

Introducción _____	2
Formación, integración y colaboración - palabras clave de CLIL, una charla con María Jesús Frigols _____	4
Criteria for producing CLIL learning material _____	16
Adapting content subject tasks for bilingual teaching _____	35
CLIL in teacher training - A Nottingham Trent University and University of Salamanca experience _____	43
Content and language integrated learning (CLIL) - limitations and p- ossibilities _____	58
The shaping of Spanish CLIL _____	72
Making communication happen - interactive groups in the bilingual classroom _____	81
Engaging in dramatic activites in English as a foreign language classes at the university level _____	95
Student choice and reading in the EFL classroom _____	105
La música en el aula de inglés - una propuesta práctica _____	116
La motivación del profesor. Un factor fundamental para la eficacia del proceso de enseñanza-aprendizaje de idiomas _____	127
Reseña. CLIL. Content and language integrated learning. Coyle, Hood and Marsh. 2011. Cambridge University Press. _____	144
European framework for CLIL teacher education _____	147

Introducción

El presente número de la revista Encuentro está dividido en dos secciones. La primera de ella se ocupa de CLIL (Aprendizaje Integrado de Lengua y Contenido) y cuenta con la colaboración de investigadores y expertos en el tema. Esta sección se abre con una charla con **María Jesús Frigols** en la que la investigadora reflexiona sobre cuestiones importantes relativas a la utilización de la metodología CLIL en las aulas, tanto de la educación obligatoria como universitaria, poniendo de manifiesto las necesidades y los logros que implica la utilización de dicha metodología. La contribución de **Peeter Mehisto** se centra en la descripción de criterios que pueden aplicarse al diseño de materiales en general y al diseño de materiales CLIL en particular. El artículo describe también una serie de requisitos técnicos, ambientales y sociales que pueden aplicarse tanto a materiales CLIL como a otro tipo de materiales.

Para **Ana Halbach**, en el aprendizaje de contenidos curriculares a través de una lengua extranjera, el alumno se enfrenta simultáneamente con los retos de entender conceptos desconocidos y hacerlo a través de una lengua que no es la suya. Su contribución pretende unir propuestas realizadas por investigadores en diferentes áreas de conocimiento con la finalidad de ayudar al docente a adaptar su forma de enseñar a la metodología CLIL y, así, contribuir a que su alumnado pueda tener éxito en la tarea de aprender contenidos nuevos a través de una lengua extranjera. **Gloria Gutiérrez, Ramiro Durán y Fernando Beltrán** presentan en su artículo ejemplos de la aplicación del aprendizaje integrado de lengua y contenidos en el ámbito de la formación docente a partir de una colaboración entre universidades. Dicha colaboración demuestra que es posible incrementar el potencial del enfoque CLIL y alcanzar nuevas dimensiones de integración más allá de la lengua y de los contenidos y superar la distancia entre diferentes visiones culturales y pedagógicas.

Por su parte, **Ena Harrop**, analiza de forma crítica cuatro de los postulados más importantes de CLIL: CLIL conduce a mayor competencia lingüística, aumenta la motivación, es adecuado para alumnos de todas las capacidades y realza la comprensión intercultural, y señala sus limitaciones sugiriendo algunas estrategias para superarlas. **Antonio Roldán** indaga en su artículo en los fundamentos psicopedagógicos de la metodología CLIL, prestando atención al Proyecto Bangalore y al programa de Inmersión Canadiense. Del primero destaca el concepto de *tarea*, que articula todo el diseño curricular de tipo procedimental; del segundo, la distinción entre los términos BICS y CALP y sus consecuencias metodológicas, así como la idea de la competencia común subyacente. Por último, **Borja Garrido** defiende la utilidad del trabajo con Grupos Interactivos en el aula CLIL. La investigación que presenta demuestra como los Grupos Interactivos ayudan a mejorar la participación del alumnado en las actividades del aula, mejorando su competencia comunicativa y su actitud hacia el aprendizaje de la lengua extranjera.

La segunda sección de la revista se ocupa de distintos aspectos didácticos en la enseñanza de inglés como lengua extranjera. **Victoria Algarra y Russell Dinapoli** estudian como las actividades dramáticas pueden ayudar al estudiante de inglés a comunicarse de forma personal y significativa. Proponen con tal fin una serie de actividades diseñadas para crear un espacio en el que los estudiantes puedan relacionarse y generar una

interacción espontánea y creativa. Por su parte, **Irina Argüelles** centra su atención en la selección de lecturas para el aula de lengua extranjera. En concreto, analiza los motivos que llevan al profesorado a elegir ciertas lecturas de curso dentro del contexto más tradicional en contraste con las razones que esgrimen sus estudiantes para realizar la misma elección.

Esther Noemí Leganés subraya la necesidad de crear nuevos materiales que utilicen la música en el aula de inglés desde una perspectiva interdisciplinar. Presenta con tal fin una serie de propuestas didácticas que parten de rimas y canciones para fomentar el aprendizaje de la lengua inglesa en el aula de Infantil y Primaria. **Nieves Rodríguez-Pérez** investiga en su artículo las causas y el estado de la motivación del docente de lengua extranjera partiendo de la hipótesis de que en la actualidad su grado de motivación en el proceso educativo ha aumentado ya que, entre otras razones, tiene a su disposición un variado catálogo de recursos didácticos que facilitan y dinamizan su labor docente.

Finalmente, **Antonio Roldan** presenta una reseña del libro *CLIL: Content and Language Integrated Learning* cuyos autores son Do Coyle, Philip Hood y David Marsh.

Esta segunda sección se cierra con *The European Framework for CLIL Teacher Education* (Marco Europeo para la Formación del Profesorado CLIL), documento que ofrece una serie de principios e ideas para el diseño de programas de formación de profesorado en el área CLIL además de servir como herramienta de reflexión.

Formación, Integración y Colaboración: Palabras clave de CLIL Una Charla con María Jesús Frigols

Manuel Megías Rosa
Universidad de Alcalá

¿Qué tendencias sigue el enfoque CLIL en los últimos años y qué factores condicionan dichas tendencias? Se habla de tendencias locales, regionales, globales...

Yo creo que es una tendencia global, lo que pasa es que en determinadas zonas está funcionando o se está implantando con más fuerza. Creo que depende de las características de los contextos. Y me refiero a las políticas no sólo lingüísticas sino educativas en general. Influye también la necesidad de la población de hablar una lengua o varias y el contexto lingüístico en el que vive una población de una determinada región, país o conjunto de países. En Europa están teniendo mucho peso las políticas educativas de la Comisión Europea y los planteamientos educativos del Consejo de Europa. Existen países en los que los programas CLIL se empezaron a implantar antes y por ello tienen más camino recorrido; hay otros países en los que la implementación ha sido más tardía pero se ha hecho con una fuerza tremenda. En el primer grupo podrían estar, por ejemplo, Finlandia y Holanda y en el segundo grupo yo hablaría sobre todo de España y de Italia, que está en este momento dándole mucho empuje al CLIL con el nuevo decreto que ha sido publicado recientemente. Lo que resulta más sorprendente, desde mi punto de vista, es que en aquellos países en los que los programas CLIL se han implementado ya en la educación reglada,

utilizando como lengua vehicular el inglés, se están empezando a hacer aproximaciones a la implementación de programas CLIL con lenguas regionales o lenguas minoritarias como lenguas vehiculares. Esto que en España es bastante frecuente, no lo es tanto en otros países. Está ocurriendo, por ejemplo en Finlandia. El año pasado actué como evaluadora externa de un proyecto finlandés llamado ESR, coordinando por la Universidad de Lapin keskiopisto (Laponia) y financiado con fondos estructurales europeos, destinado a profesores lapones que quieren poner en marcha un programa CLIL. Resulta sorprendente porque en esos países se ha pasado de hacer CLIL con una lengua franca como es el inglés a hacerlo con una lengua regional o minoritaria, mientras que en España ha sido al revés. Los primeros programas CLIL se empezaron a hacer para implementar la educación a través de las lenguas minoritarias o de las lenguas regionales y de ahí pasamos al inglés. Es un proceso que va justo al revés en los tiempos pero que resulta interesante.

¿Crees que España ha tenido algún papel en este cambio?

No sabría decirlo pero si sé que desde Europa se nos mira mucho porque ha sido el país con el que más fuerza se han empezado a poner en marcha los programas CLIL. Además hay una cosa curiosa, yo he dicho siempre que España es

como un microcosmos dentro del macrocosmos del CLIL porque en cada una de las regiones españolas se ha puesto en marcha un programa CLIL con características distintas. Cuando sumamos las características de los programas en cada una de las distintas regiones nos damos cuenta de que son un reflejo de lo que está ocurriendo en los distintos países europeos. De alguna manera España es el paradigma del CLIL porque cubre todo el espectro de programas.

Cómo podrías resumir que tipo de prácticas CLIL se llevan a cabo en España

Las diferencias no son enormes. Hay una investigadora de la universidad de Barcelona, la Dra. Carmen Muñoz, que habla de varios escenarios de implementación de CLIL en España: el proyecto bilingüe firmado entre el British Council y el Ministerio de Educación español que tiene unas características especiales porque los alumnos cursan un currículo diferente, no es el currículo español, es una mezcla de los dos currículos; los programas CLIL que se están llevando a cabo en las regiones monolingües con la aspiración de llegar a ser bilingües y, el tercer escenario es el de las regiones bilingües en la que se implementa CLIL para llegar a ser plurilingües. Es verdad que en Andalucía se habla del plan de fomento del plurilingüismo, que en principio aspiraba a que en una región monolingüe los alumnos pasasen a hablar, además del castellano, el inglés o el francés o el alemán. Ahora han ampliado el espectro de posibilidades y han pasado al castellano y el inglés más el francés, el alemán o el italiano. Estos son los principales escenarios. A nivel de implementación realmente las diferencias dependen de características que en mi opinión tiene que ver más con la política que con la educación, es decir, con el hecho de que en determinadas regiones españolas haya una preselección de alumnos mientras que en otras todos los alumnos entran dentro del programa. En algunas regiones los alumnos que hacen estos

programas tiene que pasar exámenes o *tests* para obtener certificados del tipo Trinity College o Cambridge; en otras los certifican las escuelas oficiales de idiomas. Hay también diferencia a nivel de los cursos de formación del profesorado para impartir las clases en los programas CLIL aunque estas diferencias han ido a menos paulatinamente. Uno de los programas que más se han utilizado para formar profesorado es el programa PALE, un convenio firmado entre administraciones públicas y consejerías de educación con el mismo número de horas de formación y el mismo tipo de módulos. Lo que puede variar, por ejemplo es que Canarias enviaba a sus profesores a realizar el módulo en el extranjero a la universidad de Galway en Irlanda y Galicia a Canadá.

¿Cuál es la diferencia entre el Convenio British Council-MEC que se inició en 1989 y el actual programa de la Comunidad de Madrid?

Como dije antes la principal diferencia es el currículo. El currículo que se cursa en el convenio MEC- British Council es un currículo integrado. De hecho, algunos de los responsables del programa han dicho que CLIL no es un currículo integrado. Estamos hablando de dos conceptos diferentes de integración. Ellos hablaban de una integración del currículo español con el británico mientras que nosotros hablamos de una integración del currículo lingüístico con el de áreas no lingüísticas. Son dos planteamientos diferentes. En la Comunidad de Madrid el actual programa bilingüe está funcionando muy bien. Creo que los alumnos salen con niveles de conocimiento de la lengua adecuados pero que además van a mejorar. Los resultados de los centros de primaria que yo he visitado son muy buenos. El proyecto con el British Council se intentó poner en práctica en otras regiones autónomas; en algunas no ha funcionado en absoluto, como por ejemplo en las Baleares, y en otras está funcionando pero digamos que es una

presencia muy limitada, con un número de centros muy reducidos. Donde más centros tiene este programa es en la Comunidad de Madrid.

