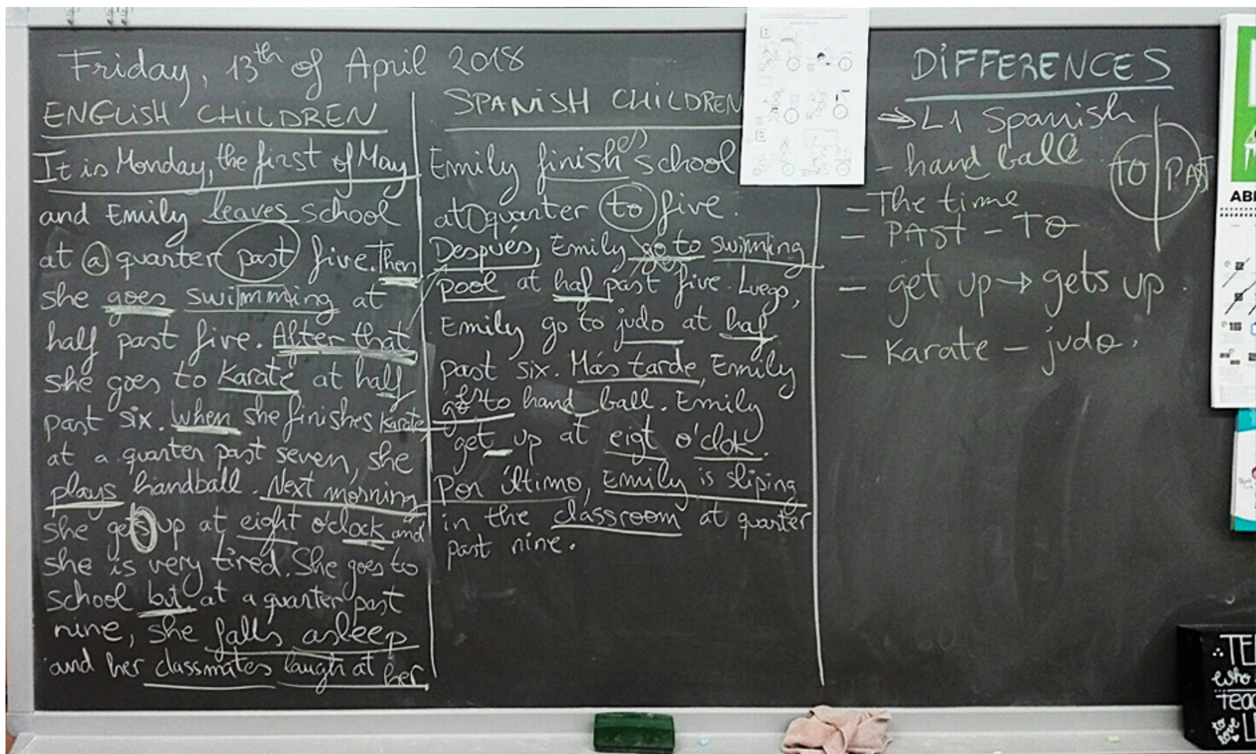
The six teaching lessons in which the children worked with model texts were divided into two parts. In every session, firstly the children jointly wrote a story using a set of pictures (**Appendix A**) to guide their narratives (20 min) and then participated in a whole class discussion activity in which the teacher helped them to identify differences between a model text (**Appendix B**) and one of their anonymous drafts (40 min) (see **Figure 1**). To begin with, after the children's drafts were collected, the learners were encouraged by the teacher to tell the story in Spanish so that the meaning of the drawings could be clarified collectively. During this discussion, the teacher used mainly English while the children relied mostly on their L1.

Excerpt 1

Clarifying the meaning

```
1.  T:  First of all, look at the pictures,
        this is a story, a picture story
        about a girl, her name is Emily and
        this is Emily's day. First, let's
        clarify the meaning in Spanish;
        Number 1, for example, Paula, can you
        tell me what is happening in number
        1? in Spanish first.
2.  P1: Vale, Emily termina el colegio…
3.  T:  Yes, Emily termina el colegio….¿Y qué
        hora es?
4.  P1: Las cinco y cuarto.
5.  T:  ¿Y qué día es?
6.  P1: El uno de mayo.
7.  T:  Muy bien, Paula seguimos con la
        viñeta número 2.
8.  P2: Emily está en clase de piscina.
9.  T:  Sí, va a natación…
10. P2: A las cinco y media.
```

The teacher then projected a model version on the blackboard and wrote alongside it one pair's original text (each week a different pair was chosen) without revealing the identity of the writers. The children were told that the two versions of the stories had been written by Spanish and English children respectively (**Picture 1**).



Picture 1. The model version of the picture story and one pair's original draft

Excerpt 2

Explaining the task

1. T: Ok. Well that's the story and here we have a story written by some English children and here is another one written by Spanish children. As you can see, there are some differences between them.
2. PP: Yes, yes….
3. T: Well that's what we have to do, find all the differences. The story written by the English children is perfect as English is their first language and the Spanish story, since the children are still learning English, has some mistakes. We have to find them. Is that clear?

The teacher then read both texts aloud and the children followed silently before being asked to identify any differences they could find between the model text and the Spanish children's version.

Excerpt 3

Reading the draft

1. T: OK. Now, the Spanish children's text: (reading) "Emily finish school at quarter to five. Y después, Emily go to swiming pool at haf past five. Luego, Emily go to judo at haf past six. Más tarde Emily go to hand ball. Emily get up at eigt o'clok. Por último Emily is sliping in the classroom at quarter past nine".
2. PP: Hay mucha diferencia...si…

Through guided class discussion, the teacher attempted to raise the children's awareness of five broad categories, namely, (1) **the story content**, (2) **sentence structure**, (3) **grammar** (4) **vocabulary and spelling**, and (5) **discourse**. Consequently, when the children found a difference between the text and the model version, the teacher underlined it on the blackboard and explained related linguistic or textual issues. The following examples show how the teacher scaffolded the children's noticing from the model through guided interaction, by helping them to identify and reflect on surface differences between both narratives (**Picture 2**).

Picture 2. Whole class discussion of the draft and model text

(1) Content

When the children found a content-related difference, the teacher pointed out that the model could be used as a source of ideas to improve their own writing. For example, a common content difference noticed by the children was the spatial location of the story characters in the models. This led the children to make strategic comments on their future writing such as '*Next time, we should include the place*'. In the following example, a child noticed that this particular model provided more detailed reference to the temporal setting of the story than the learners' draft, which began by describing the sequence of events.

Excerpt 4

Noticing differences in story content

1. P1: En la parte de los ingleses especifican un poco más las cosas que las de los españoles, por ejemplo: al empezar la historia dicen "It is Monday the first of May" y los otros escriben "Emily leaves school".
2. T: Supergood! More information. They begin the story by giving more information, ok? They are much more precise. They write the date and the month. So, can you see how they start off situating the story in time. Vey good.
3. P1: Y en el de los Spanish children solamente dicen la situación.
4. T: Very good. Exactly. They only say what Emily is doing. Good difference.

(2) Sentence structure

Often, the learners noticed that the models contained longer sentences than the original stories, which enabled the teacher to explain that longer and more complex sentences could be produced by using connectors such as '*when*' or '*but*'. In Excerpt 5, the teacher explicitly draws the children's attention to the combination in the model of two ideas into a single sentence and encourages them to attempt this in their own writing.

Excerpt 5

Noticing connectors

1. P3: Y otra diferencia es 'but' que los españoles no lo han puesto.
2. T: Very good. They haven't written it. What does 'but' mean?
3. PP: Pero
4. T: Very good. The children haven't used the connector to join the sentences. They've written shorter sentences right? Can you see how the English children have joined two ideas together: "She goes to school but at a quarter past nine she falls asleep? That's a nice way to write better stories. Try to use connectors to write long sentences.

(3) Grammar

Within this category, the learners often noticed that the original texts lacked the third person –s in verb forms. However, they were generally unable to explain the linguistic rule underlying the difference. As a result, the teacher spent time in every session explaining relevant grammar rules such us the 3rd person singular of the present simple, the be copula, be auxiliary or subject-verb agreement using examples from the children's writing and the model texts. This attempt at assisting learners to make form-meaning connections during input processing is one of the salient characteristics of processing instruction, as attested by Van Patten (2004), and is believed to impact on their developing knowledge of the second language.

Excerpt 6

Guiding metalinguistic awareness of language form

```
1.  T:  What is the difference between 'She
        goes' and 'Emily go'? Can you explain
        it? Think

2.  P4: Que goes es el pasado...

3.  T:  Goes is in the past?

4.  PP: No, no...

5.  T:  But you're thinking along the right
        lines. It's a grammatical difference.
        'Goes' is present tense but...

6.  PP: La ese!

7.  T:  The letter 's' good. And what does
        this 's' mean?

8.  P5:  De he o she...

9.  T:  Exactly! The third person 's'. We
        know that the third person of the
        present singular, I mean when we talk
        about 'he ' or 'she' in the present we
        have to add the 's' to the verb,
        right?

10. PP: Sí, sí..

11. T:  So in the story it's wrong. We don't
        say 'Emily go', we say'Emily goes'

12.     …

13. P5: También se les ha olvidado ponerle la
        ese de tercera persona in she get...

14. T:  Yes, perfect! Super important
        difference! It should be…

15. P5: She gets up
```

(4) Lexis and Spelling

The learners often inquired as to the meaning of lexical items in the models they were exposed to. They also began to notice the L2 forms in the models for L1 words present in the original texts and paid more attention to details of spelling. In the following two examples, learners point out the use of the L1 term '*despues*' in the initial text before locating its equivalent in the model 'After that'. Two spelling errors ('*haf*' and '*cloc*') are also highlighted by the children, which prompts a corresponding phonological explanation from the teacher.

Excerpt 7

Focusing on L1-L2 matches

```
1.  P6: Porque dice por ejemplo: más tarde,
        luego después... en español...

2.  T:  Exactly, one difference is that they
        use Spanish. Of course, because the
        children who wrote this are still
        learning so they use Spanish to write
        words they don't know. How do the
        English children write this?

3.  P6: Mmm 'After that she goes..'

4.  T:  Perfect. So 'después' is…

5.  P6: After that.
```

Excerpt 8

Noticing spelling

```
1.  P7: Que pone haf en vez de half.

2.  T: Very good. They have missed a letter.
       We don't pronounce the L but we write
       haLf. It's a spelling difference. Next
       Triana.

3.  P8: Que en o'clok le falta la c.

4.  T:  Another spelling difference very good!
```

(5) Discourse

When children identified discourse markers such as '*finally*' in the model texts, the teacher spent time highlighting textual differences such as story structure (beginning, middle and ending) and the use of story-writing terminology (Once upon a time, one day, first, after that, then, next, and finally) as a way of helping the children to improve their narrative texts. When this process was repeated several times, the children were able to differentiate clearly the three parts in the story and tried subsequently to include them in their own texts.

Pedagogical Implications

The teacher's interventions in drawing the children's attention to linguistic and textual differences in the imperfectly written texts of their peers in comparison to model texts proved valuable in helping them to make better use of the feedback. In the second multi-stage task, the pairs in the teaching group made fewer errors and wrote qualitatively better texts that the learners who had not been helped to analyse models (**Table 1**).

The question is, then, what was it that enabled the children in the teaching group to produce better texts? The answer, we believe, lies in the social dynamics of the classroom discourse, which became a forum for teacher-led collective '*languaging*'. As described above, the children were shown how to go about analysing diverse features of the model text while simultaneously supported in the development of metalinguistic knowledge through a process of dialogic interaction with the teacher. The teacher's role in scaffolding the children's noticing and in offering metalinguistic explanations for errors in the sample texts over a sustained six-week period seemed to have raised the children's awareness of form-function mappings and strengthened their grammatical, lexical and discursive knowledge, thus priming them to become more perceptive when handling feedback on their writing.

"The question is, then, what was it that enabled the children in the teaching group to produce better texts? The answer, we believe, lies in the social dynamics of the classroom discourse, which became a forum for teacher-led collective '*languaging*'."