¿Crees que este programa tiende a desaparecer?

No, yo no creo que tienda a desaparecer. Yo creo que tiende a mantenerse porque es un concepto muy específico. Creo que además, en concreto en la Comunidad de Madrid, fue el germen del programa bilingüe. Lo que ocurre es que, claro, desde la Comunidad de Madrid hubo un momento en el que las autoridades educativas se dieron cuenta de que había que traspasar ese programa bilingüe a los centros públicos en los que se cursaba el currículo español no el currículo integrado británico-español. Como ese segundo programa comenzó a funcionar muy bien es el que se ha potenciado más. No todo el mundo quiere que sus hijos cursen un currículo integrado británico-español.

De las experiencias que conoces en distintos países ¿donde crees que se aplica mejor la metodología CLIL?, es decir, ¿donde es más eficaz? ¿Qué asignaturas crees que se deben impartir en la lengua extranjera?

No creo que haya un país en el que el CLIL sea más eficaz o en el que se hagan mejor las cosas. Todas las variantes de CLIL tienen puntos positivos. En Holanda los resultados son impresionantes, también en Alemania o en Austria aunque es cierto que existen una serie de medidas que ayudan y que apoyan y que no dependen de los planteamientos educativos. En relación con las asignaturas no creo que existan asignaturas mejores o peores. Lo que sí creo es que hay que utilizar el sentido común. Si vamos a enseñar Historia de España, lo lógico es que se enseñe en español, en cambio cuando estamos enseñando Historia de Europa tendría sentido introducir una unidad o varias unidades en lengua extranjera. Es verdad que cuando hacemos CLIL no solamente estamos hablando de competencia lingüística y

tampoco hablamos solamente de competencia en la materia curricular; estamos hablando también de competencia cultural o intercultural. La manera de ver las cosas es diferente, depende de la cultura que hay detrás. Durante muchos años, en Alemania, la Segunda Guerra Mundial se ha estudiado muy por encima y, desde luego, allí no tiene el impacto que puede tener en España, en Italia, en Francia o en Polonia. Este aspecto cultural es diferente y hay que tenerlo en cuenta. También hay que tener en cuenta que tampoco se enseñan igual las cosas en alemán que en francés. Por ejemplo, los alemanes no tienen ningún reparo en sacar una fotografía de los intestinos cuando están hablando del aparato digestivo cosa que los franceses no hacen; los franceses sacan el dibujo pero no sacan la fotografía. Estos aspectos culturales están ahí y hay que tenerlos en cuenta pero lo más importante es tener, como decía antes, sentido común. Hay quien dice que matemáticas es una materia muy difícil de enseñar en lengua extranjera, que no es adecuada porque las matemáticas son en sí mismas un lenguaje y, sin embargo, un profesor de la universidad de Pisa me decía hace poco que las matemáticas son la materia ideal para CLIL, por lo menos para el inicio del programa CLIL. Y tiene razón, las matemáticas son una materia que tiene un vocabulario y unas estructuras sintácticas que se repiten constantemente y que a los alumnos les resultan muy transparentes; las matemáticas pueden ser la asignatura ideal para alumnos que tienen poca competencia lingüística o que nunca han estado en un programa bilingüe. ¿Qué es necesario para que CLIL sea eficaz? Es necesario formar al profesorado, es decir, invertir en formación del profesorado porque si no se hace esta inversión, los programas CLIL se convierten en hacer lo mismo que hacíamos antes pero en otra lengua, lo que a la larga produce resultados negativos, justo lo contrario de lo que queríamos conseguir.

¿Qué palabras clave utilizarías para definir tu visión de CLIL?

Formación del profesorado, integración, visibilidad de la lengua, inclusión del profesorado de lenguas extranjeras en los programas y cooperación, colaboración entre el profesorado de contenidos y de lengua, entre el profesorado CLIL y no CLIL. Formación, integración y colaboración, serían esas palabras clave.

¿Piensas que la reflexión en la clase CLIL deba tener un peso mayor del que tiene ahora?

Hubo un comentario de los profesores lapones del proyecto del que hablábamos antes que me llamó mucho la atención. Después de haber visitado varios centros en los que se estaba haciendo CLIL, estos profesores comentaron: a los niños se les deja poco tiempo para pensar, y es cierto, los alumnos necesitan tiempo para reflexionar sobre lo que están haciendo y sobre cómo lo están haciendo. La potenciación de las destrezas cognitivas es otro de los elementos que en mi opinión necesita adquirir peso en estos programas. La reflexión es necesaria para los alumnos dentro del aula así como es necesario que el profesorado vea como hace las cosas. También es necesario que las autoridades educativas y de la administración reflexionen sobre cómo se ponen en marcha los programas, cómo se llevan a cabo y cómo se evalúan. Reflexión y evaluación son esenciales como paso anterior a la prospectiva y la introducción de mejoras en los programas.

Dos por uno es un eslogan para la educación bilingüe. ¿Cómo se puede garantizar la calidad de lengua y contenido a través de una lengua que no es la materna?

Con formación del profesorado.

¿Qué condiciones son necesarias para garantizar el concepto CLIL a largo plazo?

Creo que la primera es la inversión por parte de las autoridades educativas, inversión en

materiales y en formación del profesorado. También un cambio en el enfoque metodológico en las aulas y que, además los alumnos tengan la posibilidad de practicar fuera del centro lo que aprenden en él. Claro, si estamos estudiando artes plásticas en inglés pero salimos del centro y no oímos inglés ni lo usamos... Las ventajas cognitivas y las ventajas relacionadas con el aprendizaje de la lengua están ahí pero están mucho más limitadas que si existe la posibilidad de utilizarlas en la práctica y en la vida real. No es necesario que los alumnos hablen o establezcan intercambios con centros necesariamente británicos. Existen centros holandeses maravillosos. En Holanda existe una red de centros CLIL espectacular, con unos programas de evaluación y de seguimiento estupendos. En Italia y Alemania hay centros CLIL con unos resultados excepcionales. Son países con los que se puede establecer sinergias.

¿No estamos complicando la vida obligando a los alumnos a aprender un lenguaje que se utiliza poco fuera del aula?

Una de las cosas que yo percibo y he percibido siempre en mis alumnos de enseñanza secundaria – he sido profesora de inglés, llevo muchos años trabajando en el campo del CLIL pero mis orígenes son la enseñanza del inglés como lengua extranjera- y sigo percibiéndolo en mis alumnos en la universidad, es que el uso de la lengua está muy restringido, muy reducido a lo que es el registro coloquial. Hemos perdido, y nuestros jóvenes también han perdido, la capacidad de utilizar otros registros. Quiero decir que un alumno de secundaria dice igualmente que ha salido con amigos y había muy buen “rollito” y que a María Antonieta la decapitaron porque no tenía buen “rollito” con el pueblo. Uno de los objetivos de CLIL es la adquisición de lenguaje académico. Los alumnos tienen que saber utilizar el lenguaje académico. Los que estamos enseñando o diseñando los programas CLIL

distinguimos varios tipos distintos de lenguaje: uno es el académico y otro la lengua de comunicación. En el diseño de las actividades didácticas CLIL hacer visible el primero es muy fácil; hacer visible la segunda es más difícil. Para el profesorado de materia curricular es muy difícil hacer visible el lenguaje. Para un profesor de bioquímica es muy fácil que los alumnos aprendan a decir mechero o placa de Petri o tubo de ensayo pero es más difícil enseñar que esas palabras van dentro de determinadas estructuras y que esas mismas estructuras se pueden aplicar a la vida cotidiana. Que aprendan un vocabulario, que yo denominaría para fines específicos o incluso para fines académicos, es estupendo pero evidentemente lo que hay que potenciar también es el uso de la lengua. Es la parte que más cuesta al profesorado de materia curricular y en la que necesita más apoyo: a la vez que los niños aprenden las partes de un volcán aprendan a utilizar los conectores y a decir *afortunadamente, desafortunadamente, por desgracia, pero, aunque, etc.* Ahí es donde hay que incidir.

Según algunos profesores, la enseñanza a través de una lengua extranjera incrementa, en muchos casos, la distancia entre los alumnos más aventajados y los menos aventajados. ¿Qué sugieres para aquellos alumnos que, estudiando en centros que sólo disponen de líneas bilingües, no obtienen, por distintas razones, buenos resultados?

No estoy en absoluto de acuerdo con esta opinión. Además, la investigación demuestra que no es cierta. Yo empecé a hacer CLIL junto a una profesora de francés en un centro de formación profesional. La jefa del departamento de francés tenía en su grupo a un alumno que no había conseguido nunca aprobar el francés, además de no sobresalir especialmente en otras materias. Cuando este alumno, que había aprobado, terminó el curso, fue a hablar con su profesora y le dijo: vengo a darte las gracias porque por primera vez

en mi vida he sido capaz de darme cuenta de que puedo hacerlo, nunca sacaré un diez pero soy capaz de seguir sacando cinco y además utilizar una lengua que no es la mía. Esto ocurrió después de un año de aplicar un programa experimental. ¿Dónde está la diferencia? La diferencia está en la metodología. La diferencia radica en que cuando un profesor está formado para enseñar en una lengua extranjera los resultados son visibles. La ventaja de utilizar una lengua extranjera es, en la mayoría de los casos, que el nivel de conocimiento o de competencia lingüística de los alumnos se equipara. Ninguno de ellos ha adquirido todas las competencias, no es su lengua materna, pero los niveles se han igualado. Esta es mi experiencia personal. Insisto en que la diferencia básica es la formación del profesorado. Si el profesorado hace en lengua extranjera lo mismo que haría en su lengua materna, es decir, entrar en el aula, hablar, y esperar que los alumnos tomen nota, los resultados serán desastrosos, tanto para los alumnos que tienen pocas competencias lingüísticas o que no son brillantes como para aquellos que tienen mayor competencia lingüística o que son más brillantes. No habrá ningún tipo de cambio, ningún tipo de ventaja añadida. Si el profesorado cambia el planteamiento metodológico los resultados serán buenos.

La metodología CLIL se ha introducido en la Comunidad de Madrid con el objetivo de mejorar la competencia del alumnado en lengua extranjera. ¿No crees que se produciría también una mejora considerable si la clase de inglés se planteara de forma muy distinta?

Evidentemente; una de las cosas que nosotros repetimos continuamente es que en CLIL lo que hay que hacer es potenciar el aprendizaje de la lengua extranjera en el aula de contenido y potenciar el aprendizaje de contenido en el aula de lengua extranjera. He hablado antes de colaboración entre el profesorado. Si un profesor de historia que va a explicar la Revolución

Francesa en francés potencia la lengua en su aula, ¿por qué el profesor de francés no va a tomar como excusa la Revolución Francesa para revisar contenidos lingüísticos en su aula de francés como lengua extranjera?, ¿por qué no va a haber cooperación entre los dos profesores? El profesor de Historia va a utilizar el pasado y el profesor de lengua extranjera puede utilizar en su aula determinados aspectos o determinados textos relacionados con la Revolución Francesa o cómo ha influido ésta en nuestras vidas. No es necesario tampoco que siempre sean contenidos de la materia específica; en el aula de inglés se puede hacer CLIL. Los profesores de inglés que yo formo están aprendiendo a hacer CLIL en el aula de inglés. Te pongo un ejemplo: hubo un grupo de profesores de inglés como lengua extranjera que estaban realizando el curso de formación conmigo y me preguntaron qué tenían qué hacer. Yo les propuse que hablaran con sus alumnos para que estos les sugirieran cinco, seis o diez temas de la vida cotidiana que les interesasen o preocupasen. Salió de todo pero uno de los temas que surgió fue, sorprendentemente, la vida saludable. Entonces, lo que hicieron estos profesores de inglés fue trasladar el currículo de inglés como lengua extranjera al concepto de vida saludable. Diseñaron una programación entera con el concepto de vida saludable como hilo conductor: la vida saludable desde el punto de vista de la riqueza personal, por ejemplo, de la formación artística, con la salud -problemas de anorexia, bulimia, vigorexia, etc. -, con las relaciones personales y cómo éstas puedan influir en la vida saludable, etc. Estos profesores no estaban hablando del *simple past* o del *present perfect*. Hablaban de la anorexia o de Picasso. Estaban haciendo contenido en el aula de inglés y, evidentemente, los alumnos tenían que utilizar estructuras lingüísticas que además se veían enriquecidas porque no se trataba ya solamente de decir *did you go to the beach?*, *Yes I went to the beach*, *No I didn't go to the beach*”.

¿No crees que existan hoy en día libros de texto o profesores que introducen contenidos en sus clases de inglés?

Esa es la dirección. En 2005 hubo un debate – *CLIL Debate*- organizado por IATFEL en Cardiff en el que se empezó a hablar de CLIL y del impacto que esta metodología estaba teniendo en la enseñanza de inglés como lengua extranjera, debate que se repitió en 2009. En este segundo debate se pidió a los profesores de inglés que dieran su opinión sobre CLIL por medio de una votación. La votación, que pueden encontrarse en la Web, puso de manifiesto que los profesores participantes en el debate pensaban que *CLIL is the way forward for ELT*. Esto sin duda quiere decir que hay una concienciación por parte del profesorado que está teniendo un impacto en las editoriales, las cuales están empezando a cambiar el enfoque de sus libros. También es verdad que hay editoriales que han colocado la palabra CLIL en la portada del libro y venden como CLIL cosas que no lo son. Algunas editoriales han incluido en sus libros algunos temas como excusa pero si profundizas lo que ves es un texto en el que se habla por ejemplo de “la huella del carbono” y cuatro líneas más abajo el típico ejercicio que no promueve o potencia la adquisición de destrezas cognitivas y que sigue potenciando el concepto instructivista en lugar del enfoque más constructivista de participación del alumnado. Estamos todavía a mitad de camino. Hemos pasado de ELT puro y duro a un semi-CLIL que, estoy segura, acabará siendo CLIL.

El aula de lenguas es un lugar idóneo para que el alumnado aprenda y practique. ¿Crees que esto es así?

El concepto de aprender en nuestra tradición educativa se ha confundido con el concepto de almacenar. El profesor entra en el aula, cuenta lo que cree tiene que contar y el alumno almacena esos datos para usarlos o no en el futuro, desde luego sí para “vomitarlos” en un examen. El

concepto educativo del que hablamos es otro, es aprender, es decir, adquirirlas competencias que permitan utilizar esos datos. Las instituciones europeas y la Comisión Europea han intentado promover el enfoque competencial. La publicación en 2006 del documento de las competencias que en castellano se llaman básicas pero que deberían llamarse competencias clave – *keycompetences*- ha revolucionado el panorama educativo. Cuando se empezó a hablar de CLIL y se empezó a implementarlo en los sistemas educativos, esta metodología no se concibió como una forma de enseñar la lengua sino como una forma de aprenderla. Una de las finalidades de CLIL era elevar el perfil de nuestros sistemas educativos. Tiene que ver con aprender, aprender a usar y usar aprendiendo. El valor añadido del CLIL no es sólo el de la lengua sino el del desarrollo de las destrezas cognitivas. Hay un estudio publicado por la Comisión Europea en 2009 sobre el impacto que el bilingüismo y el plurilingüismo tiene en los procesos cognitivos. La Dra. Ellen Bialystok, neuróloga, realizó un estudio con pacientes de Alzheimer en el que comprobó que los síntomas de Alzheimer aparecen 5,1 años después en los bilingües que en los monolingües, además de diagnosticársele la dolencia 4,3 años después que a los monolingües. Un resultado impresionante. En relación con el desarrollo cognitivo también hay diferencias entre ser monolingüe, bilingüe o plurilingüe según otro estudio de la misma autora.

¿Crees que el éxito de la metodología CLIL puede relacionarse de alguna manera con el status que posee la asignatura de Science (Conocimiento del Medio) frente a la asignatura de inglés?

Yo creo que no. Por un lado los niños que hacen Conocimiento del Medio en inglés reciben además inglés como lengua extranjera con lo cual la exposición a la lengua es mayor. No creo que hubiese diferencia si en lugar de Conocimiento

del Medio se tratase de otra asignatura. La percepción del inglés como asignatura de segunda categoría creo que está cambiando mucho debido a la necesidad, compartida por muchos, de mejorar el nivel de inglés de los alumnos. En España llevamos ya muchos años diciendo que este nivel tiene que mejorar. El hecho de que no sepamos hablar inglés u otras lenguas extranjeras nos está haciendo perder dinero. Los negocios se hacen en la lengua del cliente. Los resultados iniciales del proceso de evaluación del programa CLIL en las Islas Canarias que estoy llevando a cabo junto a David Marsh señalan claramente que esa mentalidad ha cambiado. Por otro lado, el problema es que la percepción del inglés ha sido errónea. El inglés no se percibía como lengua sino como asignatura; no se percibía como competencia sino como reglas gramaticales. El inglés que se ha enseñando ha sido gramática de la lengua inglesa y vocabulario. Aunque es una afirmación un poco radical, seguimos enseñando el inglés en la tradición de la enseñanza del latín, en la tradición de la traducción de textos y esto es algo que está superado desde el siglo XVIII. El problema sigue estando también en la formación del profesorado. Alguien que termina una licenciatura en Geografía e Historia sabe mucho de esta materia pero no sabe enseñar, no le ha enseñado nadie a enseñar; aprobabas una oposición y entrabas en el aula. En mi licenciatura jamás tuve una asignatura de didáctica o de pedagogía. El CAP es mejor no nombrarlo. El máster en educación secundaria está haciendo que, por fin, las cosas empiecen a cambiar.

¿Existen modelos curriculares oficiales que tengan en cuenta lengua y contenidos a la hora de planificar la clase CLIL?

Muy pocos. Si CLIL es el aprendizaje integrado de lengua y contenidos curriculares es evidente que tiene que haber un currículo integrado y el problema es que el profesorado conoce muy bien el currículo oficial de la materia

curricular, pero no sabe qué lengua va asociada a él y se pregunta: "¿qué lengua enseño?". Volvemos al tema de la cooperación entre el profesorado. En relación con el tema del plurilingüismo, los diseñadores del currículo inicial en la Comunidad de Andalucía se pusieron en contacto con Dieter Wolfy en ese currículo sí que se prestaba atención a la lengua alemana que se iba a enseñar en Geografía. Esto es fundamental y es algo que repito en todas mis conferencias. Si yo, profesor de Historia, tengo claro la Historia que tengo que enseñar pero no la lengua, queda a mi buena voluntad que sea capaz de identificar los aspectos que me parezcan oportunos de la lengua. Una cosa es saber hablar inglés, francés o alemán y otra muy distinta saber identificar qué aspectos de esa lengua puedo introducir en mis clases de contenido. Me resultará fácil introducir el vocabulario pero no tanto las estructuras gramaticales del idioma ni la lengua para la gestión del aula. ¿Y eso quién me lo dice? Nadie. Es un problema que no exista un currículo oficial. Nosotros diseñamos una plantilla para diseñar las unidades CLIL para la Consejería de Valencia basada en una modificación del principio de las 4 Cs de Do Coyle. En esta plantilla nos ocupábamos de los objetivos de aprendizaje, incluíamos resultados de aprendizaje relacionados con la cultura, con el contenido, con la lengua, con las destrezas cognitivas, e incluíamos una C más: las competencias. En este apartado había espacio para la materia y para la lengua como comunicación. El profesorado iba identificando aspectos lingüísticos que estaban incluidos en el contenido curricular pero con la doble vertiente, BICS y CALP *Basic Intercommunication Skills* y *Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency*, en la definición de Jim Cummins). Si existiera un currículo oficial en el que estos aspectos estuvieran integrados el profesorado se ahorraría muchos quebraderos de cabeza. Muchos profesores de materia curricular

no saben hacer visible la lengua. Se limitan a traducir.

La introducción de los grados ha reducido de forma drástica la formación lingüística y didáctica de los futuros maestros en muchas universidades. ¿Qué cree que se debe hacer para compensar dicho desajuste?

Este problema es algo que las universidades deberían plantearse. Es algo que se debería modificar; mientras tanto hay formas de subsanar el error, por ejemplo, impartir determinadas materias, no en lengua extranjera sino con la metodología CLIL. Hay universidades que están impartiendo otras materias en lengua extranjera. Mi Universidad, la *Valencian International University* – VIU, en concreto está utilizando la metodología CLIL para impartir determinadas materias en inglés y en castellano. Nuestros alumnos de primer curso del grado de magisterio en Educación Primaria tienen una asignatura troncal llamada CLIL, hay quien la cursa en inglés porque va a utilizar el CLIL en Matemáticas, Historia u otra especialidad y hay otros alumnos que están haciendo didáctica CLIL en castellano. Esto tiene su sentido. El acrónimo CLIL no se refiere sólo a lengua extranjera, al menos nunca se ha dicho tal cosa, es integración de contenido y lengua y puede hacerse en lengua materna. En realidad es un cambio de planteamiento metodológico, de planteamiento didáctico. No hay nada que impida hacer CLIL en castellano; es más, nosotros estamos abogando por la implementación de esta metodología incluso en la lengua materna. También hay otro aspecto que muy pocos se han parado a considerar y es que hay profesores españoles que se van a Estados Unidos o Canadá a dar clase en los programas bilingües y que imparten su materia en español ¿Por qué no van a utilizar la didáctica CLIL si en ese caso el español es la lengua extranjera para los alumnos americanos o canadienses?

Entonces impartís una asignatura CLIL que es una asignatura de didáctica ¿Qué elementos la componen?

Es una introducción a la didáctica CLIL. El currículo CLIL de los títulos de la universidad se diseñó utilizando el *European Framework for CLIL Teacher Education*¹. Identificamos una serie de competencias a nuestro juicio imprescindibles y relacionadas con el contexto en el que nosotros nos movemos, un contexto internacional. Una vez identificadas estas competencias, identificamos los módulos de contenido que iban a ayudar a nuestros alumnos a adquirir estas competencias. Utilizando esas herramientas, diseñamos el curso. Tenemos dos grupos, uno en castellano y otro en inglés. El procedimiento de trabajo es utilizar la metodología CLIL. Hay determinadas lecciones que son clases magistrales porque así está estipulado en el funcionamiento de la universidad y otras son sesiones prácticas. Tanto unas como otras se desarrollan de forma muy interactiva. Esta es una universidad virtual-presencial. Las clases se imparten por video conferencia, se graban de manera que si hay un alumno que no puede asistir a clase pueda volver a entrar en la videoconferencia y ver la clase grabada. Estas grabaciones permanecen en la plataforma a lo largo de todo el curso; cualquier alumno puede volver a ver la clase lo cual es una gran ventaja. Durante las clases tenemos abierto el “chat” de manera que los alumnos pueden preguntar o comentar o insistir o pedir aclaraciones. En la plataforma hay un apartado de recursos en el que se cuelgan videos de distintos tipos. Por ejemplo, David Marsh ha filmado un video para nosotros, al que tienen acceso los alumnos, en el que habla de elementos esenciales de la metodología CLIL y

elementos relacionados con la calidad en el aula CLIL. En este apartado también se proporciona a los alumnos los recursos lingüísticos, es decir, hacemos visible la lengua, es CLIL dentro de CLIL. Hay un tercer apartado en el que proponemos a los alumnos artículos de investigación académica sobre los que reflexionar. Tienen claramente especificada la rúbrica de corrección con lo cual saben qué y cómo se van a ser evaluados sus trabajos que pueden ser individuales o grupales

¿Me puedes poner un ejemplo de cómo trabajáis la parte lingüística?