The findings of our study suggest a role in the classroom for consciousness-raising activities using model texts to help younger, less proficient learners improve their foreign language writing and develop their meta awareness of language as a system. Without the experience and knowledge accumulated in the teaching sessions, children in the non-teaching group struggled to notice and understand linguistic features in the input. However, by actively directing learners' noticing and filling in gaps in their L2 knowledge, the teacher helped the children in the teaching group to improve the quality of their noticing from the model and improve their written output. It seems important, therefore,

Table 1. Sample stories written after the instructional intervention

Teaching Group	Non-teaching group
The Crazy Scientific	*The cientiffic and dog*
Once upon a time a one scientific does a potion. They are a dog sleeping. The scientific drink a potion, the scientific it's crazy. The head scientific bumm, bumm! The dog gets up. The scientific turns into a cat! The dog looks angry a cat. The dog jump the cat.	*The cientiffic is create poccy and dog is sleeping. The cientiffic is drink poccy and dog sleeping. He dolor the gargant. An cientiffic explossion is hear and dog is week up. He cientiffic is convertic a cat and dog the look is roon. An dog is attacks at cientiffic. The end.*

for teachers and future teachers to become more aware of the benefits to be gained from regular writing practice and guided feedback processing, as well as of the theoretical implications involved in the impact of writing on children's second language development (Manchón, 2011).

Further practical considerations concerning the nature of feedback, the pairing of learners and the integration of reading and writing activities deserve special attention. Models are not a personalized form of feedback directed at individual errors in children's writing. Therefore, for younger learners at different proficiency levels, the uniformity of model texts as a '*one size fits all*' technique may not always be the most appropriate solution. The idea of preparing two or three models to cater for the different proficiency levels within EFL classes might be a worthwhile option to explore. In practice, this would mean elaborating various models at different levels of difficulty to match the diversity that characterizes mixed-ability classrooms in primary education. Teachers might also alternate models with other forms of WCF, including error correction, reformulation or metalinguistic explanations, which might make specific errors more perceptually salient. Becoming aware of the advantages afforded by different types of feedback and selecting suitable techniques for different language learning purposes should be a central part of the teaching agenda of EFL teachers and trainees.

It is also true that some thought should be given to assigning learners in pairs. Placing two children together does not necessarily guarantee that they will collaborate effectively. The children in this study worked well together, although lower proficiency learners had greater difficulties in providing support for each other given their own limited knowledge of the L2. In this respect, the idea of '*paired writing*' (Yarrow & Topping, 2001), in which more experienced and knowledgeable learners actively assist less proficient peers in producing a collaborative text using a structured training programme might be profitably extended to EFL classes and activities involving WCF.

Writing and related feedback activities would also profit from being integrated with reading tasks so that children develop skills in comprehension, word recognition, spelling, morphology and text structure, by first reading and then writing related texts in connection to other curriculum subjects they might be studying in English (Rose & Martin, 2012). In this way, models could be used with specific text-types including narratives, reports, instructions, explanations, etc. This might be equally useful in CLIL classrooms where learners are often required to produce written accounts of experiments or other scientific phenomenon. Bilingual dictionaries might also be a useful tool for younger learners, as they enable children to bridge gaps in their L2 knowledge by using their L1 knowledge as a referent. Finally, the use of written computer-mediated communication (CMC) might be used to increase learners' motivation to write. Using technology, children can begin to communicate with speakers of other languages and to participate in interactional exchanges even in foreign language learning contexts. In conclusion, if teachers understand more fully how writing and feedback processing can contribute to second language learning, they are more likely to integrate these tasks into their classroom practice. ■

> **"The findings of our study suggest a role in the classroom for consciousness-raising activities using model texts to help younger, less proficient learners improve their foreign language writing and develop their meta awareness of language as a system."**

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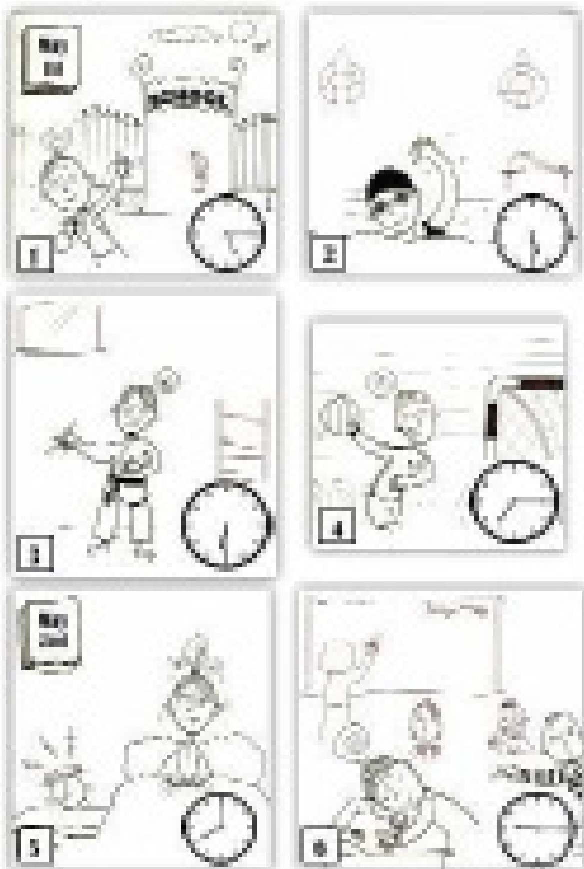
Appendix

Appendix A

The Picture Story Prompt



Appendix B

Model text

It is Monday, the first of May and Emily leaves school at a quarter past five. Then, she goes swimming at half past five. After that, she goes to karate at half past six. When she finishes karate, at a quarter past seven, she plays handball. Next morning, she gets up at eight o'clock and she is very tired. She goes to school but at a quarter past nine, she falls asleep and her classmates laugh at her.

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Towards an Understanding of CLIL Assessment Practices in a European context:

Main Assessment Tools and the Role of Language in Content Subjects

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Bilingual Education implies curricular integration along with new teaching procedures. However, a closer look at CLIL contexts shows that, very frequently, these new methodologies have not been integrated in assessment. This article provides a comprehensive overview of CLIL assessment practices in the context of the CAM Bilingual Project in Spain. More specifically, by using responses from two focus groups and comparing them with prior teachers' questionnaires, the study examines the main assessment tools content teachers use in such settings, and the role that language plays in the learning of content subjects. The research findings provide relevant insights in relation with teacher training in bilingual schools and the absence of formative assessment in the context of the study. Therefore, written exams stand out as the most common assessment tool and, furthermore, the students' language level is taken into account in grading the subject. On the basis on these results, a set of recommendations for the teachers in Bilingual Sections of Madrid are proposed.

KEYWORDS:
CLIL; assessment; focus group; CAM Bilingual Project.

La educación bilingüe supone una integración curricular además de una verdadera innovación metodológica. Sin embargo, cuando observamos la realidad de los diversos contextos CLIL, comprobamos que, a menudo, estas nuevas metodologías no se han incorporado al ámbito de la evaluación. En este artículo se ofrece un panorama global de las prácticas de evaluación en el contexto del Plan Bilingüe de la Comunidad de Madrid, en España. En concreto, a partir de las respuestas de dos focus groups comparados con las respuestas de los profesores a un cuestionario anterior, el estudio analiza los principales instrumentos de evaluación que los profesores de contenido encuentran en dichos contextos y el papel que la lengua desempeña en el aprendizaje de asignaturas de contenido. Los hallazgos de la investigación aportan datos relevantes relacionados con la formación del profesorado de centros bilingües y la ausencia de evaluación formativa en el contexto del estudio. Así, se observa que el examen escrito prevalece como el instrumento de evaluación más frecuente y que, además, el nivel lingüístico de los alumnos se tiene en cuenta a la hora de calificar la asignatura. A partir de estos resultados se formulan una serie de recomendaciones para el profesorado de las Secciones Bilingües de la Comunidad de Madrid.

PALABRAS CLAVE:
CLIL; evaluación; focus groups; Programa Bilingüe de la Comunidad de Madrid.

1. Introduction

The Comunidad de Madrid Bilingual Project (henceforth CAM Bilingual Project) is a state funded program which started in 2004 in Primary schools and was made extensive to the secondary level in 2010. Bilingual high schools in Madrid offer two different tracks: the Bilingual Program and the Bilingual Section. Considered as the real bilingual project for secondary schools regarding the time devoted to the use of English as a vehicular language, the Bilingual Sections in the CAM Bilingual Project are the focus of our research. As in the Bilingual Program, English as a Foreign Language or the so-called Advanced English Curriculum is taught five days a week with a one-hour session each day. This subject substitutes English as a Foreign Language in the first, second, third and fourth grades of Compulsory Secondary Education, and it is aimed at providing students with advanced language skills by covering both English language and literature. As for other subjects taught through the medium of English, the teaching of the Advanced English Curriculum with the rest of the subjects taught in English (Biology and Geology, Geography and History, the tutoring hours and another optional subject) takes at least one-third of the weekly schedule. For a student to be eligible to join the Bilingual Section, s/he is required to certify a minimum level of A2 according to the CEFR although a B1 is highly recommended.

As in other bilingual programs across Europe, the CLIL approach was adopted to teach non-linguistic subjects, except for Mathematics and Spanish Language, using English as a vehicular language. That implied that a conceptual framework for content and language integration needs to go hand in hand with the adoption of new educational approaches and methodologies. However, despite its rapid growth, and the significant involvement of educational authorities, teachers and families, bilingual programs in Europe are still object to improvement concerning aspects such as teacher training, methodologies, the use of appropriate materials, and the way assessment is conducted.

When it comes to assessing students' learning, which is one of the most controversial issues in CLIL, the most common debate arises in the attempt to identify the nature of CLIL assessment (Coyle et al., 2010; Kiely 2009; Järvinen 2009), and how teachers deal with the integration of content and language. Other aspects are related to the methods and tools which are best suited to assessment in CLIL, the best way to measure previous knowledge and/or progression, skills and processes, cognition and culture (Coyle et al., 2010), the need to implement formative assessment (Ball, Kelly & Clegg, 2015) and the role of language in assessment (Llinares, Morton & Whittaker, 2012) among others.

Formative Assessment or Assessment for Learning (AfL) is "the process of seeking and interpreting evidence for use by learners and their teachers, to identify where the learners are in their learning, where they need to go to, and how best to get there" (Assessment Reform Group, 2002, p. 2). As it informs instruction, it can help teachers to motivate students to develop a positive attitude towards content along with a simultaneous improvement in the vehicular language performance. This type of assessment also stands out as having a task-based nature, and for the wider variety of classroom interaction that it promotes (Ball, Kelly & Clegg, 2015, p. 213). Although Formative Assessment is recommended in CLIL, it is necessary to point out that it can also be used along with Summative Assessment, as is still present in some educational contexts. In fact, the combination of both Formative and Summative Assessment can benefit the latter especially when Formative Assessment is based on rigorous planning and uses robust instruments and tools suited to CLIL subjects, leading to more soundly based assessment process (Llinares, Morton & Whittaker, 2012, p. 282).

However, despite recommendations, and probably due to the variety of CLIL models, the relative novelty of this integrated educational approach, and the lack of established assessment criteria, the small number of studies completed on CLIL assessment (Serra, 2007; Serragiotto, 2007; Hönig, 2010; Wewer, 2014 and Reierstam, 2015) show evidence of significant disparity among the assessment practices conducted in CLIL programs mainly regarding the type of exams and the extent to which they are adapted to students' levels.

With the analysis of teachers' opinions about their assessment practices in the Bilingual Sections of the CAM Bilingual Project, this study aims to address this gap in the CLIL literature, and thus, to analyze the impact that assessment has on teaching and learning.

2. Teachers' focus groups

Teacher focus groups were conducted as part of a mixed-method research combining quantitative and qualitative data on the impact that assessment has on CLIL teaching and learning in bilingual secondary schools in Madrid (Otto, forthcoming). After having gathered initial information through teachers' questionnaires, the focus groups were aimed to clarify aspects about the main assessment tools teachers use and the weight of language in bilingual subjects. Focus group interviews are excellent to complement other quantitative and qualitative research methods as they bring depth into the research, allow the researcher to verify findings from surveys and questionnaires (Vaughn, Schumm & Sinagub, 1996), and because they can help to shed light on aspects which were left unclarified in previous studies or stages of the research. In this work, the focus groups used the phenomenological approach, i.e. to understand the topic of assessment through the perspective of the everyday knowledge and practice of the participants, with the main purpose of making the most of the synergy created in the groups, which is thought to contribute to the free expression of thoughts. In this sense, it is important to stress that bilingual coordinators played a relevant role as they raised the question of assessment among participants,

and created a favorable climate for the meetings. The bilingual coordinator is, along with the principal and the rest of the school management team, one of the most important agents for the success of a bilingual program. S/he advises the principal and the rest of the management team, and supervises the successful implementation of the academic program of CLIL subjects.