Trabajamos los textos. Por ejemplo, uno de los artículos que los estudiantes tienen que leer es *Disjuncture in CLIL* de Peeter Mehisto publicado en el *International CLIL Journal*. Antes de leer el artículo, en la sesión en la que hablamos de los problemas a los que debe enfrentarse el profesor CLIL, ya hacemos referencia a la lengua que van a encontrarse en el artículo. Incidimos mucho en el lenguaje académico y en la estructura características de los artículos de investigación, que son dos de los puntos fuertes del primer curso. Es evidente que funciona bien porque los alumnos cuando empiezan el curso utilizan un lenguaje coloquial mientras que cuando terminan el curso, la mayoría organiza los párrafos con coherencia, cita correctamente e incluyen las referencias bibliográficas. En un principio pensábamos que les iba a resultar más difícil y, aunque no todos los alumnos obtienen los mismos resultados, su evolución resulta sorprendente. Ha habido un alumno que nos ha enviado un mensaje después de haber acabado el curso diciéndonos que por fin ha entendido lo que es CLIL, que por fin ha entendido que el profesor tiene que saber cómo llegar al alumno y que cuando se enseña en una lengua extranjera el enfoque debe ser distinto. En el segundo, tercer y cuarto cursos entramos en la didáctica específica de cada materia. El planteamiento es que los

¹Documento que se publica también en este número de Encuentro y que puede encontrarse en <https://correo.uah.es/exchweb/bin/redir.asp?URL=http://clil-cd.ecml.at/Resources/EuropeanFrameworkforCLILTeacherEducation/tabid/2254/language/en-GB/Default.aspx>

alumnos empiecen a reflexionar sobre todo lo que han aprendido en el primer curso y que, por ejemplo en Matemáticas, diseñando unidades didácticas para esta materia, empiecen a poner en práctica todos los conceptos básicos de aproximación a la metodología CLIL. El objetivo es que no sólo identifiquen contenido matemático sino también los aspectos de lengua tanto BICS como CALP, además de la cultura y las competencias.

Qué elementos consideras esenciales o imprescindibles para la formación inicial del profesorado en este marco.

Ese es un tema en el que estoy trabajando para un artículo. A lo largo del proceso de investigación para la creación del Marco Europeo para CLIL, realizamos varios talleres con expertos de todos los países que forman parte del Centro Europeo de Lenguas Modernas. Comenzamos pidiéndoles que identificaran las competencias esenciales para el profesorado CLIL a partir de una lista de competencias que nosotros les facilitamos. Poco a poco fuimos mejorando el Marco hasta que se ha convertido en lo que ahora es. Una vez publicado el Marco hemos seguido realizando seminarios y sesiones de formación solicitando a instituciones que organizan, diseñan y llevan a cabo formación del profesorado tanto inicial como continua que identificaran las competencias más adecuadas para su contexto. Una de las últimas sesiones se realizó en Graz, con la gran suerte de contar entre sus participantes con Jim Cummings y Alan Dobson. Una de las cuestiones planteadas por Jim Cummings estaba relacionada con este asunto. Quería saber si no nos habíamos planteado priorizar las competencias o los módulos que aparecen en el Marco. Y, sí, nos lo habíamos planteado en su momento pero nuestro objetivo era diseñar un Marco absolutamente flexible, no prescriptivo. En el momento en que empezamos a decir “esto es más importante que aquello” ya estamos prescribiendo de alguna manera. Como

queremos una herramienta que se pueda aplicar en cualquier contexto, recomendamos que sean las propias instituciones las que elijan cuáles son las competencias prioritarias más adecuadas a su propio contexto, Valencia, Madrid, Singapur, Nueva York o Tokio. Esa es la razón por la que no hemos priorizado ni competencias ni módulos; sin embargo en todas estas sesiones en las que han participado expertos de distintas organizaciones, de distintas regiones españolas, de distintos países europeos, tanto las competencias como los módulos que se han priorizado han sido siempre los mismos, con muy pocas diferencias. Hay algunas que todos priorizan aunque hay que señalar que estas iniciativas se han llevado a cabo siempre dentro de un contexto europeo o norteamericano. No sé si las competencias escogidas serían las mismas si se hubieran llevado a cabo por ejemplo en Japón o en Sudamérica aunque intuyo que sí. En Colombia hice una pequeña aproximación y la reacción fue también la misma. Una de las principales preocupaciones al hablar de CLIL es cómo se integran lengua y contenido; una segunda preocupación es cómo se implementa un programa CLIL dentro de un centro escolar; otra es cómo se crea el currículo y otra cómo se diseñan los materiales. Para mí, además, en la implementación de CLIL es fundamental el aspecto de investigación-acción.

Está claro que la investigación es esencial...

Es muy importante para nosotros como académicos pero lo que tú y yo marcaríamos como absolutamente prescriptivo a lo mejor no lo es para otros organismos. Nosotros tenemos un apartado de investigación-acción tanto en el máster como en el grado, no en la asignatura CLIL sino en Didáctica General como una unidad dentro de otra materia. El título de grado de la VIU es un título CLIL porque además de la asignatura CLIL propiamente dicha y las didácticas CLIL de las distintas materias hay CLIL en todas las demás asignaturas. Hay un

aspecto de investigación CLIL en *Metodología Docente*, también en la asignatura *El uso de las TIC en el aula*, e incluso hay CLIL en un apartado que tiene que ver con la familia y la escuela.

¿Se ha demostrado que los resultados en lengua extranjera mejoran con un enfoque CLIL? ¿Qué aspectos se deben tener en cuenta cuando se evalúa la asignatura CLIL?

Todos. Nuestra propuesta es que se evalúe todo. Que, desde luego, sea una evaluación formativa en la que se valoren todas las destrezas lingüísticas. Lo que proponemos, y lo hacíamos ya desde el libro *Uncovering CLIL*, no es realizar únicamente un examen de la materia como tal sino una serie de actividades que sirvan para evaluar la adquisición de las competencias lingüísticas, de contenido y cognitivas. Por ejemplo, una actividad de evaluación puede ser que los alumnos realicen una presentación en *PowerPoint* sobre un tema concreto relacionado con la unidad didáctica. Para ello se les tiene que dar las instrucciones exactas sobre el proceso de elaboración de ese trabajo, sobre los contenidos que deben aparecer en el *PowerPoint* e informarles de los criterios de evaluación. Es decir, evaluar también ítems como que los alumnos hayan sido capaces de cargar en el ordenador el *PowerPoint* antes de empezar la clase, -una competencia relacionada con la autonomía-, o que hayan dividido la presentación entre los miembros del grupo de manera que todos participen, además de hablar el tiempo suficiente para exponer todo el contenido; evaluar si el contenido es correcto y está justificado y si la lengua que utilizan, tanto a nivel oral como a nivel escrito, es la correcta. Evaluar también si el uso del lenguaje académico es el que corresponde, además del uso del lenguaje comunicativo que ellos puedan utilizar en su exposición oral. Son formas de evaluación que trascienden del típico examen pero que demuestran, por ejemplo si los estudiantes están utilizando correctamente los conectores, si utilizan oraciones simples o más

elaboradas, si la ortografía y la pronunciación son correctas. Es imprescindible disponer de una rúbrica que incluya todos los aspectos a evaluar.

Sí, pero algunos profesores no saben exactamente qué evaluar, quizás no den tanta importancia a la lengua si comprueban que el concepto ha sido entendido

Si estamos hablando de integrar y de aprender dos asignaturas a la vez tenemos que evaluar las dos. No podemos evaluar una y no evaluar la otra porque entonces estamos quitando peso a la que no evaluamos. Ahora bien, lo que no podemos hacer es que la lengua penalice al contenido. Debe ser una evaluación doble; En el boletín de notas deben aparecer la nota correspondiente al contenido y una evaluación correspondiente a la lengua que, además, le sirve al profesor para identificar cuáles pueden ser los posibles errores o elementos a mejorar. Si, efectivamente, existe la colaboración que tiene que existir entre el profesor de lengua y el de contenido, el profesor de lengua debe reforzar estos aspectos en su aula. ¿Dónde evalúo la lengua? En el aula de lengua. No se debe penalizar la lengua en el aula de contenido como no se penaliza el contenido en el aula de lengua. Ahora bien, en la asignatura de contenido tiene que haber una nota que indique qué aspectos necesita mejorar el alumno en relación con la lengua. Debemos tener claro que los alumnos necesitan tiempo para poderse expresar; al principio oyen, leen y escriben pero hablar les cuesta mucho. Cuando empiezan a hablar tienen muchas dudas. Hay que tener paciencia porque la producción oral es lo último que ocurre siempre. Cuando uno escribe tiene tiempo de volver atrás, cuando uno habla menos. Hay que tener paciencia y ser consciente de que los resultados se obtienen después de un tiempo, que no es algo inmediato. No obstante hay que evaluarlo, si no lo haces estás perdido. Si un alumno que habitualmente obtiene buenos resultados suspende la asignatura de *Science*, es

posible que el profesor no esté utilizando la metodología adecuada.

No siempre el profesor es el responsable ¿no crees que la culpa también es de su falta de formación?

Por supuesto, ha habido centros a los que se ha informado de repente de que al año siguiente serían centros bilingües e iban a impartir esta o aquella asignatura en una lengua adicional. La opción que tiene el centro es que no se haga o se haga mal. La mayoría de los profesores que han empezado a hacer CLIL son autodidactas. Se han ido formando porque han leído, porque han intercambiado experiencias, porque han ido a un congreso.

Una última pregunta. ¿Cuál crees que es la mayor dificultad a la que se enfrenta el profesado CLIL español en este momento?

La falta de formación tanto lingüística como metodológica y, evidentemente, el acceso a los materiales. Si el profesor no tiene competencias lingüísticas no puede dar su clase en una lengua extranjera. Que un maestro de Educación Primaria esté dando clase en una lengua adicional con un nivel B1 del MCERL no es lo ideal. Los profesores son el modelo lingüístico. Los profesores y los maestros que están haciendo CLIL deberían tener como mínimo entre B2 plus y C1 y recibir la formación metodológica que les posibilite enseñar una lengua. Yo hablo italiano pero no lo puedo enseñar porque no tengo formación para enseñar italiano. Esto es lo que les ocurre a muchos profesores de contenidos curriculares de secundaria. Dominan su materia, pero no se les ha enseñado a enseñar. Sus dificultades aumentan cuando tienen que utilizar una lengua extranjera como lengua vehicular. Lo normal es que entren en el aula y sigan haciendo en la lengua adicional lo mismo que harían en la propia. Eso no es CLIL.