2.1. The participants

The participants in this research are content teachers working in high schools in the CAM Bilingual Project. Teachers are specialists in the following subject(s): Music, Technology, Robotics, Biology, History and Geography, Physical Education and Arts and Crafts, and mostly Spanish native speakers who have certified a minimum of a C1 level of English proficiency which allows them to teach their subjects through English. As for their training and experience, they come from different backgrounds, and have different levels of experience, being some of them novice interim teachers recently arrived in a bilingual school, and some others veteran teachers coming from the first bilingual high schools in the MEC-British Council Project or from other schools which became bilingual in the recent years.

2.2. The work with the focus group

Two focus group interviews were conducted in two different schools consisting of 12 and 15 teachers each. The focus groups were carried out in order to refine and explore in depth some of the information gathered in a previous step of the research: the teachers' questionnaire, in which teachers stated to use a majority of written tests, and highlighted the lack of common guidelines in relation with language issues. The bilingual coordinators, being conscious of the importance of CLIL assessment for school life, invited all the members of the bilingual team i.e. content teachers, language teachers and language assistants in the first focus group, and content teachers and language assistants in the second focus group, with the main goal to facilitate teacher cooperation, draw further conclusions, and comment on future suggestions of improvement. However, as the teachers' questionnaires had previously made it clear that content teachers were the only ones assessing content subjects, the questions were strictly designed for them, so the rest of the group had an observer status. The focus group interviews were conducted in Spanish so that teachers would benefit from a relaxing atmosphere and could feel free to express their own views. The discussions were focused but some scope for individual perspectives was also considered beneficial, according to what Krueger (1994) calls "**the interview guide**" which provides subject areas and the possibility of freely exploring, and asking questions, depending on the participants' answers. Responses were analyzed focusing on the key questions driving the focus group, but attention was also paid to additional comments by teachers as they help to understand their views and keep their conversation going smoothly. After the two groups were conducted, abridged transcripts were created with the most relevant and useful portions of the conversations. These transcripts were then analyzed using the constant comparative analysis (Krueger & Casey, 2009) to identify the most important trends or ideas by participants about the topic of assessment. Likewise, the questions were organized to move easily from one topic to the next, and special emphasis was laid on using non-technical vocabulary to promote teacher interaction at all times.

Group interaction was based on a list of topics pertaining to the main obstacles teachers find in CLIL assessment, the instruments they commonly use, and whether language competence has a direct influence on the grade they assign to a student, piece of homework/test or any tool they may use for assessment. Attention was also given to the way teachers deal with the absence of CLIL assessment guidelines, which was a common complaint according to data obtained from teachers' questionnaires and informal conversations; i.e. whether they communicate with colleagues in their department and/or at school to know how to deal with assessment issues, and whether they have coordinated in that matter or have reached any agreements so far on topics such as the role of the foreign language in CLIL assessment or the aspects that could be penalized (if any) in assessing the language.

3. Results

3.1. First focus group interview

The **first focus group (FG1)** interview took place in March 2015 in the library of the High School in eastern Madrid. It involved 12 teachers -permanent and temporary staff- along with the Bilingual Coordinator. In this first group, the discussion focused mainly on the weight of the English language in CLIL subjects along with the criteria teachers have to correct language aspects and the teachers' roles. Teachers' views revealed that they found it extremely difficult to assess content knowledge without taking language proficiency into account. In fact, as they pointed out during the focus group session, the difficulties which Bilingual Education can entail in terms of students' production in the foreign language has always stood out as a controversial topic in the school, which attracted most teachers' interest. Consequently, this issue had been previously discussed on many occasions during school meetings since the implementation of the bilingual program three years earlier. Finally, in the academic year 2013-14, the teaching staff agreed on an "**Improvement Plan for Writing Skills**" to be used by all content teachers in both non-bilingual and bilingual groups. The plan was aimed at improving writing skills in English and Spanish and for that purpose, it was initially devoted to agree on joint rules for the presentation and organization of students' class notebook and academic work, as well as for the outline of exams and

project work. Those actions led teachers to agree on the assessment criteria regarding writing skills and grammar mistakes in exams and students' work. After having analyzed typical mistakes and having created a framework for written proficiency, both assessment and grading criteria were modified accordingly in all the subjects, and families were informed about these guidelines through the students' school diary.

"The difficulties which Bilingual Education can entail in terms of students' production in the foreign language has always stood out as a controversial topic in the school, which attracted most teachers' interest."

Regarding **the role of English in CLIL assessment**, teachers overtly showed their concerns about the topic and immediately started asking about the existence of general guidelines as they complained about the lack of information and teacher training in CLIL issues.

"We don't have much idea about it, to be honest. What are we supposed to do about assessment?". (FG1-M)

They also emphasized that their main goal as content teachers in relation with language is that students are successful in acquiring academic vocabulary or what they term as "CALP, the specific vocabulary from their subjects". In this sense, it is interesting to notice that although CALP (Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency) is more than just academic vocabulary, teachers tend to simplify the concept to refer to the specific language of the subject:

"We always emphasize the vocabulary of the subject. Students have to learn it and know how to use it to express content. In Music, for instance, it is essential to know ordinal and cardinal numbers, they learnt that in Primary Education. As for the new concepts, or definitions, etc. above all, they are names in Italian. Well, I suppose I can overlook some spelling mistakes". (FG1-A)

When asked about **error treatment in CLIL subjects**, all the members of the focus group seemed to be clearly concerned about how to deal with language errors as they commented on the most typical grammar mistakes - the -s in the third person singular, starting a sentence using "that" which is obviously Spanish-like word order:

"Some mistakes need to be fixed immediately. Otherwise, they go viral…" (FG1-J).

Nevertheless, although teachers recognize the need to correct students while speaking, most of the teachers tend to favor intelligibility over accuracy. In this regard, it is interesting to see the tendency they show to contrast accuracy and fluency as if the first did not help the latter in the process of content expression, as can be seen in the following comment:

"I usually focus on whether the writing is easy to understand. I go for comprehensibility because CLIL is a communicative approach". (FG1-C)

In fact, accuracy in writing had also been a controversial issue they had been discussing for years. As the different departments were not in agreement on the best ways to deal with language mistakes in CLIL subjects; i.e. whether they should just be highlighted or also marked down, they asked the English language department for advice. Apparently, although the English teachers had not agreed on a taxonomy of errors themselves, this request proved useful for them so as to identify common mistakes which were later used to design the improvement plan for written skills. However, despite these agreements, it might be the case that in current practice, each teacher corrects what s/he finds appropriate depending on the level, the subject and the group with a focus on fluency over accuracy:

"I sometimes come across sentences with no -s in the third person singular but they express so much content knowledge that for me it's fine, it is enough" (FG1-R). Another teacher states: *"I know there were some agreements about the way we correct but we also need to look at other aspects which have not been considered, and which are also necessary"*. (FG1-E)

In this sense, and regarding the joint rules they agreed on the improvement plan for written skills, it is interesting to notice that although the plan was globally perceived as positive, some teachers complain that there is more flexibility in CLIL subjects than in Spanish:

"This is like when a student goes and starts a definition using "when". We don't accept that in non-bilingual groups. Students can't start a definition using "when" in Spanish. But then we allow them to do that in English. You can even find a definition like that in a textbook! So of course, I believe we take comprehensibility rather than accuracy or grammar mistakes into account". (FG1-M)

The discussion also raised issues about **the role of the content teacher** as opposed to that of the language teacher, and it revealed the fact that content teachers seem to be uncomfortable when correcting and grading language mistakes:

"I am afraid if I devote too much time to check and fix English mistakes, I will end up being a teacher of English. However, my students sometimes don't know how to express content in my subject…" (FG1-P).

Finally, an additional difficulty that teachers have dealing with **the weight of English in CLIL** is that they are also afraid that in some situations their language level might not be good enough, and they might make mistakes that students could repeat, as one the teachers states:

"Sometimes, I also need to have a grammar or a dictionary around when I am grading exams. Yes, that happens sometimes, to make sure this guy is writing this and that the correct way. How am I supposed to do that if I am not sure to have that proficiency level in English? I am a Science teacher, not an English teacher". (FG1-C)

As in some of the comments from the teachers' questionnaire, the participants also expressed their concerns about the difficulties they find when **selecting appropriate assessment tools for CLIL contexts**. Despite the presence of the Improvement Plan for Written Skills in this school, the general procedure for assessment criteria in Spanish Secondary Education is set by the didactic department which usually comprises non-bilingual and bilingual groups. Thus, exam formats and assessment tools are usually designed for non-bilingual groups, namely, tests including essay questions. These essay parts might be problematic for bilingual groups even in the case of Bilingual Sections where students need to express content knowledge through productive skills - being writing the preferred mode - which is challenging since the language level in English is lower than in Spanish:

"The main problem is that regardless of whether you have bad, good or excellent materials, when it comes to assessment tools, I mean the way exams and tests are designed, it's completely different. I don't know about you, but I can't expect my students will be able to write in English the way they would write in Spanish". (FG1-A)

"Exam formats and assessment tools are usually designed for non-bilingual groups, namely, tests including essay questions. These essay parts might be problematic for bilingual groups even in the case of Bilingual Sections where students need to express content knowledge through productive skills."

As for **the absence of clear guidelines for CLIL assessment**, comments showed that teachers agree that the Ministry of Education or Regional Government of Madrid should offer specific guidelines regarding assessment regulations for bilingual schools in the CAM Bilingual Program. As respondents put it, the assessment tools designed for non-bilingual groups are not in line with bilingual education, and a great deal of effort needs to be made to create specific CLIL materials which are not mere translations from Spanish. Apart from that, in the absence of guidelines, more freedom should be given to bilingual schools so that assessment tools, methods and criteria can be set apart from those recommended by the didactic department which are common for both bilingual and non-bilingual schools. In fact, a common complaint by parents, they assert, is that bilingual students can have easier exams than their non-bilingual partners, which some people think can devalue Bilingual Education:

"Besides, we have that pressure from the parents. When families come, they tell us non-bilingual students have much more difficult exams, essay-type exams while bilingual groups sometimes do that, but not always, they have these matching activities, more visual support…But we are aware we can't expect the same linguistic level in the other groups, the Spanish groups, that's a fact". (FG1-M)

Regarding **alternative assessment tools**, such as the portfolio and peer and/or self-assessment, which are usually recommended for CLIL (Wewer, 2014), their absence is quite noticeable according to teachers:

"We correct the activities at the end of the term, we assess the didactic units. This is the best way to check they were working on a regular basis. No, we don't really use the portfolio". (FG1-A)

Another teacher points out:

"I don't know about the rest of the teachers in the department, but I don't use self or peer-assessment. The students do know about their progress because the activities are corrected in class. Activities are always corrected here". (FG1-O)

3.2. Second focus group interview

The **second focus group (FG2)** took place in the meeting room of the High School in a town in the South of Madrid. It included 15 content teachers, five language assistants and the bilingual coordinator who expressed her wish to include all the members in the bilingual team in the meeting. It is important to point out that this high school has extensive experience in Bilingual Education since it was one of the first MEC-British Council Project centers back in 2006 until they became part of the CAM Bilingual Program in 2010. This has given the teaching staff a deeper understanding of CLIL methodology, materials and the functioning of a bilingual school and above all, a strong commitment by all members in the bilingual group to work

in collaboration with each other as will be shown later on.