María Jesús Frigols Martín es la principal especialista que se ocupa de la metodología CLIL en la *Valencian International University* (VIU). Actualmente trabaja en el diseño curricular de bi-lectoescritura para Educación Superior (desarrollo profesional del docente), plurilingüismo y diseño de competencias para educación bilingüe. Desde el año 2000 ha participado en el desarrollo de la investigación, búsqueda de evidencias sólidas y buenas prácticas CLIL en Europa, Estados Unidos, Canadá, Japón, Emiratos Árabes y Sudamérica, actuando también como asesora en sectores públicos y privados. Desde 2000 hasta 2010 coordinó el equipo internacional encargado de desarrollar el Marco de Europeo de Referencia para la Formación del Profesorado CLIL (*European Framework for CLIL Teacher Education*). Asimismo, es especialista en educación en contextos trilingües y miembro del equipo de una publicación especializada en el campo de la investigación sobre distintos enfoques educativos relacionados con la bi-lectoescritura. Durante los años 2008-2009 formó parte del equipo de investigación internacional responsable de la publicación de *The Contribution of Multilingualism to Creativity* (Comisión Europea, Octubre 2009) centrado en la interrelación entre biología, la ciencia cognitiva y educación y su impacto en el aprendizaje y la educación bilingüe. En 2008 fue galardonada por *The English Speaking Union* por la publicación de su trabajo sobre CLIL y en 2009 obtuvo *The Estonian Education Sciences Award for Applied Didactics*. Es coautora de *Uncovering CLIL* (Macmillan, 2008).

Charla llevada a cabo en la VIU, en Mayo de 2012

Criteria for producing CLIL learning material

Peeter Mehisto

Abstract

This article first describes some general criteria that can be applied to the development of any type of learning materials. Second, the article lists criteria for creating CLIL (content and language integrated learning)-specific learning materials, and provides examples of how to apply each proposed criterion whilst also providing a corresponding rationale with references. Third, additional requirements pertaining, among others, to technical, environmental and social issues that apply equally to CLIL and non-CLIL materials are presented. This article aims to serve as a practical tool for CLIL materials development, hence it uses an atypical format and structure.

Key words: CLIL, learning materials, criteria, social issues

Resumen

Este artículo describe en primer lugar un conjunto de criterios que pueden aplicarse a la elaboración de cualquier tipo de material docente. En segundo lugar, el artículo ofrece una lista de criterios para crear materiales de aprendizaje CLIL específicos, sugiriendo ejemplos de cómo aplicar cada criterio, al tiempo que su justificación teórica. En tercer lugar, presenta una serie de requisitos adicionales relacionados, entre otras, con cuestiones técnicas, ambientales y sociales que pueden aplicarse tanto a materiales CLIL como a otros materiales. Al ser el objetivo del artículo servir de herramienta práctica para la elaboración de materiales CLIL, el artículo presenta un formato y una estructura atípicos.

Palabras clave: CLIL, materiales docentes, criterios, cuestiones sociales

1. Introduction

In educational contexts, learning materials can be defined as information and knowledge that are represented in a variety of media and formats, and that support the achievement of intended learning outcomes. Learning materials are in adherence with the objectives and requirements of a regional or national curriculum.

CLIL is a dual-focused teaching and learning approach in which the L1 (first language) and an additional language or two are used for promoting both content mastery and language acquisition to pre-defined levels.¹ Although CLIL is used to refer to a wide range of programmes from those that use the L2² for teaching one short content module or one content subject such as History or Science to those programmes that use the L2 for teaching half or more of the curriculum (Marsh *et al.*, 2009), nonetheless, these programmes seek in the long term to support students in achieving:

¹ This definition builds on an earlier one by Maljers *et al.* (2007), and has benefited from personal communication with Genesee (2010) and Frigols Martin (2010). Cf. Coyle *et al.* (2010), Mehisto *et al.* (2008) and Ruiz de Zarobe *et al.* (2010) for an overview of CLIL practice. It is noteworthy that if levels of language proficiency to be achieved have not been defined in a regional or a national curriculum, various language proficiency guidelines can be used as a point of departure for their articulation. The American Council of the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL), the Centre for Applied Linguistics (CAL), Cambridge ESOL, and the Council of Europe all offer such frameworks.

² The term *L2* refers to a student's second language. For simplicity's sake, in this article *L2* refers to an additional language (in addition to the L1) that is used as a medium of instruction. At the same time, it is recognised that for

- age-appropriate levels of L1 competence in reading, writing, speaking and listening
- age-appropriate levels of advanced proficiency in L2 reading, writing, speaking and listening
- Grade-appropriate³ levels of academic achievement in non-language school subjects, such as Mathematics and Science taught primarily through the L2 and in those taught primarily through the L1
- an understanding and appreciation of the L1 and L2 cultures⁴
- the capacity for and interest in intercultural communication⁵
- the cognitive and social skills and habits required for success in an ever-changing world (Mehisto, 2012: 7).

2. General Principles

Ideally, all learning materials are meant to support students and teachers, not restrict them. Each teacher determines how and to what extent a book or other learning materials will be used.

Quality learning materials foster the creation of relational links between intended learning, students' lives, the community, and various school subjects. They help students understand how learning is and can be applied in and outside of school. They seek to build intrinsic motivation to problem-solve and learn. Quality learning materials guide students in seeking out and using other resources (sources) for learning.

They are part of a larger narrative that seeks to progressively develop students' content knowledge and language skills so that they are able to comprehend, conceptualise, systematise, appreciate and contemplate facts and experiences, and so that they are able to effectively communicate their own understandings and opinions through speech and writing. In addition, quality learning materials help students to build learning skills by, for example, making visible learning goals/intended outcomes, and by supporting planning and assessment of progress in achieving those goals/outcomes.

Quality learning materials do more than just communicate information. They promote critical and creative thought, discussion and learner autonomy. At the same time, quality learning materials help students recognise the limitations of their current thinking and learning. They help students to understand when they need additional information and help. They also promote mutual understanding in social situations in order to contribute to joint problem-solving.

Content and illustrations avoid bias and stereotypes which incite social class, gender, ethnic, cultural, life style or racial prejudice. They build intercultural knowledge, skills and constructive attitudes vis-à-vis diverse peoples and cultures. When taken as a whole, quality materials include people of all professions and

individual students from immigrant or minority backgrounds the L2 can be their third (L3) or even fourth language (L4).

³ A Grade is a synonym for a particular academic year, e.g. Grade one of the first year.

⁴ Culture is defined as 'the shared patterns of behaviors and interactions, cognitive constructs, and affective understanding that are learned through a process of socialization' (CARLA 2012). For teachers to consciously integrate elements of culture into CLIL they can draw on the following often interrelated categories -art, attitudes, beliefs, concepts of the universe, cuisine, events, experience, film, hierarchies, knowledge, literature, material objects, meanings, media, music, notions of time, possessions, practices, religion, rituals, roles, spatial relations, and values – in order to help students to engage with part of that culture. At the same time teachers would need to take into account that no cultural construct is likely to be a monolithic symbol embraced by all members of a language community, and that culture is dynamic and therefore constantly changing.

⁵ Each school or school district is advised to define what is meant by intercultural communication, and how a student's intercultural competence can be measured. (Cf. Candelier *et al.*'s 2010 Framework of Reference for Pluralistic Approaches to Languages and Cultures which atomises cultural knowledge, attitudes and skills in the form of measurable descriptors.)

backgrounds making a positive contribution to society. Quality materials help students develop media literacy, as well as to navigate prejudice and build inclusion.

It is important that learning materials help students to understand their role in the family and other groupings, and in society at large so that students can make a positive contribution in those contexts. Quality materials encourage students to treat others with respect, and promote behaviour that reflects an educated, rational and active sense of responsibility. Quality learning materials progressively promote students' sense of belonging and engagement as a citizen of their own country, of supranational organisations such as the European Union, and of the world at large.

3. Specific criteria

CLIL-specific learning materials support the creation of enriched learning environments where students can simultaneously learn both content and language, whilst becoming more adept learners of both.

Quality CLIL materials are cognitively highly demanding for learners who need to assume the additional challenge of learning through an L2. However, excessive cognitive load can be avoided by incorporating enhanced scaffolding and other learner support mechanisms to help students reach well beyond what they could do on their own. Quality learning materials help students build a sense of security in experimenting with language, content, and the management of their own learning. In addition, quality CLIL materials are highly integrative and multilayered and they help increase the likelihood that both content and language learning will be meaningful.

The following ten criteria for the development of quality CLIL materials take into account the added challenges posed by CLIL for both the learner and for educators, and seek to apply aspects of good pedagogy in a CLIL-specific manner. Each of these criteria seeks to maintain a dual focus on content and language.

1. Quality CLIL materials:

- make the learning intentions (language, content, learning skills) & process visible to students.	
For example: Content 1. You can name in writing the fifteen major tectonic plates. 2. You can explain how tectonic plates affect one another.	make up the earth's crust form major tectonic plates to be in constant movement pass each other collide into each other move under (on top of) each other melt into molten rock / become magma release gases cause volcanic eruptions
Language 3. You can use analogies in scientific descriptions, including explaining their limitations.	to move as slowly as fingernails grow Shield volcanoes resemble a Roman soldier's shield lying on the ground. They are, however, much wider and taller.
Learning skills 4. You will be able to summarise other students' ideas	'MJ predicts that the next level-seven eruption will occur in Italy in [...], because on average there is a level-seven eruption every [...] years.'
NB: It is important to break intended learning down into short and long-term planned outcomes that are incorporated into learning materials. Furthermore, quality CLIL materials draw links between planned short and long-term language, content and learning skills outcomes. It is also expected that learning outcomes are realistic, but challenging.	

Rationale:

Marzano (1998: 127) and Hattie (2009: 246, 2012: 47-49) both argue that setting clear instructional goals for students, and providing feedback on how students are progressing towards these have a powerful effect on student learning, as well as on improving cognition and student achievement. Wood *et al.* (1987) found that challenging goals significantly increased learning. For students to be able to achieve a learning goal, they need to first know and understand that goal (Black *et al.* 2004: 14). In the domain of language learning both Gardner (1985) and MacIntyre (2002) argue that visible goals are central to building and maintaining learner motivation.

2. Quality CLIL materials:**- systematically foster academic language proficiency.****For example:**

Scientific language is drawn to the attention of students by identifying its various component parts in the learning material or by asking students to identify within the materials: its characteristics (tone, unemotional and factual, evidence-based vs personal opinion); its functions (separating and explaining causes and consequences); connectors for comparing and contrasting (however, but, on the other hand, in contrast, in the same way, conversely, on the contrary); subject-specific vocabulary (sternum vs breastbone); words with different meanings (omnivore vs animal that eats all kinds of food); and other subject-specific vocabulary and discourse patterns. In addition, key structures, terminology, phrases and sets of phrases can be highlighted.

As academic language is often decontextualized (little information about context, and meaning is conveyed primarily by linguistic clues), CLIL materials can provide additional contextual information to help students to process the language. Also, as academic language is more precise than the language used for social discourse, CLIL materials can contrast both of these types of language to make them visible to students.

Content subject materials can include intended language outcomes to foster ongoing, step-by-step growth in a student's use of academic language. Short-term language outcomes are linked to long-term outcomes so students can better see the progress they have made and what still remains to be learned.

Rationale:

For students to develop academic language proficiency a systematic effort is required by educators and students across Grade levels (Cloud *et al.* 2000: 14). In general, it is thought that it takes about 4-7 years for immigrant students in English speaking environments to develop academic language proficiency (Hakuta 2000: 10; Cummins 2000: 586). Faced with teaching challenging academic content to students who are far from proficient in their L2, teachers could resort to task reduction and simplification. Cummins (2007: 126)⁷ warns that if teachers make student tasks cognitively easier than foreseen in the curriculum, they may inadvertently trap students in an impoverished learning environment, where they will not be able to learn the language and content they need for academic success. Quality materials that help draw attention to the component parts of academic language and their use, act as a scaffold for content teachers who may also find it challenging to identify and teach the language of their subject.

⁷ Cf. Cummins (2007: 126) referring to Mackay (1992: 162-163).

3. Quality CLIL materials:

- foster learning skills development and learner autonomy.

For example:

Prior to a challenging text, a learning material could contain a think-pair-share exercise requiring students to brainstorm ways of coping with the language and/or the content in a difficult text. Or, in a similar context, the learning material can guide students through a research exercise to find 10 ways of coping with the language and/or content in difficult texts. Or, it could include a pre-reading assignment asking students to skim or scan a text for unfamiliar words and to guess their meaning prior to reading. Or the material could ask students to read a text several times for different purposes such as once for analysing some aspects of language, and a second time to find three key ideas contained therein.

A book chapter can, right at the beginning include an initial exercise that asks students questions about the given chapter's subheadings and diagrams or that asks students to first read the conclusion and to speculate on what is behind key conclusions.

Instead of simply giving a research assignment to students, learning materials can ask students to first plan for undertaking and writing up the research report.

Materials can also include learning skills tips on how to efficiently complete an assignment.

Materials can seek to help students determine what they think and feel, as well as provide some level of choice.

Rationale:

Marzano (1998: 112) states that 'metacognition drives learning' pointing to the need to help students to step back from an activity and analyse their thinking processes. In situations where students are faced with intellectually challenging tasks, Veenman *et al.* (2002: 337)⁸ found that meta-cognitive skills are a greater determinant of student achievement than intellectual ability as measured by IQ tests. Watkins (2005: 80)⁹ reports on a study that reviewed GCSE¹⁰ examination results in England, and found that students who 'plan the least have just 30 per cent of the scores of pupils who plan the most.'

Hattie (2012: 103) stresses that although some simple strategies such as mnemonics can be taught outside a content domain, 'most strategies have to be taught within the content domain'.

Arnau (1998: 95)¹¹ sees the teacher as a mediator of learning who gradually yields control over the language learning process to learners themselves who are intrinsically motivated. Students' intrinsic motivation or inner motives are undermined when teachers are controlled-oriented, as their instructional agenda 'defines what students should think, feel, and do' (Reeve *et al.*, 2004: 148). Reeve *et al.* (2004: 165) found that the more teachers display 'autonomy-supportive instructional behaviors, the more engagement their students [show].' Similarly, Deci *et al.* (1982: 859) argue that controlling environments are likely to 'impair learning' while 'intrinsic motivation improves learning.'

In the field of language learning numerous scholars argue that students need to be supported in becoming autonomous learners (Holec, 1981; Kohonen, 2009; Little, 2008). Knouzi *et al.* (2010: 24) propose that language learners self-scaffold their own learning developing a form of 'private speech' referred to as 'languageing' so they can better manage their own thinking about and learning of language. Similarly, Edmonson (2009: 178) posits that 'good language learners' are aware of themselves and of how they learn language: they regularly analyse 'grammar, and constantly look for patterns and regularities' and 'analyse the target language as a means of communication, they monitor their progress. They are in a word 'active' learners.' Oxford (2011: 5) suggests that developing meta-cognitive, meta-affective and meta-social strategies plays a central role in helping the language learner to take charge of his or her learning.

⁸ Based on initial inductive learning with a complex computer simulation.

⁹ Cf. Watkins (2005: 80) referring to Atkinson (1999).

¹⁰ General Certificate of Secondary Education

¹¹ Cf. Arnau (1998: 95) referring to Moll (1989).

4. Quality CLIL materials:

- include self, peer and other types of formative assessment.

For example:

Quality CLIL-content materials at various points include reflection on and assessment of the following: achievement of content and language goals (planned outcomes); achievement of learning skills goals; use of language for various purposes (i.e., academic, social, business registers); ability to work with authentic materials, as well as with native and non-native speakers of the CLIL language; willingness to experiment with content and language; ongoing growth of language (avoiding 'plateauing').

If a textbook contains an assignment (e.g., a project), the steps of the assignment can include having students develop content and language (self, peer, teacher) assessment criteria for the final product of an assignment. This could also include having pairs of students revisit their peer assessments after students receive the teacher's assessment. Materials can also build in assessments of drafts prior to work being handed in for a final grade, as the feedback from these assessments has an outlet for immediate application thus helping to increase the possibility that it will be taken into account (that it will be formative).

As well, a textbook can ask students to measure language growth over time by encouraging them to plot their marks and needed learning on a grid. Students could then be asked to draw conclusions, set targets, and develop plans for meeting those targets.

Rationale:

Assessment is seen as pivotal for learning. The British Qualifications and Curriculum Authority (QCA) deems assessment as 'central to classroom practice' (2007). Materials that do not include assessment decrease the likelihood that assessment will be used in an optimal manner as a tool for learning. The QCA also points to the need for students to learn about how learning takes place and for assessment to be constructive taking into account the emotional impact of comments, marks and grades.

'Assessment for learning is any assessment for which the first priority in its design and practice is to serve the purpose of promoting students' learning' (Black *et al.* 2004: 10). When teachers and students use feedback from assessment in assessing themselves and each other that assessment is deemed to be *formative assessment* if both use that evidence to improve their practices (*ibid.*). In their review of over 250 research articles Black and Wiliam (2010: 82) conclude that assessment for learning significantly improves student achievement and raises standards of education. Although others feel more evidence is required to prove the cause and effect relationship between assessment for learning and student achievement, there is general agreement that it helps to improve teaching practice, and student attitudes and engagement in learning (Stobart 2008: 155; Hattie 2012: 126 referring to Yeh 2011).

5. Quality CLIL materials:

- help create a safe learning environment.

For example:

Materials can foster 'cognitive fluency'¹² by avoiding cognitive overload. When challenging content concepts are being introduced, an additional measure of language scaffolding is provided to allow the student to focus primarily on understanding the concepts. Information and assignment are generally broken into smaller chunks than might be the case with L1 materials. Materials provide appropriate navigation support such as advance organisers.

Materials avoid sarcasm and ridicule. Materials are respectful of diversity and foster inclusion.

Materials foster meta-affective awareness by asking students questions about how certain exercises or assignments make them feel, and suggest coping strategies.

¹² Unkelbach (2006: 339) states that 'cognitive fluency is the experienced ease of ongoing conceptual or perceptual cognitive processes.'

Rationale:

The Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD 2007: 154) in its report entitled *Understanding the Brain* stresses the interdependence of emotion and cognition. The report argues that '[e]specially important for educational purposes is the analysis of fear and stress, which shows how they, for instance, reduce analytical capacity, and vice versa how positive emotions open doors within the brain' (*ibid.*). This is in line with Bruner's (1996: 25) view that education needs to provide skills for dealing with feelings. In authentic learning environments people feel safe, and positive emotions hold the potential of enhancing learning. In bilingual education, it is particularly important for students to feel free to experiment with the L2 and challenging content without the fear of making mistakes.¹³ Mehisto *et al.* (2008: 105) concur, and draw a link between creating a safe learning environment and high expectations for all stating that is paramount for teachers to believe that all of their students will succeed and to make this belief visible to each student.

6. Quality CLIL materials:**- foster cooperative learning.****For example:**

Materials structure peer cooperative work so as to foster: positive interdependence; face-to-face interaction; individual and group accountability; interpersonal and small-group skills; and group processing (Johnson *et al.*, 1998).

In a CLIL context, learning material would provide some of the language needed for doing peer cooperative work such as terminology and sets of phrases required to manage group work, to foster critical thinking and to test and analyse group work results.

Learning materials can build in an assessment grid for students to evaluate mid-assignment or upon completion how effectively their group is or has been working to achieve planned outcomes. This might include criteria about amount of CLIL language used during group work.

Rationale:

Johnson and Johnson (2002: 103) who conducted a meta-analysis of research studies into cooperative learning found that when compared to individualistic learning, cooperative learning had a high effect size of 0.64 on student achievement. The effect size of cooperative learning on achievement was twice that of the effect size for competitive learning, and cooperative learning was also found to build student self-esteem. Similarly, Roseth *et al.* (2008) in a review of 148 independent studies covering eight decades and 11 countries found very similar results.

Goldenberg (2008: 13), who reviewed five meta-studies on language learning, stresses that effective instruction provides 'ample opportunities to use the second language in meaningful and motivating situations.' Peer cooperative work is one key way of creating such opportunities. Coyle *et al.* (2010: 37) who also stress the value of cooperative learning in CLIL contexts, concomitantly call for educators to provide students with both the 'language of learning' and the 'language for learning' with the former consisting of the 'language needed for learners to access basic concepts and skills relating to the subject theme or topic' and the latter consisting of the 'language needed to operate in a foreign language environment' to engage, for example, in group work, debate or enquiry.

¹³ Cf. Boynton (2005: 89); Carmody (2005: 60).

7. Quality CLIL materials:

- seek ways of incorporating authentic language and authentic language use.

For example:

Quality learning materials incorporate language from the media, and seek to create a relationship between the reader or listener and the passage or electronic clip.

Materials incorporate language used in everyday speech in different social and work contexts (genres, domains, registers).

Materials seek to lead students to other sources of language through the Internet, music or other media.

Assignments in materials seek to use language and content for authentic purposes such as the development of a plan for improving a school playground or reducing bullying, an analysis of students' weekly diets and the potential implications of maintaining those diets over several decades, measuring tall trees or structures within the local community without climbing them, working with L2 speakers in another community to compare annual rainfall and its consequences, working to identify ways in which two different communities have dealt with gang violence, or debating any number of issues touching students' lives.

Materials can encourage discussion and dialogic discourse where students can sort out and test their thinking. Learning materials can ask students to formulate questions instead of just answer them. They can encourage students to explain their reasoning (e.g. instead of asking the answer to a maths question, students first explain how to solve a problem, and to reflect on further ways to solve it).

Authentic materials would also make cultural connections and help build their knowledge about diverse people and cultures (see footnote 5). For example, a short overview can be provided or students can be encouraged to research mathematicians such as Pythagoras and Ramanujan. Materials can have students investigate street patterns using Google Earth or offer excerpts from primary sources such as President Kennedy's 1963 Berlin Wall speech and an article on that speech which appeared in the Soviet newspaper *Pravda*.

Rationale:

Based on Krashen's (1991: 409) 'input hypothesis' language learning is largely dependent on the quality (including range) of language input. Teachers are said to have their own register of language often referred to as 'teacherese' whose dominant 'functions are more likely to be those of management and control, and to encourage reasoning, rather than facilitate language acquisition' (Hopwood and Gallaway 1999: 175). This restricts the range of language being modelled for and used by the students. Materials can balance this by bringing in a much broader range of language into the learning environment.

Authentic or genuine¹⁴ materials, although considered by researchers¹⁵ and practitioners¹⁶ as central to effective and meaningful language learning, do not necessarily lead to authentic learning environments. As van Lier (1996: 126) points out, 'it is easy to bring genuine pieces of language into the classroom, but to create authentic opportunities of language use on their basis appears to be quite another matter.' Authenticity resides in the teacher-student relationship and in how materials are worked with. Therefore, materials need to incorporate ways of using both the content and language in authentic ways through, for example, assignments that seek to personalise the content and make connections with the student's world. Legenhausen (2009: 382, 384-385) proposes that in authentic language learning environments students have a say in setting up activities; their previous knowledge is activated; flexibility and openness characterise tasks; creativity, self-discovery and self-awareness are promoted, as are group dynamics and social management skills; learning outcomes and processes are negotiated and evaluated; and, accommodations are made for individual differences.