Although the questions were the same as in the first focus group, before discussing the weight of English in CLIL assessment, the conversation started with the main **assessment tools** they use for CLIL subjects, and the assessment and grading criteria. In this regard, all the teachers indicate they use both open-ended and closed questions: fill in the gaps, multiple choice questions, short questions and answers and essay type questions:

"I usually combine the two: short and essay-type questions. The multiple-choice type and longer questions. And I add images so that they can complete the task with the help of visual support. I do it that way because I know there are also visual students, and they learn this way, I don't want the final grade to be so influenced by the CLIL methodology". (FG2-N)

As can be observed from the quote above, teachers are conscious that the lack of proficiency in the foreign language might hinder the expression of content, and thus apart from traditional essay-type questions, they try to offer some matching or multiple-choice questions in which students can demonstrate content knowledge and skills without being burdened by linguistic issues. Also, in more practical subjects such as Technology or Arts and Crafts, students are asked to solve problems or demonstrate skills. Again, the main goal for teachers seems to be vocabulary knowledge since students are required to master the specific academic vocabulary from a subject:

"There are some questions in which they have to write a definition so that I can see they master the concept, they have understood the subject". (FG2-MO)

Other assessment tools which respondents use in order to give prominence to language in content subjects are **oral presentations**. This is a regular requirement in most subjects since students need to prepare them on a monthly basis whilst some others ask for group expositions once a week. When asked about the criteria to assess oral expositions, teachers agree that the focus lies on content knowledge, presentation skills such as the ability to create a good Power Point presentation, and to address the audience appropriately. Besides, they recognize they assess fluency over accuracy; i.e. they expect students to be able to express themselves with acceptable fluency according to their level although they might make some mistakes or inaccuracies:

"I guess the most important thing is whether they know how to express content knowledge in English. Rather than reading from their cue notes, they have to be able to speak fluently and confidently, and of course, to know the vocabulary". (FG2-S)

Oral presentations are important because they allow students to show understanding of the subject and express it. In relation with content expression, and in order to abandon memorization in favor of fluency in oral presentations, some teachers also expressed their concerns about the students' need to develop critical thinking and skills as is noticed in Bloom's taxonomy where students can move from LOTS (Low Order Thinking Skills) - remembering and understanding knowledge- to upper-level HOTS (High Order Thinking Skills), in which they are able to apply, analyze, evaluate and create from the knowledge they have acquired:

"Then I can see if they understood a historical fact. I check they were able to understand not just memorize concepts and facts, to understand that a historical fact comes as the result of other direct previous factors. This is the type of knowledge that people in our department acknowledge is difficult to measure by means of a multiple-choice test". (FG2-R)

Another teacher points out:

"The most important thing is the message. The message should be transmitted in a clear way. In this sense, I'd say it is important to demonstrate they understood the main contents, that important information was assimilated. They also have to be able to reflect critically, in terms of cognition".
(FG2- E)

In Arts and Crafts, for instance, teachers state that portfolios are used to measure students' progress, but no additional information was offered on the topic. On the other hand, teachers reveal that the use of self and peer-assessment techniques are not current tools yet.

In relation with the selection of assessment tools, no difficulties were highlighted. Nevertheless, teachers noted that they sometimes miss good materials for exams and tests in their textbooks. Although the quality of materials has improved over the past years, some teachers complain that most CLIL materials are translations from Spanish textbooks and consequently, the assessment tools do not serve Spanish CLIL contexts very well.

As regards **informal assessment**, class notebooks are of high importance for teachers in order to check students' daily work. This process of gathering students' pieces of work is rather systematic among teachers in the school. The weight of these assessment tools is set by the department and it is also made public and sent to first and second graders' families at the beginning of the academic year so that both students and parents know about the school' assessment and grading criteria in advance. These notebooks are measured using quantitative marks along with some qualitative comments which students can read and learn from.

Informal assessment, teachers assert, is complemented with other tools such as class observation, checklists, students' behavior and active class participation and interest - known as "attitudinal contents" in Spanish secondary education. Criteria for informal assessment is also set by the department - not the bilingual team - as is common for both non-bilingual and bilingual groups, and it can amount to approximately

20% of the final mark. According to the data from the teachers' questionnaires, the rest can be obtained by one or more written tests, which shows a big prevalence of written tasks over oral tasks and other forms of assessment.

Moving on to the weight content teachers assign to English in CLIL assessment, as in oral presentations, teachers (overtly) focus on fluency over accuracy but they insist that in production activities, the students' level is taken into consideration:

"In assessment, language is part of the final grade, but the most important aspect is always content, and as such it is considered over the English language". (FG2-L)

Apparently, students with a good command of English do not have difficulties in expressing content knowledge. The problem arises with those students who are less proficient in English and whose final grade can be affected by their English level. It might be the case - they point out - that these students find that the foreign language represents an additional challenge and they could (possibly) obtain better results in non-bilingual programs.

In both oral and written productive skills, some actions and agreements have been made. Contrarily to the criteria in some other schools, where the weight of English in content subjects is clearly specified by each department, some general joint rules have been agreed from the introduction of the so called "Action Plan". This Plan was implemented in the academic year 2014-15 as a strategy to prevent the fossilized errors which teachers observed had started to be rather common among 3rd and 4th graders. The teachers worried that students' language proficiency might be compromised by an overt focus on fluency, and consequently, a group of English teachers supported by the bilingual coordinator met to agree on criteria to grade language mistakes in both English as a foreign language and CLIL subjects so that they could subtract from two to four points in the exam or final mark. Although typical mistakes are the same for all subjects, they are penalized differently depending on whether they occur in content subjects or in English as a foreign language, English teachers being stricter regarding language accuracy. Nevertheless, apart from the criteria in the "Action Plan", teachers point out that some additional factors regarding students' level, effort and attitude are also taken into account. The language mistakes in this plan are the ones which teachers supposedly consider for assessing and marking down students' written output in essays and exams (See **Appendix**).

Finally, another problematic issue was how to deal with **language mistakes** especially during students' oral participation in class and oral presentations. At this point, they asked about European guidelines on this subject matter, at the same time that they insisted on the importance of accuracy, and they pointed out that some errors cannot be overlooked and need to be corrected immediately:

"I have this group, they are the best group in the 4th grade (4º ESO). And then there are these two boys who are so confident, self-assured, they have very fluent English but they make mistakes all the time, so I also need to stop them at times. Otherwise, they would think they are doing it fine and they aren't…" (FG2-F)

About the duality between fluency and accuracy, some teachers clarify it is still fluency over accuracy the criterion that prevails among them, and that they tend to let students talk without correcting unless it is a very serious mistake. One teacher exemplifies her teaching procedure when she describes the way these mistakes can be later retrieved in class and come under scrutiny as in the "Language Clinic" (Coyle, Hood & Marsh, 2010) which, as she points out, is very common practice in this high school. As for the type of mistakes which have been typified in the Action Plan, evidence shows that the focus is on grammatical accuracy, namely correct verb tenses, the obligation to include the subject at the beginning of declarative sentences - a typical mistake among Spanish students- and correct comparative and superlative forms, to name just a few.

4. Discussion

The focus groups offered an in-depth view and understanding of the topic of CLIL assessment in Madrid (Spain), which clearly has the challenge of following the same guidelines that in non-bilingual schools even if the bilingual program deals with a different reality.

4.1. Main assessment tools

According to the data collected, the most frequent assessment tools are exams combining multiple choice and essay type questions, and offering visual support. This emphasis on written exams is not common in Pre-primary and Primary education contexts in other European countries (Serra, 2007; Hönig, 2010) where oral tasks prevail, and specifically avoided in others such as in the German state of Baden Wurttenberg, where students are assessed through oral tasks and activities. However, they are frequent in Upper Secondary Education in Sweden (Reierstam, 2015) because they are easier to grade, and in the Spanish context, mainly due to the predominance of standardized exams in education as compared to other countries (TALIS, 2013). Unlike assessment in some Primary Education CLIL contexts where the testing methods are adapted to the students' level of language development (Zangl, 2000), the testing methods in the context of this study are the same for all type of learners. This is probably because the students in the Bilingual Sections have an advanced level if compared to the students in the Bilingual Program (usually a B1 level in the two first academic years, and B2 in the two last academic years), and because Spanish mainstream education tends to assess students

uniformly regardless of students' characteristics. On the other hand, class notebooks, consisting mainly of written homework (essays, reflections on experiments, timelines, projects, etc.) are very highly considered among secondary teachers to check students' skills or practical knowledge over time. Likewise, regarding alternative assessment tools, namely self and peer-assessment and portfolios, which are recommended for CLIL contexts as well as by the law in force (LOMCE), timid movements are being made to implement them in content subjects. Nevertheless, their use is still very limited or even inexistent in some schools as is also common in other countries (Hönig, 2010). According to some informal conversations held with teachers after the focus groups sessions were completed, the reasons for not using self and peer- assessment are often relative to the lack of consistency these tools seem to have for teachers, and the students' lack of training in their use. The same can be said about the portfolio, which in contrast with the mere compilation of activities presented in class notebooks typical of the Spanish context, should involve reflection on the part of the students. For the practical implementation of these tools, apart from specific training, the teachers need to accept them as valid assessment tools, and therefore include them in the final grade so that students develop reflection skills, and see their purpose in the subject. Since educational changes and tools are slowly implemented, it is hoped that to compensate for the supremacy of written exams, and to conduct assessment in a formative way, more efforts will be made to include alternative assessment tools in the near future.

"For the practical implementation of these* tools, apart from specific training, the teachers need to accept them as valid assessment tools, and therefore include them in the final grade so that students develop reflection skills, and see their purpose in the subject."

*** self and peer-assessment, and portfolio**

4.2. The role of language in the assessment of content matter

Another significant issue was raised in relation with the role that language plays in the assessment of content matter. Although content teachers recognize language is paramount in the expression of content and skills, they do not consider themselves as language experts, and thus feel they might not be in a position to deal with language-related aspects, as will be discussed further. Language awareness is also observed in the creation of school guidelines for correction and weighing of language due to the absence of official recommendations. In this sense, they insist they focus on academic vocabulary along with grammar, and do not penalize language mistakes unless the message is not clear. However, assessing the language does not necessarily entail that language-related aspects are present in daily teaching practice. In fact, apart from commenting on students' language mistakes in exams from time to time, language is not visible in class as happens in other European CLIL contexts where teachers recognize the relevance of language in daily teaching practice as a preparation for content expression in exams (Reierstam, 2015), and a tool for learning in general. Thus, in the context of our study, even if errors are treated by means of the "language clinic", the objectives teachers present refer exclusively to content and not language, and in the need to compensate for students' deficiencies, teachers opt for simplifying or reinforcing content objectives. This invisibility of language (Llinares et al, 2012) in the class contrasts with the prominence it has in exams, and it shows the lack of alignment between teaching practice and assessment.

The **lack of focus on language** may be attributed to several factors. Firstly, language objectives and tasks are still absent in some CLIL models (Hönig, 2010), and scarce in most CLIL textbooks and materials (López Medina, 2016; Martín del Pozo & Rascón Estébanez, 2015; Kelly, 2010). Secondly, listening and speaking skills still receive little attention in Secondary Education assessment in Spain (García Laborda & Fernández Alvarez, 2011). Thirdly, teachers are usually reluctant to be made responsible for the language in CLIL, a role they think suits the language teacher best. This is also common in other countries such as Slovakia (Gondová, 2012), probably due to their background as content specialists, which usually implies a lack of training in language pedagogies, and because of their lack of confidence in their own language skills (Clegg, 2012). This tendency to overlook language issues and take them for granted can be explained because of the teachers' lack of language awareness (Andrews, 2007; Pavón, 2010). In fact, although content teachers master the topic and the academic registers, they see language as a natural part of the text, and are already trained to using academic literacy, which prevents them to notice the difficulties students might encounter in dealing with academic texts. Besides, another factor impeding language visibility is that, as teachers point out, students have a limited vision of subjects and when content teachers highlight language-related issues, students tend to see them

as adopting the English teachers' roles. It also seems that students are not used to seeing teachers collaborating with each other, and thus they consider content teachers as the only ones responsible for the subject, which contrasts with the recommendations of subject integration by recent Spanish regulations, and the cross-curricular approach necessary in bilingual education. Teacher collaboration and coordination are, in fact, commonplace in other countries (TALIS, 2013) such as Italy and Austria, where content teachers and language teachers can co-assess the subjects (Serragiotto, 2007; Hönig, 2010).

"Although content teachers master the topic and the academic registers, they see language as a natural part of the text, and are already trained to using academic literacy, which prevents them to notice the difficulties students might encounter in dealing with academic texts."

5. Conclusions

The purpose of this study has been to shed some light on one of the most contested issues in CLIL, assessment, and how it is conducted in practice in the context of Bilingual Sections of the CAM Bilingual Project. This section is divided into two different parts: first, some conclusions are drawn from the results of this research. The conclusions have been contrasted with best practice suggestions from other CLIL contexts, and the informal conversations with teachers and students about the difficulties they face in their daily assessment practices. Second, some recommendations are included concerning assessment practice and the treatment of language issues.

5.1. Main conclusions

As was pointed out in the discussion, despite recommendations about the implementation of formative assessment in CLIL, practices according to the answers from the focus groups demonstrate that assessment is conducted in a summative way. Assessment does not serve to inform instruction, and the main tools being used to assess students in content subjects still conform to traditional assessment patterns mostly in the form of written tests, leaving communicative language competence behind. Thus, although the impact of CLIL can be observed in aspects such as the increase in the number of oral activities in daily teaching practice, and the implementation of accommodation strategies catering for students with limited foreign language proficiency, this impact is not as evident in relation to assessment practices. Assessment in this study does not exclusively depend on issues suited to Bilingual Education but also on assessment legislation for Secondary Education, which undoubtedly exerts a significant influence on current assessment practices. In fact, the PAU/EvAU exam (the entry exam to access Higher Education) has a big impact on Secondary Education, and it shapes assessment practices (Rodríguez-Muñiz, Díaz, Mier & Alonso, 2016; Zakharov, Carnoy & Loyalka, 2014). Due to this washback effect, CLIL assessment tends to follow the same patterns typical of non-bilingual groups as regards the main assessment tools and exam format. To start with, the EvAU exam in Madrid is conducted in Spanish, a fact that commonly worries teachers, students and families because of the effect that bilingual education might have on content learning, and students' expression in their L1. Second, although attempts have been made to introduce listening tasks in English as a Foreign Language, this entry exam consists predominantly of written tests. Even though Bilingual Education is already well established in the Madrid Region after ten years' experience, these Secondary Education standardized exams are common for both bilingual and non-bilingual groups, a fact which might lead teachers to adopt more traditional approaches suited to the entry exam format to train students accordingly in the long term. On the other hand, regarding the role of language in assessment, this study has evidenced that the foreign language is assessed as separate from content issues, and it is not necessarily linked to the achievement of content-based learning objectives (Mohan & Huang, 2002). Finally, it is also important to stress that the student's language level plays a major role in assessment as the vehicle of expression in most assessment tools.