In a similar vein, Alexander (2010: 306) suggests that effective teaching is 'dialogic' and, when

¹⁴ Widdowson (1979: 80) makes a distinction between genuine and authentic language use, with genuine referring to language currently in use in the media that has not been created for language learning, and with authenticity being 'a characteristic of the relationship between the passage and the reader' and the appropriateness of response.

¹⁵ Cf. Coyle *et al.* (2010: 50, 55); Hunter and Cooke (2007: 83).

¹⁶ Cf. Canadian Association of Immersion Teachers (2009: 45), Cloud *et al.* (2000).

seeking ‘to exploit the true potential of talk’, classroom practice is: collective (teachers and students working together); reciprocal (teachers and students listen to each other and share ideas); supportive (free of fear, building common understandings); cumulative (building on each other’s ideas to create a common line of inquiry); and, purposeful (focused on meeting visible educational goals). If learning materials encourage and scaffold interaction and students in exploring their thinking with others, they are more likely to lead to their authentic use.

Finally, Coyle *et al.* 2010 argue that culture is a central tenant of teaching and learning in CLIL.

8. Quality CLIL materials:

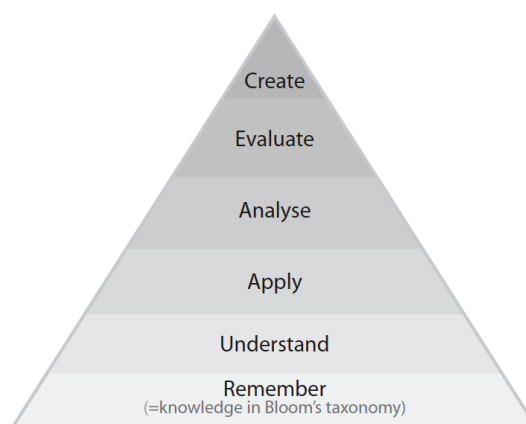
- foster critical thinking.

For example:

The majority of questions and assignments in CLIL materials avoid asking students to report back on fact-based questions, but instead focus on having students apply, analyse, evaluate and create something based on the information presented in the materials.

On an ongoing basis, CLIL materials foster critical thinking about content, language and learning skills.

FOSTERING CRITICAL THINKING



(Anderson, Krathwohl *et al.* 2000)

Rationale:

Cognitively challenging learning experiences are more meaningful for students than less challenging ones. According to Baddeley (2004: 161) students are more likely to recall details from a cognitively challenging than an easy problem. Lindholm-Leary (2001: 139) in her research into dual language education found that ‘students were no more likely to incorrectly answer a high-order question than a lower-order one.’ Moreover, if content teachers do not create intellectually challenging environments for both content and language, they will likely weaken learning opportunities for their students (Cummins 2007).

As well, Lyster (2007: 42-43) points out that ‘language features learned in isolated grammar lessons may be remembered [...] during a grammar test,’ but that they are less likely to be retrieved during content classes. This is also likely to be the case if content teachers do not maintain high expectations vis-à-vis language learning and learning skills development, and if they do not offer students support in doing so. Materials have an important role in helping students and teachers to maintain this triple focus.

9. Quality CLIL materials:

- foster cognitive fluency through scaffolding of a) content, b) language, c) learning skills development helping student to reach well beyond what they could do on their own.

For example:

Language can be scaffolded by: repeating new nouns as opposed to using pronouns; shortening sentences and paragraphs; inserting synonyms in parentheses; providing explanations of some key vocabulary and expressions in the margins; asking students to first brainstorm related language; grouping language according to use (e.g., procedures, equipment, personal attitudes); presenting information in two side-by-side boxes using two different registers of language; embedding electronic pronunciation and dictionary links for difficult terms; using wordsmyth.com or wordchamp.com.

Content can be scaffolded by: helping students in an introductory paragraph or assignment to access their tacit knowledge and to connect the topic to their lives; providing an advance organiser; using other graphic organisers such as Venn diagrams, tables and charts; avoiding compound sentences; shortening paragraphs; highlighting or underlining key ideas or facts; using plenty of subheadings; providing sample answers or exemplars of good work; showing what falls outside of a concept, as well as what it includes; providing electronic links to animations.

Learning skills can be scaffolded by: providing a sample correct answer at the start of an exercise; spotlighting samples of well done student work; providing a commented sample of poorly done student work; including planning, monitoring and evaluation tasks; asking students to guess meaning from context; providing electronic samples of recasting and error correction techniques.

Rationale:

Scaffolding ‘leads learners to reach beyond what they are able to achieve alone, to participate in new situations and to tackle new tasks’ (Gibbons 2002: 8). Research from the neurosciences shows that when initially faced with a cognitively challenging problem the brain needs to bring considerable resources to bear in order to solve it (Howard-Jones, 2007: 17). Students in CLIL contexts face the additional challenge of learning through an L2 and as such require additional scaffolding (Walqui 2006: 169-178) to avoid cognitive overload. Walqui (*ibid.*: 169-178) proposes scaffolding strategies for CLIL such as modelling (providing examples for imitation), bridging (building on previous knowledge and understandings), contextualising (adding context to academic language), schema building (providing thinking frameworks such as charts or advance organisers), re-presenting text (using a new genre to present the same content), and developing meta-cognition (building learning skills strategies such as planning, monitoring, and evaluating).

The ultimate goal of scaffolding is to support students in becoming self-directed learners who can seek out resources and people to support them in their ongoing learning. Knouzi *et al.* (2010: 23-24) suggest that students use ‘*languageing or self-explaining [...] to intentionally organize and control their mental processes during the performance of cognitively complex tasks.*’ Knouzi *et al.* (*ibid.*: 23) consider ‘*languageing*’ a form of self-scaffolding. Although some learners are more adept than others at using this form of self-scaffolding skill, ‘*with supportive teaching [it] can be made available to most learners*’ (*ibid.*: 47).

10. Quality CLIL materials:

- help to make learning meaningful.

For example:

Quality materials help explain the relevance of intended learning. They ask students to explain how intended learning is tied to their lives by asking specific questions about how this learning can be used by them or by others in the community.

Materials seek to connect intended learning with students' interests, their lives and their community/communities. They make connections to previous learning when presenting new facts and concepts. They seek to deepen previous learning.

Materials draw cross-curricular links and incorporate cross-curricular projects.

Materials foster cooperative learning, visualisation and hands-on activities. They offer students choice, and some control over the learning process.

Materials focus on fostering critical thinking including applying, analysing, evaluating and creating. This is applied to language, content and learning skills.

Rationale:

When faced with new information the 'brain immediately begins a filtering process to determine which data are relevant' and what should be discarded (Westwater and Wolfe 2000: 49). Connections are at the root of relevance. Howard-Jones (2007: 18) argues that meaning is physically constructed in the brain so that '[w]hen we learn new information, the links that form between this new information and our existing knowledge serve to make it meaningful.' Howard-Jones (*ibid.*) argues that this is central to understanding and recall of information. Petty (2006: 235) states that 'relational links are the glue that fixes learning in the memory.' Making connections in a classroom can involve helping students to access their current knowledge, understandings, attitudes and learning skills, part of which may be tacit. To build relational links, several practitioners and researchers suggest teachers in bilingual education organise the 'curriculum around content-based thematic concept(s)' (Fortune 2000: 2-4).¹⁷ Baker (2006: 344) considers classroom 'cross-curricular approaches' as a requirement for promoting biliteracy development. In addition, Howard-Jones (*ibid.*) points to the power of visualisation. Doidge (2007: 201-204)¹⁸ documents several cases where visualisation has helped improve performance in sport or helped someone to learn to play the piano.

Drawing on the National Assessment for Educational Progress study of 9-year olds in the United States and the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) scores for 15-year olds from 32 countries, Guthrie (2004: 5) argues that students:

whose family background was characterized by low income and low education, but who were highly engaged readers, substantially outscored students who came from backgrounds with higher education and higher income, but who themselves were less engaged readers. Based on a massive sample, this finding suggests the stunning conclusion that engaged reading can overcome traditional barriers to reading achievement, including gender, parental education, and income.

Guthrie (2004: 10) goes on to state that a meaningful topic and text, sufficient time as well as 'students' self-direction, and collaborative social structures [...] are indispensable to engagement in reading.' Guthrie (2004: 3) also describes engagement as including thinking critically about the text, writing about it, and using learning strategies to cope with the text and gain new knowledge from it. A collaborative social structure provides opportunities to discuss reading and make it more meaningful. Self-direction is a form of empowerment. Writing about one's reading would likely enhance meaning helping to deepen understanding. In fact, without explicitly stating it, Guthrie proposes linking all four language skills when analysing a given topic and text.

Meaningful learning also fosters learner autonomy. Fischer (2009: 5-6) puts forth that:

[w]hen we actively control our experience, that experience sculpts the way that our brains work, changing neurons, synapses, and brain activity.¹⁹ When we are simply exposed to events and information (as opposed to acting on them), our brains and bodies are not much affected.

¹⁷ Cf. also Boynton (2005).

¹⁸ Cf. Doidge (2007: 201-204) referring to Pascual-Leone *et al.* (1995), Yue and Cole (1992).

¹⁹ Cf. Fischer (2009: 5) referring to Hubel and Wiesel (1970), Singer (1995).

4. Other requirements: Introduction

Although not specific to CLIL, the following requirements, issues and criteria need to be taken into account by those developing CIL materials so as to ensure that they conform to the general norms of published student learning materials.

5. Technical requirements

1. Printed learning materials must conform to the technical requirements set by local or national education authorities, including that they must be large enough for a child to hold comfortably, conform to weight limits and use required font sizes.
2. In kindergarten block letters should be used. No emphasis is to be marked on syllables.
3. Art styles and colours within a page or on facing pages should not conflict with one another.
4. Electronic materials must conform to the technical requirements set by local or national education authorities, including ensuring that they also foster face-to-face communication with others, that they direct students to non-electronic sources of learning, that they meet navigability and safety requirements, that they help students to assess and regulate their use of electronic media, and that they foster the development of media literacy.

5. Environmental issues

Transportation should draw attention to environmental sustainability. Preference is given to public transportation as opposed to large cars and sport utility vehicles, especially with only one occupant unless attention is drawn to that occupant's carbon footprint.

1. People should also be shown walking or riding a bicycle to reach their destinations safely (e.g., riding a bicycle that has lights and reflectors while wearing a helmet).
2. Preference is given to depicting situations which reflect an average standard of living. Subject matter and illustrations should avoid focusing on objects which suggest great wealth (luxury yachts, private helicopters and jets, expensive jewellery) or abject poverty, unless they are subject to analysis and used in direct support of meeting intended learning outcomes.
3. Not only should consideration be given to reflecting the current level of technological development, but every effort should be made to take into account projected trends such as the ever-increasing and innovative use of communications and medical technologies.
4. The environment and human activity should demonstrate respect for plants as living things, regardless of whether they are cultivated or growing in the wild. The same should be done in the case of domestic, domesticated and wild animals. Regulations regarding endangered species must be respected.
5. City, suburban and rural life should not be idealised or glamorised, and a balance of different settings should be used.
6. When depicting urban areas, special attention should be paid to presenting them as healthy, people-friendly environments for both children and adults, unless analysis of a failing urban setting is part of the intended learning.
7. Where appropriate, text and illustrations should reflect the growing emphasis on reducing consumption, reuse, recycling, renewable energy and the use of local products.