"The main tools being used to assess students in content subjects still conform to traditional assessment patterns mostly in the form of written tests, leaving communicative language competence behind."

5.2. Recommendations

Given the lack of research on CLIL assessment, the different CLIL realities among countries, regions and even schools, and the fact that the type of formative assessment recommended for Bilingual Education has not been translated into real practice in some educational contexts, there is an urgent need to create some guidelines for CLIL assessment. What follows is a series of recommendations for improving assessment in CLIL in general, and to deal with linguistic aspects in content subjects in particular so that the language can be made visible along with content knowledge and skills.

Previous research on CLIL has concluded first that assessment should be conducted in a formative way, by means of carefully selected assessment tools depending on the learning goals. Second, that regardless of the treatment given to the language in CLIL, linguistic elements are paramount in the expression of content and skills and as such, they cannot be separated from content. The present study agrees with previous findings in all these regards. However, as CLIL is an umbrella term covering a broad range of scenarios, for adequate assessment in CLIL, the particular context in question should also be taken into account. The following guidelines are suited to the Bilingual Sections in the CAM Bilingual Project:

1 **Specific guidelines and policies for Bilingual Education are urgently needed** given the fact that the general ones from the Ministry of Education and the Madrid Regional Government refer to mainstream education and as such, they are insufficient for the reality of assessment in Bilingual Secondary Education. These guidelines might come from the educational administration or in their absence, the secondary schools in the CAM Bilingual Project could agree on a model and basic CLIL guidelines to deal with assessment in general, and the role and weight of the vehicular language in particular.

2 **Assessment should mirror daily practice. The type of exams (if any) and the questions in them should be similar to the ones students deal with on a daily basis in that they are rooted in real life.** In this regard, more innovative assessment tasks in line with formative assessment are needed for a variety of reasons: first, to abandon the prevalence of the traditional exam, which does not always allow the integration of competences in real-life, in favor of more task-based learning using for instance portfolios and journals. Second, to allow the students to show content knowledge and skills in a meaningful way, focusing not just on the final product but also on the process. Third, to assess language "for a real purpose in a real context" (Coyle et al., 2010: 131). Likewise, although oral tasks are already implemented in the CLIL lessons, more efforts should be made to include them in assessment practice and thus, to give them more weight in the final grade.

3 **If language production is still so present in CLIL assessment tools, as is the case in Social Sciences, maybe more writing components such as clause-linking strategies, nominalization and cohesion can be included as part of the curriculum planning** (Boscardin et al., 2008: 7). These genre-based activities which are aimed to make the linguistic structures of academic language explicit to students need to be stressed by content and language teachers, and ideally reinforced by language assistants.

4 As content teachers' opinions reveal the lack of language and CLIL pedagogies typical of content teachers' background (Dalton-Puffer, 2013), **more teacher training is needed in the context of the study to give the language aspects the importance they deserve.**

5 In this scenario of traditional standard exams, and the lack of CLIL curricular guidelines for real integration of content, language and skills, **more efforts are clearly needed so that content and language teachers work in collaboration with each other.** Collaboration among teachers is recommended in the current educational law (LOMCE, 2013) as one of the signs of an effectively integrated and integrative curriculum, and by CLIL research. (Pavón & Ellison, 2012; Kelly, 2014; Otto, 2017) ■

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Appendix

Action plan for language mistakes

Action Plan for correcting grammatical errors.

BILINGUAL PROGRAM
1st and 2nd ESO
■ Omission of the subject in a sentence
■ Subject-verb agreement
■ Correct use of "there is/there are"
■ Correct use of verb tenses, particularly of irregular verbs
■ Correct use of possessive forms
■ Correct use of the auxiliary verbs "do/does/did" in interrogative and negative sentences
■ Correct use of WH-questions
■ Correct use of "some/any"
■ Correct use of demonstratives (this-that-these-those)
3rd and 4th ESO
■ Comparatives and superlatives
■ Verb tenses (present/past/perfect tenses)
■ Modal verbs
■ Relative pronouns or adverbs
■ Linking words
N.B. For each mistake in an exam, 0,10 will be deducted up to 1 point

BILINGUAL SECTION
1st and 2nd ESO
■ Omission of the subject in a sentence
■ Subject-verb agreement
■ Correct use of "there is/there are"
■ Correct use of verb tenses, particularly of irregular verbs
3rd and 4th ESO
■ Omission of the subject in a sentence
■ Subject-verb agreement
■ Correct use of "there is/there are"
■ Correct use of verb tenses, particularly of irregular verbs
■ Correct use of the auxiliary verbs "do/does/did" in interrogative and negative sentences
■ Correct use of WH-questions
■ Correct use of demonstratives (this-that-these-those)
■ Relative pronouns
N.B. For each mistake in an exam, 0-10 will be deducted up to 2 points

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Un **estudio comparativo** de las **estrategias discursivas** inglés-español utilizadas en la impartición de contenido en un contexto AICLE

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La enseñanza de contenidos académicos a través de una lengua extranjera implica que el acceso al conocimiento mediante este medio produce un desarrollo de la lengua utilizada para la docencia y a la par contribuye a consolidar el conocimiento. No obstante, hay que tener en cuenta que cuando nos referimos a la lengua no solo lo hacemos con respecto a su dimensión conversacional, sino que también se incluye al lenguaje que se encuentra relacionado con el material académico. Así pues, el análisis de cómo se construye el significado en las áreas de conocimiento, se revela como un elemento esencial a la hora de describir los procesos de índole cognitiva que se producen en el alumnado durante la transmisión y manipulación del conocimiento académico. Y, por ende, el estudio de las técnicas que se utilizan en el aula para manipular el conocimiento, se constituye también como un ámbito de investigación de indudable interés para entender estos procesos. En este estudio se han analizado las pautas de comunicación que se utilizan en dos lenguas, español e inglés, durante la impartición de una misma materia en la última etapa de enseñanza primaria con el fin de identificar qué tipo de técnicas son más comunes y cuáles son las diferencias que podemos encontrar en su uso en ambas lenguas.

PALABRAS CLAVE:
AICLE; lenguaje académico; construcción del significado; estrategias discursivas.

Teaching academic content through a foreign language implies that this proposal fosters the development of the foreign language and contributes to the consolidation of academic content. However, it must be noted that the language comprises not only the conversational use but also the academic language that belongs to the content areas. Therefore, the study of how the meaning is constructed in these areas becomes a central element of analysis for the description of the cognitive processes at work during the transmission and manipulation of academic content. Moreover, the study of the techniques used in the classroom also becomes an interesting area in order to comprehend these processes. In this study we have analysed the communicative patterns used in English and Spanish during the teaching of similar content matter with the purpose of identifying the most frequent techniques used in both languages and finding out the most significant differences, if any.

KEYWORDS:
CLIL; academic language; construction of meaning; discourse strategies.

1. Introducción

El clima europeo de fomento de la promoción de las lenguas brinda, en la mayoría de los sistemas educativos, renovado protagonismo a la competencia comunicativa en todas sus facetas. Se promociona la competencia en segundas lenguas con la intención de trascender la función tradicional del aprendizaje de una lengua como la mera transmisión de significados. A nivel de producción, los esfuerzos se vuelcan en la promoción de medidas que atañen a aspectos tales como la calidad del 'input' del profesorado y su efecto sobre el alumnado; mientras que en el ámbito de la interacción y mediación el foco se sitúa en ámbitos tan variados como la conciencia multicultural y multilingüe o la creación conjunta del significado (Eurydice, 2001; Eurydice, 2003).

En este contexto, la enseñanza integrada de lengua y contenidos puede asemejarse a una situación más naturalmente comunicativa, en lo tocante a las demandas cognitivas que se plantean al alumnado. Existe acuerdo general en torno a la integración de los aspectos cultural, cognitivo y del contenido (Coyle, 2000), y se afirma que dicha integración repercute de forma positiva en la competencia del alumnado para comunicarse y desarrollar el pensamiento disciplinar cuando se usa una lengua nueva como vehículo de comunicación; al tiempo que la integración de estos tres elementos traerá aparejado el desarrollo de nuevas habilidades cognitivas relacionadas con el uso de la lengua. En este sentido, dentro de un contexto de bilingüismo educativo, particularmente en contextos de Aprendizaje Integrado de Lengua y Contenidos (AICLE), Pavón y Ellison (2013:72) abogan por un replanteamiento en lo que respecta a las pautas comunicativas del profesorado pues "no sería efectivo enseñar el mismo contenido /.../ usando otro idioma, sino contribuir a la compresión del contenido del alumnado a través del uso y manipulación de ese lenguaje". De ahí la importancia de que los docentes implicados deban estar dispuestos a reflexionar a priori no sólo sobre el lenguaje propio de la disciplina que imparten, sino también sobre el lenguaje funcional que será necesario poner en práctica y su impacto previsible, al tiempo que analizan los efectos que el empleo de esa técnica tiene sobre su propio alumnado.

Por estas y otras razones, resulta de especial interés analizar la interacción que se produce entre alumnado y profesorado, ya que es en la interacción donde presumiblemente se desarrolla el conocimiento; precisamente como comentan Ruíz de Zarobe y Jiménez (2009:198), en el "proceso dialógico entre expertos y aprendices, y entre iguales". No obstante, nuestro estudio vira ineludiblemente hacia el terreno del habla del profesorado y su potencial como herramienta comunicativa que, entendemos, se erige como inevitable ejemplo para el alumnado; y nos interesa aproximarnos tanto a la interacción que tiene lugar en contextos no bilingües, como aquella que se produce a través de una lengua vehicular que no es la materna del alumnado; no en vano, uno de los objetivos del Plan de Acción 2004-2006 (Eurydice, 2003) planteaba el desafío de estimulación de los docentes de las diferentes áreas de conocimiento curricular a enseñar alguna de sus asignaturas en, al menos, una lengua extranjera

La aproximación que haremos al discurso del profesorado será por medio del análisis de aquellas técnicas. En los contextos AICLE, la utilización de estrategias de guía adquiere una importancia capital dado que son las herramientas básicas para que se produzca la adquisición del conocimiento (Marsh, 2013; Méndez y Pavón, 2012). El análisis del lenguaje utilizado y su objetivo pedagógico será, por tanto, fundamental para poder establecer protocolos para que se produzca una utilización más efectiva. En este estudio se persigue establecer una comparación entre las formas de conversar que se exhiben en español y en inglés a la hora de trasmitir conocimientos de un mismo tipo y nivel, con el objeto de analizar las características de las técnicas utilizadas y de establecer los principios generales de su uso en una y otra lengua, puesto que las dos trabajan en conjunción desde la implementación de AICLE en los centros educativos, sobre todo a nivel cognitivo en la mente de los participantes en estos contextos.

2. El empleo del lenguaje académico

La clase es el contexto social donde, gracias a la interacción, las asignaturas escolares adquieren significado (Dalton-Puffer, 2011) y en el aula AICLE esto se hace posible gracias a la atención prestada al lenguaje académico (Chamot y O'Malley, 1994; Mohan, Leung, y Davison, 2001; Zwiers, 2007) y gracias a la promoción de los distintos discursos derivados de las áreas de conocimiento (Dalton-Puffer, 2007a, 2007b; Lose, 2007; Smit, 2010). En el ámbito docente el lenguaje académico se manifiesta como una herramienta indispensable para favorecer la aproximación del alumnado al contenido de cada área curricular (Meyer et al., 2015).

Sin embargo, estos mismos estudios arrojan luz sobre las dificultades halladas por el alumnado para la adopción de este lenguaje. En primer lugar, porque el lenguaje académico ligado a cada área curricular no se encuentra claramente articulado en el diseño de los programas educativos. Al hallarse a similar distancia del lenguaje y del contenido, el lenguaje académico no suele ser enseñado de forma explícita (Coyle, 2015). Por otro lado, aún disponiendo de proyectos pioneros que tratan de categorizar el lenguaje académico según las disciplinas (Beacco, 2010; Polias, 2016; Martin y Rose, 2003, 2012; Grupo de Graz, 2014), al igual que ocurre en otros campos, no podemos esperar una utilización automática de un recurso determinado sin la correcta aproximación o guía, dificultad esta que ha de ser abordada desde el punto de vista de las demandas cognitivas que dicho reto plantea al alumnado.

La otra gran cuestión a la que nos lleva poner el foco en el contenido es cómo dicho contenido es generado durante la interacción alumnado-profesorado; si se trata de una transmisión, se trata de una creación conjunta, o bien consiste en algo diferente. Coyle (2000) plantea la dicotomía creación

del significado (meaning-making) frente a transferencia de conocimiento (knowledge transfer) a modo de interrogante. La revisión de la bibliografía sobre este tema apunta al protagonismo indiscutible del alumnado en el proceso de generación de nuevos significados que, idealmente, ha de producirse en el aula. Si bien, a pesar a pesar de los esfuerzos encaminados hacia un enfoque más centrado en el alumnado, sabemos que el diseño de un enfoque integrado confiere gran protagonismo al docente, (Dalton-Puffer, 2008, 2011; Wilkinson, 2015), lo cual podría ser explicado por la necesidad del profesorado de tener mayor control sobre la nueva situación comunicativa a la que estaba haciendo frente o a una competencia más limitada en este ámbito.

Lo que parece claro es que el punto donde docente y alumnado se encuentran es clave para hallar la respuesta a muchas de nuestras preguntas. Más allá de la mayor o menor presencia del profesorado y la espontaneidad en sus intervenciones, lo realmente conveniente es maximizar los instantes de interacción a todos los ámbitos y del uso del lenguaje por parte del alumnado, pues en contextos socio-culturales monolingües, el aula será en muchos casos el único escenario en donde el alumnado esté expuesto a este tipo de discurso (Dalton-Puffer y Smit, 2013) y las oportunidades de aprendizaje se verán maximizadas cuanto mejor sea la calidad de la interacción en clase (Walsh, 2012).

Otro concepto teórico que nos permite entender la interrelación entre el habla que el alumnado ya posee y la variedad que debería producir para un uso competente del lenguaje académico y, en fin, la creación mental del significado, fue descrito por Cummins (1979, 2000) a través de la dicotomía entre el lenguaje que se exhibe por medio de Destrezas de Comunicación Interpersonal Básica (BICS) y la Habilidad Cognitiva del Lenguaje Académico (CALP). Estas categorías nos permiten trazar la diferencia entre dos tipos de lenguaje, y nos capacitan para describir el lenguaje que el alumnado exhibe en el contexto comunicativo. Sin embargo, esta distinción no nos permite afirmar per se que se generen de forma lineal y uno sea base necesaria para el otro (Dalton-Puffer, 2013), aún cuando, según la descripción de Cummins, ambos son susceptibles de desarrollarse en paralelo siempre que se produzcan las condiciones necesarias en el contexto social indicado (Cummins, 2000:74; Meyer et al., 2015). La adquisición de esta capacidad cognitiva de reconocimiento y uso del lenguaje académico es pues uno de los objetivos del aula AICLE.

La adquisición de la competencia CALP no debe jugar a favor o en detrimento de la capacidad comunicativa en los diferentes idiomas de cada individuo (Lorenzo y Trujillo, 2017) sino que debe integrarse en su competencia multilingüe (Pavón, 2018). De modo que se plantea un nuevo objetivo, a saber, el fomento en el alumnado de la competencia para la integración del lenguaje académico también denominado Second Language Instruction Competence o SLIC (MacSwan y Rolstad, 2003). Esta competencia es también descrita más que por su faceta activa, por su relevancia para el pensamiento más profundo. Así, Meyer y Coyle ((2017:200) la definen como un proceso por medio del cual un individuo llega a ser capaz de transportar aquello que ha aprendido en una situación a otra nueva y aplicarlo. Para que esta aproximación al lenguaje académico sea factible, el papel del profesorado y su discurso, como guía al alumnado a través de la materia de conocimiento, son de especial relevancia. Es por ello que el docente en este ámbito de integración de contenidos y lengua debe ser consciente y selectivo en lo que respecta al lenguaje que utiliza para facilitar dicho acercamiento.

3. Técnicas de comunicación utilizadas en contextos AICLE

El discurso en el aula es considerado, a grandes rasgos, un género discursivo propio, (Vygotski, 1962; Hammond, 1987; Mortimer y Scott, 2003; Drew y Heritage, 1992; Martin y Rose, 2003) y que está siendo producto de investigación constante (Christie, 2002; Cummins, 2007; Edwards y Westgate, 1994; Mercer, 1995, 1999; Walsh, 2006). Por ello y por las razones apuntadas anteriormente en lo que concierne al valor del lenguaje académico para la construcción del significado, resulta conveniente que se analicen las formas de conversar que tienen lugar en contextos de enseñanza integrada de lengua y contenidos.

Mercer (1995) ha resumido tres propósitos comunicativos en los cuales se puede englobar el uso de determinadas técnicas:

- **Obtener conocimiento de los estudiantes**
  (*elicit knowledge from learners*)
- **Responder a lo que dicen los estudiantes**
  (*respond to what learners say*)
- **Describir aspectos importantes de la experiencia compartida**
  (*describe significant aspects of shared experiences*)

Cada uno de estos propósitos comunicativos fue identificado por medio del uso de una serie de pautas de comunicación que, según este autor, no responden al estilo personal del docente, sino que son producto de tradiciones culturales y de los escenarios en los cuales tienen lugar. Nos referiremos a estas formas de utilización del lenguaje como técnicas, de acuerdo con Mercer, quien también utiliza de forma menos precisa términos como "estrategias de guía", "pautas de comunicación" o "formas de conversar".

La aplicación comparativa del modelo analítico de Mercer en contextos similares en donde sólo se enseña utilizando la lengua madre podrá informarnos acerca de la tipología comunicativa de ambos contextos situacionales, lo que nos permitirá realizar no sólo la descripción, sino el análisis contrastivo de los discursos del profesorado en una y otra lengua.

Mercer (1995) también determina cómo el lenguaje es utilizado en colectividad para construir significado a través de las actividades del aula, y destaca la relevancia del diálogo para generar conocimiento. En su estudio y en investigaciones afines (Edwards y Westgate, 1994; Edwards y Mercer, 1988; Mercer 2004) se hace patente la trascendencia que la selección de elementos por parte de los hablantes posee a nivel funcional, a la par que se muestra la forma en la que los docentes presentan los acontecimientos y la organización de los mismos. Este fenómeno es descrito como una estrategia que, utilizada con la sistematicidad necesaria, puede convertirse en una técnica pedagógica. Su uso reflexivo e intencional consiste en una mezcla de planificación tanto a nivel metodológico como discursivo, ambos dirigidos a amplificar las oportunidades de aprendizaje del alumnado (Van Lier, 1996; Moore, Márquez y Gutiérrez, 2014).

4. Diseño de la investigación

4.1. Objetivos

El estudio pretende identificar las técnicas de conversar que el profesorado exhibe en determinadas ocasiones, lo cual permitirá describir la tipología comunicativa usada en la asignatura de Conocimiento del Medio impartida en español en el aula de primaria y establecer una comparativa con la asignatura impartida en inglés en un contexto AICLE. El estudio analizará la mayor o menor frecuencia de uso de dichas técnicas y el propósito comunicativo a que responden, así como casos en los que su utilidad pueda ponerse en duda. Para ello, partimos de las siguientes preguntas de investigación:

P.I.1. ¿Qué estrategias de guía están presentes en el habla del profesorado de la última etapa de educación primaria en contextos donde se utiliza el español (L1) y en contextos comparables donde la asignatura se imparte en inglés (L2)?

P.I.2. ¿Existen similitudes en el tipo y frecuencia de uso de las técnicas discursivas utilizadas en ambas lenguas?

4.2. Contexto del estudio

El estudio ha sido llevado a cabo a través de la observación de una única disciplina, Conocimiento del Medio, en la última etapa de Educación Primaria durante el tercer trimestre de los cursos académicos 2015/16 y 2016/17 en 4 centros escolares de la capital de Córdoba. En la selección de la población se optó por recurrir a una división natural. En estos últimos estadios de la enseñanza primaria, conducentes a secundaria, sería donde el alumnado comienza a manifestar un manejo de habilidades menos básicas y más específicas de las diferentes disciplinas (Shanahan y Shanahan, 2008:44) no sólo en la lengua meta, sino también en la lengua materna.

Respecto a la selección de los centros, se buscó aquellos en los que la implementación del programa bilingüe tuviera similar grado de desarrollo (López Morillas, 2011; Ortega, 2011), a fin de encontrar contextos comparables de docencia en L1 (la lengua materna del alumnado, el español) y L2 (la lengua adicional utilizada como vehículo de instrucción en algunas asignaturas, el inglés). Además de ello, se procuró atender a un criterio inclusivo, que pudiera minimizar el sesgo de la propia selección. En particular, para el proceso de observación, se obtuvieron muestras tanto de centros de la red pública, como de la red concertada y que estuvieran distribuidos por diferentes zonas de la misma ciudad a fin de poder trabajar con diferentes perfiles socio-educativos y alumnado perteneciente a familias de variado estatus socio-económico.

Los docentes cuyas clases fueron observadas fueron 6, todos ellos en centros que pertenecen a la red de centros bilingües de la Comunidad Autónoma andaluza, lo cual implicaba que cuentan con una línea denominada bilingüe, donde determinadas asignaturas, como es el caso de Conocimiento del Medio, se imparten en inglés. Su pertenencia a la Red de Centros Bilingües también suponía una homogeneidad en el enfoque e implementación de estas líneas bilingües, dado que todos ellos comenzaron su andadura al amparo del Plan de Fomento del Plurilingüismo (2005) y cada centro contaba con una persona encargada de la Coordinación de las unidades bilingües dentro del Centro. Una entrevista previa con los docentes nos informaba de que su dedicación a la docencia superaba los 10 años. Todos los que impartían sus clases en L2 eran especialistas en lengua inglesa y contaban con la asistencia de un auxiliar de conversación en clase, aunque no necesariamente en todas las sesiones, siendo diferentes las funciones que dicho auxiliar realizaba en cada centro y clase. Los docentes que usaban la L2 habían impartido o bien se encontraban impartiendo clases en L1 en otros niveles de primaria.

4.3. Instrumentos de análisis y recolección de datos

Las transcripciones que aquí presentamos son parte de un corpus de 6 horas aproximadas de grabación, tres de ellas (D1, D2 y D3) corresponden a docentes de Conocimiento del Medio en español (ESP-L1) y las otras tres (D4, D5 y D6) a los docentes de Social and Natural Science en inglés (ING-L2). Estas grabaciones se realizaron durante el desarrollo de una unidad temática de las citadas asignaturas en el tercer trimestre y en dos cursos de forma paralela, en 4º y 6º de Educación Primaria de la Red de Centros Bilingües públicos y concertados de la capital cordobesa.

El papel de la investigadora durante las grabaciones de las clases fue de observadora silenciosa. Su presencia en el aula se limitó a la observación y grabación de las clases

para posteriormente, proceder a la transcripción de las grabaciones.

Para la transcripción de las sesiones seguimos la tradición de transcripción utilizada por Edwards y Mercer (1988) y Mercer (2004), con la intención de reflejar fielmente lo que se ha dicho, a fin de contar con el mayor número de elementos relevantes para el análisis y que las contribuciones de los hablantes no estén sujetas a interpretaciones. Este sistema se resume en los elementos reseñados en la **Tabla 1**.

Tabla 1. Simbología de la transcripción

...	la secuencia empieza o termina
/	pausa de menos de 2 segundos
//	pausa de más de 2 segundos
Negrita	Habla con énfasis
[	Habla simultánea o interrumpida
(&)	Habla continuada, separada en la transcripción por la interrupción

Con el fin de analizar las transcripciones se ha recurrido a una taxonomía previamente validada (Mercer, 2004) a fin de analizar las pautas de comunicación que tienen lugar en el aula. A diferencia de sus primeras versiones (Mercer, 1995, 1999), en ésta se incluyen aspectos tales como la exhortación, la cual nos parece de relevancia.

De este modo en **Respuesta a lo que dicen los estudiantes** buscaremos ejemplos de:

A Confirmaciones

B Repetición a modo de eco

C Repetición correctiva

D Elaboraciones

Para la **Descripción de aspectos importantes de la experiencia compartida**:

E Exhortaciones

F Recapitulaciones

Los recursos lingüísticos que analizamos son formas de utilización del lenguaje las cuales, según el análisis de Mercer (2004), el profesorado pone en práctica de manera más o menos espontánea durante intercambios interactivos con su alumnado de forma generalizada en diferentes lugares. Como se podrá observar por los ejemplos, ninguna de estas técnicas tendría sentido si no fuera porque busca la generación de significados con el propio alumnado, y, en la mayoría de los casos, se apoya en los turnos de palabra del alumnado para determinar la continuidad o no de la estrategia. Lo relevante de esta selección de técnicas es su producción en un contexto interactivo y con un propósito determinado, que será reforzado o abandonado, en función del resultado obtenido en la interacción.

5. Presentación y análisis de resultados

La categorización de las formas de conversar de los docentes según la taxonomía de Mercer (2004) arrojó los siguientes resultados:

Respecto a la ocurrencia de las técnicas que anticipamos con anterioridad, introducimos una tabla resumen:

	L1 (Spanish) Discourse strategy (%)	**L2 (English)** Discourse strategy (%)
CONFIRMACIONES	59,10	40,90
REPETICIÓN A MODO DE ECO	49,70	50,30
REPETICIÓN CORRECTIVA	0	90,90
ELABORACIÓN	42,90	57,10
EXHORTACIONES	59,20	40,80
RECAPITULACIONES CONSTRUCTIVAS	90,10	90,90

A continuación, presentamos ejemplos extraídos del corpus de transcripciones donde se identifican las técnicas que han sido utilizadas y el objetivo que perseguían. Siempre que es posible, cada categoría se ilustra con un ejemplo de aula ESP-L1 y uno de aula ING-L2.

A

Confirmaciones

Este intercambio es típico de una clase y revela la singularidad de la interacción en dicho contexto, en la medida en la que, en la vida real, un hablante no esperaría este tipo de apreciación por parte de su interlocutor.

Fragmento 1, D4

1. Teacher: **Poultry?** Yes! Eh, that's a good word. Poultry. Who remembers what poultry means?
2. Student: Aves de corral.
3. Teacher: Yes, very good.

Fragmento 2, D3

1. Profesor: El foro, ¿que era el foro?
2. Alumno: Era lo del centro de la ciudad.
3. Profesor: ¿Y para que servía?
4. Alumnos: Servia pues para
5. Profesor: [Javier, ¿para que servía el foro?
6. Alumno: Para reunirse
7. Profesor: Muy bien, lugar de reunión

B

Repetición a modo de eco

La interacción entre alumnado y profesorado halla también una forma muy visible de extenderse, a través de la repetición, a modo de eco, por parte del profesorado, de palabras literales que el alumnado haya usado. El recurso de esta técnica por parte del profesorado en cierto modo valida la contribución del alumnado, convirtiéndose en otra forma de confirmar la información ofrecida. Como se puede observar se encuentra en el discurso del profesorado en ambas lenguas.

Fragmento 3, D4

1. Teacher: What does that mean? If housing was temporary, what does that mean? They had a house in the same place or time?
2. Students: No.
3. Teacher: No. They had to?
4. Students: Move.
5. Teacher: Move. And what after did they move? What were they following?
6. Students: Animals.
7. Teacher: Animals. Plants. Different plants and trees. OK. // OK. Where did they live? / Did they have houses like yours?

Fragmento 4, D3

1. Profesor: Bien, los colonizadores de la Península Ibérica. ¿Quién me puede hablar de los tres grandes grupos, Jorge?
2. Alumno: Primero fueron los fenicios
3. Profesor: Primero los fenicios
4. Alumno: Luego los griegos
5. Profesor: Griegos ¿y?
6. Alumno: Y luego los cartagineses

C

Repetición correctiva

La repetición puede llevar consigo otras funciones más concretas. En algunos casos, el docente se vale de la repetición con intención de corregir la producción del alumnado. En el ejemplo que incluimos a continuación observamos la coexistencia de dos tipos de propósitos correctivos; uno de ellos atañe a la corrección gramatical, y el otro a un deseo por corregir la pronunciación de un término.

Fragmento 5, D4

1. Teacher: … Another metal, very good. Continue.
2. Student: They start *Leyendo*
3. Teacher: [**Started**
4. Student: Started using bronze wea *Leyendo*
5. Teacher: [**Weapons**
6. Student: Weapons and tools that were stronger than copper. *Leyendo*
7. Teacher: **Copper** ones. OK, so there's another evolution.

Esta estrategia discursiva no ha encontrado correspondiente en los ejemplos con ESP-L1.

D

Elaboración

Este recurso se localiza en aquellas ocasiones en las que el docente decide extender la contribución del alumnado, de forma que aparezca más elaborada o acorde con el propósito comunicativo. Ofrece una variante cercana a la expresión utilizada por el alumnado, pero que acarrea algún matiz diferenciador, que puede responder a diversos propósitos específicos del instante. En el siguiente ejemplo de las sesiones en español, el grupo estaba comparando una serie de cuerpos según su volumen, peso y masa.

Fragmento 6, D2

```
1.  Profesor: Madera de balsa. Es una madera
              que pesa muy poquito, es
              resistente, pesa
              poquísimo. Y cuando se
              le coloca un
              motorcito pequeñito, el
              avión puede volar porque pesa
              muy poco. Si pesase mucho no
              podrían. Bueno, ¿lo entendemos?

2.  Alumnos:  Si.

3.  Profesor: Y si tuviésemos un taco de
              madera de balsa equivalente al
              de folio, ¿que pesaría más?

4.  Alumnos:  El folio.

5.  Profesor: El papel con grandísima
              diferencia
```

Si bien el profesor introduce un ejemplo concreto para ejemplificar la explicación, técnica de la que el alumnado hace uso, como se puede apreciar por la repetición del alumnado del término usado por el profesor ('el folio'), una vez que el docente percibe que el alumnado ha elaborado el discurso específico que se ejemplificaba, inmediatamente parafrasea la respuesta de modo que el término que introduce abandona el ámbito concreto del ejemplo para validar el conocimiento generado de modo general. En las lecciones en inglés se halla la presente técnica en el mismo sentido, si bien también puede responder a un uso similar a la repetición correctiva que vimos en el anterior apartado. Observando el siguiente ejemplo percibimos las dos.

Fragmento 7, D4

```
1.  Students: Metal workers

2.  Teacher:  The metal workers. And what did
              they make?

3.  Students: Tools.               Respuestas
                                   simultáneas

4.  Teacher:  And weapons, for him?

5.  Students: Everyone.

6.  Teacher:  For everyone
```

E

Exhortaciones

El docente hace explícito su interés por demostrar la continuidad del hilo informativo por medio de exhortaciones a que recuerden, piensen o usen su lógica; el recurso a esta técnica parece orientado a servir al alumnado como hilo conductor entre la lección anterior y la actual, de forma que las perciban conectadas y con un desarrollo coherente.

Fragmento 8, D4

```
1.  Teacher:  And, well they painted hands on
              the walls, very old walls. Very
              good. It's like
              they printed, yes? What else
              do we know about Paleolithic?
              Or do you remember?

2.  Student:  The / tools were with stone,
              wood and bones.          Leyendo

3.  Teacher:  OK. Stone / wood, and / what
              you said more?

4.  Student:  Bones.

5.  Teacher:  Bones. OK, very good. And, erm,
              what else? / Someone else.

6.  Student:  People learned to use fire
                             Levanta la
                             mano Leyendo
```

Observamos su existencia también en las lecciones en español.

Fragmento 9, D2

```
1.  Profesor: El volumen. No podemos pensar
              en un papelito solo, en un
              papelito pequeño. Si no, en
              una cantidad de papel
              equivalente a ese mismo volumen
              que los otros cuerpos. Si
              tenemos ese volumen de plumas,
              ¿eso pesa mucho?

2.  Alumnos:  No

3.  Profesor: Un volumen de plumas, por
              ejemplo, un edredón. ¿Todos lo
              habéis cogido, verdad?

4.  Alumnos:  Si.

5.  Profesor: Estos edredones que hay de
              plumas, ¿eso pesa mucho?

6.  Alumnos:  No.

7.  Profesor: ¿Para el tamaño que tiene?

8.  Alumnos:  No.

9.  Profesor: Apenas, ¿verdad? No pesa casi
              nada. Ahí está claro que no.
```

F

Recapitulaciones

Las sesiones comienzan con una recapitulación constructiva en la que el docente va preguntando al alumnado por información relacionada con el impacto del ser humano sobre el hábitat natural o con los colonizadores de la península ibérica en época prerromana. Con el fin de reforzar algunas de las ideas que se comparten, se hacen referencias a información anecdótica común tanto para el profesor como por el alumnado. Así mismo, se explicitan referencias a sus experiencias comunes recientes. Parte del alumnado se encuentra más seguro con el uso de la lengua en esta etapa, atreviéndose a utilizar lenguaje de forma más autónoma y menos guiada por el profesorado, pues se trata de una revisión de conocimiento que se compartió en sesiones anteriores y, como se puede apreciar por la contribución que hace el profesorado en cada interacción, la intención de estos intercambios no es la de introducir nuevo conocimiento a la conversación, sino comprobar que el alumnado ya está en posesión de dicha información.

Fragmento 10, D2

```
1. Profesor: … No. Las centrales
             hidroeléctricas, ¿eran muy
             contaminantes? ¿Eran de las
             que producían mucho impacto, o
             más bien limpias?

2. Alumnos:  Limpias.

3. Profesor: ¿Recordáis? Las centrales
             hidroeléctricas eran de las
             más, en fin, de las más limpias.
             ¿Cual, Susana?

4. Alumnos: ¿Las nucleares?

5. Profesor: No, las ha dicho Marcos hace un
             momentito, ¿Francisco?

6. Alumnos:  ¿Las de combustibles fósiles?

7. Profesor: Pues claro. La lluvia ácida
             recordad que se producía cuando
             se quemaba carbón, se quemaban,
             se quemaban combustibles
              fósiles, erm diesel etcétera,
             etcétera. Este tipo de
             combustibles son los escapes
             de los coches, lo hablábamos
             en clase, ¿recordáis? Sobre
             las ciudades producen también
             erm este tipo de contaminantes
             ácidos. // Bueno, pues, la
             lluvia ácida, sobre todo,
             este tipo de centrales, ¿qué
             son? ¿modernas o bastante
             anticuadas?

8. Alumnos:  Anticuadas             Respuestas
                                    simultáneas
```

Fragmento 11, D3

```
1. Teacher:  Very good. So then, Paleolithic
             went into evolution and we went
             into another period which was?
             Gesticula con las manos

2. Students: // Mesolithic.      Respuestas
                                 simultáneas

3. Teacher:  And well, do we know much about
             Mesolithic period? It was a…
             Gesticula con las manos

4. Students: [Transition.        Respuestas
                                 simultáneas
```

6. Discusión

A la luz de los datos obtenidos procedemos a contestar las preguntas de investigación planteadas.

P.I.1. ¿Qué estrategias discursivas están presentes en el habla del profesorado de la última etapa de educación primaria en contextos donde se utiliza el español (L1) y en contextos comparables donde la asignatura se imparte en inglés (L2)?

Se ha constatado el uso de las confirmaciones en respuesta a las intervenciones de los estudiantes tanto en las lecciones en español como en inglés, un hecho común en otros contextos investigados (Frohlich, Spada y Allen, 1985). En lo que concierne a la repetición de palabras inmediatamente después de haberlas emitido el alumnado, esta estrategia se encuentra presente en las dos lenguas y en ocasiones se ha detectado que perseguía un propósito opuesto al de validar lo dicho, ya que se trataba de ofrecer una corrección. Con respecto a la repetición correctiva, en la que el docente repite la palabra que utiliza el alumnado, no ofreciendo una expresión alternativa, es decir, no parafraseando, sino repitiendo, al tiempo que mejora un determinado aspecto de la producción, no se han encontrado ejemplos correspondientes en español. En cuanto a la elaboración, cuya diferencia con la estrategia anterior estriba en que no es simplemente una repetición o incluso eco, ya que requiere la introducción de algún elemento más que el alumnado ha olvidado introducir, su uso es poco común en ambas lenguas. Por lo que respecta a las exhortaciones, cuyo propósito primario encontrado es consolidar el conocimiento de lo aprendido en la lección anterior y estimular el pensamiento hacia el futuro o hacia lo hipotético y no acontecido, se ha observado un uso de esta estrategia en las dos lenguas. Por último, la estrategia de recapitulación, en la que la referencia a conocimiento previo ayuda a generar ideas colectivas, se encuentra presente en el discurso producido en las dos lenguas, de forma particular, además, en el momento final de la lección, durante la asignación del trabajo individual y el trabajo de casa.

La segunda pregunta de investigación halla respuesta a través del análisis cuantitativo de los datos:

P.I.2. ¿Existen similitudes en el tipo y frecuencia de uso de las estrategias discursivas utilizadas en ambas lenguas?

El análisis de frecuencia de las técnicas exhibidas en el discurso del profesorado revela que, en cada lengua analizada, la mayoría de las pautas comunicativas utilizadas para interactuar con el alumnado con los propósitos que hemos observado se mueven en un rango similar de frecuencia a excepción de las Recapitulaciones Constructivas, la cuales cobran mayor protagonismo en las lecciones impartidas en inglés. Los datos obtenidos sugieren que el uso de las técnicas en las dos lenguas favorece un acercamiento al área desde el punto de vista de la dimensión social y cultural que ofrece el conocimiento del área como marco. En este punto es donde tiene relevancia la creación del conocimiento compartido (Mercer, 2004), donde el docente es el responsable de maximizar el uso de las pautas comunicativas con un propósito determinado: "CLIL teachers need provide learners with tailor-made assistance which will help them comprehend, produce and negotiate academic messages" (Escobar y Evnitskaya, 2013:125). La construcción que cada individuo lleve a cabo comienza con la interacción con el profesor para continuar con la interacción con los otros, llegando de este modo a la dimensión social y cultural. El paso de una a otra se lleva a cabo con técnicas visibles de razonamiento que los estudiantes utilizan para crear significado de forma conjunta (Madrid, 2011).

7. Conclusiones

En este estudio se planteaba la necesidad de indagar en las pautas comunicativas del profesorado en lo que concierne a la transmisión de contenidos académicos de una misma asignatura en inglés y en español, con el fin de establecer una comparación en cuanto a su uso en ambas lenguas y así poder identificar su tipología y frecuencia. De acuerdo con los resultados obtenidos se puede concluir que, salvo en el caso de la corrección, técnica que no se ha detectado en español, y en el caso de la recapitulación, cuya frecuencia de uso ha sido menor, la mayoría de las técnicas tienen unas características similares en ambas lenguas. Se trata de una primera conclusión coincidente con otros estudios en contextos similares en los que las estrategias de comunicación no parecen diferir entre la lengua materna de los aumnos y la lengua extranjera utilizada como venículo de comunicación (Moore y Nikula, 2016), donde la principal diferencia estriba en el grado de competencia lingüística en esta lengua extranjera y no en en la utilización de las técnicas en sí (Lo, 2015; Pavón y Ramos, 2019).

Los esfuerzos dedicados a promover la integración del lenguaje académico en el discurso del aula de forma sistemática implican una forma de planificación más consistente (MacSwan y Rolstad, 2003) y cuyos efectos serán de utilidad en una diversidad de contextos. Pero coincidimos con quienes apuntan que aún es preciso mayor trabajo en este ámbito y que las clases AICLE aún muestran un claro déficit en el uso de recursos comunicativos de este tipo (Dalton-Puffer, 2007, 2011; Nikula et al., 2016; Meyer y Coyle, 2017). Por ello resulta relevante que se indague en el uso del lenguaje académico y en el de las técnicas discursivas que se utilizan para manipularlo en estos contextos, en los que la competencia lingüística del alumnado supone una de las variables más influyentes para el éxito o fracaso en la consecución de los objetivos de aprendizaje. Este estudio en particular ha pretendido indagar en estos aspectos y hacerlo además desde una perspectiva comparativa, no exenta de limitaciones derivadas del tamaño de la muestra analizada; por lo que sería conveniente seguir en esta línea de investigación y que se pudieran analizar más horas, más asignaturas, más niveles y más contextos para seguir aportando datos que ayuden a entender la tipología de uso de las diferentes pautas de comunicación en el aula. ■

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The A-B-C of Content Learning in CLIL Settings

A Critical Thinking Approach to Philosophy & History within a CLIL Context

interviews

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Paul Tompkins: What is the main purpose of teaching and learning non-CLIL as well as CLIL Philosophy in (post)compulsory education?

Jordi Nomen: Philosophy is made up of three different skills; critical thinking, creative thinking and mindful thinking. Likewise, Philosophy in general has three aims, three very interesting uses. One of them is critical thinking. We analyse arguments vs their validity, their viability, see the manipulation of these arguments, why they are produced and how they are produced. Secondly, Philosophy rerquires a high degree of creative thinking. However, Philosophy is different from science. The problem that exists with science, from a philosopher's point of view, is that science looks for a solution to the problem. On the contrary, what Philosophy tries to do is to see the complexity of a problem, not just with the superfluous, but to fully delve into the problem and propose solutions. Unsuprisingly, it is probably through science that a final solution is found; the yes or no answer to the question. Philosophy does not resolve an issue. But, if in order to carry out a complete analysis of a problem many points of view are required, this is creative thinking. Remember that neither critical, creative nor mindful thinking are exclusive to Philosophy. This must be clear. They can be mixed and incorporated from any discipline or field of study. But if there is one thing good about Philosophy it is that it has no curriculum. There is no compulsory subject matter. In fact, it's the exact opposite; the subject matter is provided by or through human concern. Next there is mindful thinking. The philosophy that we propose is a Socratic Philosophy, where students share a dialogue amongst themselves, where they see diverse situations and where diversity enriches, where, for instance, one knows that voting perhaps isn't the best option, but rather achieving a consensus could be better for all concerned. This is citizenship at its highest order.

PT: Which reminds me of what is happening in our politics nowadays...

JN: Exactly. That is to say, if we put everything all together we see that Philosophy allows us to think for ourselves and think better. And better means on three different levels; thinking critically, creatively and ethically. That is exactly what mindful thinking means. When you speak with another person you try to convince him or her. You put yourself in their shoes not to beat them, but rather to convince them. That's mindful thinking. And it is the basis for democracy, in my opinion.

PT: How do current approaches to the teaching and learning of Philosophy differ from traditional encyclopedic approaches?

JN: It doesn't make any sense to teach Philosophy if you don't practice Philosophy. If you don't philosophize. The authors are the lever, the base, of course. For young children, there is no need to cite authors. We could speak of Nietzsche or Kant and not mention their names at all. Big names would only confuse them.

PT: Interesting. What role does language play in the teaching and learning of Philosophy? I feel that one of the biggest problems that exists for CLIL is that we have teachers who are either language teachers or content teachers. So what is the role of oral interaction, reading and written expression?

JN: It is fundamental. There is a problem because, of course, linguistic skills are essential in order to practice philosophy. When speaking of a Socratic dialogue, language is fundamental. Therefore, if we use CLIL as you say, there are skills lacking to be able to clearly express what one wants to express.

PT: This is the most interesting part: the integration of language and content. Support must exist from the Modern Languages department.

JN: You also have to remember that not all languages are the same. The native Innuits have thirty-two words to describe snow. Every language has its nuances and manners… Philosophy is based on an analysis of the language, and has a fundamental importance. Why can't someone say, "*in this case you must be merciful, you must be understanding?*" You then ask what the difference between being merciful or understanding is. Philosophy is very strict in what we are speaking about, otherwise we aren't going to understand each other.

PT: And doing this in English? Is there any advantage?

JN: It opens your mind to another culture. If it is done well, it would be a door to open your understanding of another culture. If we spoke of emotions, it could be useful to know how to say '*pena*', but how do you say '*pena*' in English? In Spanish we say '*tristeza*' (sadness). The difference is not just linguistic, but also philosophical.

PT: May the teaching and learning of Philosophy benefit in any way from being taught through English, or through any additional language in general? And with the language as a cross-curricular tool in the curriculum?

JN: Yes, there can be an advantage for both student and teacher. Perhaps it is more quickly and easily seen in the student, while for the teacher it is more difficult to see. If a student learns to be creative, critical and mindful, he or she won't be like that only in Philosophy classes, but in all of his or her classes. Here in Sadako we teach Philosophy from the age of 3 to16.

The teacher who learns to use Philosophy with this program will become a Socratic teacher. So even if you teach lessons that aren't Philosophy classes, it is impossible not to use this approach. Teachers who have learned Math and Philosophy will teach by asking questions. In my case I teach Philosophy and History, and after having learned the Socratic dialogue over the years, I teach History and Philosophy in exactly the same way.

Philosophy in English is an interesting concept. Imagine children speaking English about Shakespeare and what *Love* means. A lot more interesting than learning about kitchens and utensils. You have to find out what interests them, concern for their circumstances, and help them to learn that in a language backdrop there is a culture.

PT: Please, explain one or more instances of exemplary teaching strategies especially useful in a quality Philosophy lesson.

JN: I always insist on the students producing a final product. The strategy of a philosophical dialogue works too. For example, if we are going to talk about identity I ask them if they feel that all identities are the same. Are you the same as when you were three? Does identity change or not? What do you understand identity to be? The teacher asks and asks and asks. Never answers. When this part is over, I ask them to create *Identity* with modeling clay. Or if we are talking about *Love*, I'll ask them to mime what *Love* is. Show it. Or show it with a drawing! A poem, a short sketch, a song. There is an enormous plasticity.

PT: Once you have done that how do you evaluate the final product?

JN: They do it themselves.

"Philosophy in English is an interesting concept. Imagine children speaking English about Shakespeare and what Love means. A lot more interesting than learning about kitchens and utensils. You have to find out what interests them, concern for their circumstances, and help them to learn that in a language backdrop there is a culture."

PT: With a rubric, for example?

JN: Yes, or it could be with an analogical figure evaluation, which I am sure you are unfamiliar with, because it is widely unheard of. This is an evaluation with images. If I would like to know whether students have understood a dance or if the dance itself was deep or whether they have understood it at all. I give them four images: one is the bottom of the sea, one is a well, another is a bowl of custard and a fourth is a puddle. I ask them to choose one of the images that best represents their understanding of the dance with regard to the depth of their understanding of the interpretation. The students raise their images up for everyone to see and those that have done the dance can see that perhaps 15 have shown the bottom of the sea! If students managed to reach 15 students on a deeper level then perhaps this can be considered a success.

PT: Could you recommend a few authors, books or articles apart from your own, of course?

JN: Mathew Lipman, Philosophy for Children. He's the creator of Philosophy for children in the USA. There is also John Dewey, a great pedagogue, who discusses how to work dialogue in the classroom.

PT: Do you hold on to any particular pedagogical, psychological, philosophical or linguistic view or theoretical framework??

JN: Well, you know, I tend to shy away from '-isms'. What's also important is to avoid impulses. We tend to classify ourselves in these '-isms' and as such should use fewer labels.

PT: I think it is such a shame that the subject of Philosophy has been killed off in Bachillerato...

JN: It's normal. Those in power tend to kill off Philosophy. Nothing strange there. I do think that one of the greatest errors we make is to argue amongst ourselves. We need to join synergies with other subjects and departments and work towards a common theme. Look for themes not skills, establish links, decide what we are going to do together… it is a passionate topic. This, however, implies a reform of Bachillerato, the Selectividad, which unfortunately aren't skill based and as such mean nothing. The level of maturity of the student is not measured.

I want to share an activity I did with a group of students in my social studies class. I asked them to close their eyes and imagine airplanes bombing the city. I then read them a text…"*you are in the street, you hear airplanes coming, the civil defense sirens sound, the Generalitat announces 'Catalans, we are going to be bombed'. You don't now where your parents are, you don't know what's going on. But you have to think that the bombs are going to be falling shortly. The airplanes are getting nearer and nearer.*" Suddenly I stop reading and I played the sounds of bombs exploding… bam, boom, kaboom. To finish up the activity I asked them what they felt. There were children crying, telling me 'I was imagining that I couldn't find my parents, a bomb fell right in the middle of my house and I was hiding in the metro. My parents were dead'. Others said they could imagine what their parents were thinking at that moment. How much they were suffering…

Afterwards they were asked to make a poster and find the exact place in Barcelona where bombs had fallen in the Spanish Civil War. Then with the poster in hand, go to the exact spot and tell passers-by that if they had been in that sort at the specific time both student and passer-by would now be dead.

PT: Here is where the language teacher would be able to play a support role with vocabulary, expressions, phrases, etc.

JN: Of course, if a tourist were there the students could explain the story in English. Why not?

Undoubtedly, Mr. Nomen's view on Philosophy in the classroom and in a CLIL approach could be a catalyst for a change in our classrooms. ■