8. Social issues

A. The elderly

1. Elderly women and men should generally be depicted as having healthy, dignified and rich lives, unless a contrary depiction is clearly tied to a lesson to be learned.
2. Elderly people should not be arbitrarily depicted in unfashionable clothing or as having unfashionable hairstyles and accessories. Stereotypes such as grey hair, canes, wire-rimmed glasses and rocking chairs, etc. should not dominate.
3. Middle-aged and elderly persons should be depicted actively engaged with younger generations. Groups of people should be made up of people of different ages unless the depiction of one specific age group serves a particular purpose.
4. Elderly persons should be depicted as involved in many activities which are beneficial to society and the enhancement of their own lives.

B. The Physically Challenged

1. Physically challenged persons should be depicted as part of the group involved in the mainstream of events, and subject matter should include their lifestyles and achievements. They should also be seen in a leadership role.
2. Physically challenged children and adults should be depicted in various environments and interacting with other people.
3. The ability of the physically challenged to cope with everyday life and to adapt to the environment should be shown.

C. Minorities

1. Photographs and illustrations should convey the ethnic diversity of the region/country.
2. Minorities should be depicted as having social status equal to that of the majority.
3. The names and personalities of characters should reflect a diversity of cultures and social tolerance.
4. Illustrators should bear in mind that not all members of an ethnic group look alike, but rather that physical characteristics vary widely. Portraits of any ethnic group, be it Roma, Koreans, Georgians, Nigerians, Uzbeks or Tartars, should be realistic and recognisable. People of various ethnic backgrounds should be depicted wearing modern day typical dress, and not placed in national costumes without just cause.
5. Exaggerations, which often lead to distortion of physical characteristics, should be avoided. Physical features common to people of certain racial groups should be depicted realistically.
6. Illustrations should promote a positive self-image for people of all ages and ethnic groups. Leadership roles in various activities and professions should be divided proportionately among members of different ethnic groups.
7. When depicting skin colour, artists should make sure that the skin colour is the same once printed, and that it is the same each time for characters that are used repeatedly. Skin tone may vary among members of the same family.
8. Skin tone may be omitted from black and white illustrations if the distinctive features of the ethnic group can be depicted in some other way.

9. Reference to stereotypes regarding social and economic circumstances should be avoided, unless they are portrayed in a historical context, and accompanied by text that helps the reader interpret the given illustration.
10. The cultural contribution and distinctive lifestyles of ethnic groups (such as travellers) should be depicted in a positive, culturally tolerant way.

D. Gender equality

1. Teaching materials should portray a balance of men/boys, and women/girls in active roles and different age groups. Generally a ratio of 50:50 should be adhered to in both content and illustrations.
2. Both sexes should be depicted as being engaged in independent activities, as well as in leadership roles.
3. Both sexes should be depicted in domestic situations, doing household chores and caring for children. The opportunity to portray single parents in a positive light should not be overlooked.
4. In portraying pairs or groups, illustrators should bear in mind that some women are taller than some men.
5. Women should be shown to be as capable of making decisions and as mentally strong as men so that they can serve as role-models for students. The text and illustrations should recognise the contribution of working women.
6. Men should sometimes be shown as caregivers and protectors. The text and illustrations should also recognise the contribution of stay-at-home fathers.
7. Words that specify the gender of a person are to be avoided. Use 'chairperson' not 'chairman', 'flight attendant' not 'stewardess', 'actor' not 'actress', 'mail carrier' not 'mailman'.
8. When depicting children at play, it is important not to show boys playing only with traditional 'boys' toys' and girls playing only with traditional 'girls' toys'.
9. Childhood stereotypes should be avoided: tomboys, sissies, wallflowers, etc.
10. Authors and illustrators should bear in mind that people of both sexes experience a wide range of emotions: fear, terror, anxiety, anger, sorrow, affection, boldness, gentleness, and tenderness.
11. True friendship between people of different sexes should be depicted.
12. Women, regardless of race, should be shown to be involved in the mainstream of events and endeavours. They should not be shown as mere observers or only from a male perspective. In historical contexts where historians often depict men as playing a dominate role, every effort should be made to present a more balanced view by also highlighting the role of women in those contexts. Exceptional women who have made an important contribution to such varied fields as mathematics, geographic exploration, art and science can be highlighted.

E. General social concerns

1. Clothing should be appropriate for the situation and activity depicted.
2. Clothing and jewellery made of leopard skin, ivory and other endangered species should not be shown.
3. Violence and weapons are best not be depicted. At a minimum, learning materials should not support the normalisation of violence.
4. Avoid the use of out-dated photos of contemporary persons and the depiction of 'flash- in-the-pan' celebrities unless the potentially fleeting nature of fame is the focus of intended learning.

5. Materials should not overly reinforce a celebrity culture. When celebrities are depicted critical thought about their lives and actions should be encouraged.
6. The dignity and importance of an honest career in the service industry, trade, business or any other area should be reflected in both the text and illustrations.
7. Materials should reflect the ordinary and not just depict the extraordinary. Students should be able to recognise themselves in the materials.
8. Discussions and illustrations dealing with religion or places of worship should include all major religious groups. Opinions about religion, especially negatives ones, should be avoided.
9. Family groupings should reflect the diversity in society.
10. References in the text or illustrations to satanic rituals or black magic are best avoided. If made, they should be clearly tied to learning intentions and foster critical thought.

8. Criteria for pictures or illustrations

A. People

1. Foreshortening: distorting perspectives can be used as a theatrical device to better convey the events and mood in an illustration. The artist or photographer must take care to ensure that the illustration or picture is comprehensible and unambiguous.
2. Grotesqueries: characterisations and exaggerations of distinctive facial features to emphasise individuality (big nose, big ears, buckteeth, big lips) should be avoided. Facial features must be depicted clearly and accurately.

B. Environments

1. Living environments and backgrounds should reflect the diversity of architecture in the country's different regions.
2. Illustrations or pictures should depict different types of well-maintained housing and avoid depicting extreme wealth or extreme poverty.
3. Illustrations or pictures should depict a variety of building types: apartment buildings, townhouses, single family houses and skyscrapers.
4. Where feasible, a variety of city, suburban and rural settings should be used as a background.
5. Where appropriate, a variety of public buildings should be shown.
6. Telephone numbers shown in illustrations or pictures should begin with the numbers 555 or some other combination of numbers which is not in use.

C. Taboos in art

1. Anatomical inaccuracies should be avoided. For example, eyes and eyelids must be accurately drawn.
2. Trademarks and goods which may serve as advertising for a particular product should be avoided.
3. Illustrations or pictures should not depict so-called 'junk food' such as potato crisps, candy, French fries and other non-nutritious foods.
4. Artists should not depict smoking or the consumption of alcohol or narcotics, or any object that suggests their use unless these depictions are clearly tied to intended learning goals.

5. Violence against people or animals should be avoided. Where the content subject requires that injury be shown, such as in health and safety materials, the depiction should not glorify violence or be excessively graphic.
6. Comical situations and farces should avoid cruelty or violence towards any of the characters.
7. Graffiti should not be depicted unless it is clearly tied to a lesson to be learned.

8. Conclusion

The complexities of CLIL and education in general are such that the above criteria are inextricably interwoven. Making intended learning outcomes and the component parts of academic language visible are central to formative assessment, the fostering of critical thinking about the learning process, and the building of learner autonomy and motivation. Creating opportunities for meaningful learning are connected to the use of authentic language in authentic ways which in turn involves the use of well-structured peer cooperative activities and cross-curricular projects, as well as the development of well-structured opportunities to connect with speakers of the CLIL Language. The on-going and joint scaffolding of content, language and learning skills development can make a substantial contribution to supporting students in facing the additional challenge of learning through an L2 and in thinking critically about language, content and their own learning, which in turn can foster learner autonomy. Finally, CLIL does not operate in a world of its own. CIL materials must conform to the general norms of published student learning materials such as ensuring that they avoid stereotyping, support the development of environmentally sound practices, and foster inclusion. It is the capacity to maintain and apply a multiple focus not only on content, language and learning skills – a challenge in and of itself – but also the application of other CLIL-specific and generally accepted education criteria which are central to the development of quality CLIL learning materials.

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Adapting content subject tasks for bilingual teaching

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Abstract

Teaching content through a foreign language presents students with the double challenge of having to understand new concepts and of doing so through a foreign language. To be successful in meeting this challenge teachers have to adapt their teaching style and the tasks they work on with their students. Often, however, they do not know how to do so, since, while research offers some guidelines for task design, this tends to be rather removed from the teachers' real-world need so as to be of little use to them, so that teachers feel they have to resort to students' L1 when working on difficult concepts. In this article I try to bring together the proposals made by researches in different areas that can contribute to helping teachers adapt the tasks they use in class, and thus make it possible for students to meet the double challenge of bilingual teaching with good possibilities of success.

Key words: bilingual education, BICS/CALP, thinking skills, scaffolding

Resumen

En el aprendizaje de materias de contenido a través de una lengua extranjera el alumno se enfrenta simultáneamente con los retos de entender conceptos desconocidos y hacerlo a través de una lengua extranjera. Para ayudarle a enfrentarse a estos retos con éxito, los profesores deben adaptar tanto su estilo de aprendizaje como las tareas que proponen a los estudiantes. Sin embargo, muchas veces los profesores no saben cómo llevar a cabo esta adaptación ya que, si bien existen modelos provenientes del ámbito de la investigación que hablan de los parámetros que se deben manipular, estos modelos suelen ser demasiado abstractos como para ser de utilidad para los docentes. Esto hace que, muchas veces, cuando la materia se hace más complicada, los enseñantes hagan uso de la L1 de los alumnos para salir del paso. En el presente artículo se pretende unir propuestas hechas por investigadores en diferentes áreas de conocimiento para ayudar a los docentes a adaptar su forma de enseñar y así contribuir a que sus alumnos puedan tener éxito en la tarea de aprender contenidos nuevos a través de una lengua extranjera.

Palabras clave: enseñanza bilingüe, lenguaje académico, habilidades del pensamiento, andamiaje

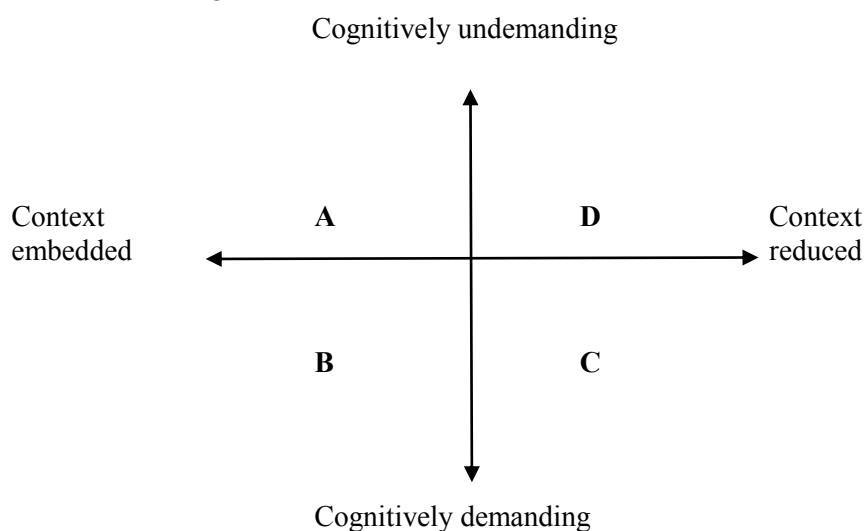
1. Introduction

A student teacher, who had just finished her teaching practice in a bilingual school, approached me with the following question: "The teacher I observed had an incredible way of teaching, but I noticed that he only dealt with basic concepts in class. Anything beyond these basics was dealt with through additional materials he gave students to read in their L1. Do you think this is a good way of solving the difficulty of teaching through a foreign language?"

From what I have been able to observe during these almost nine years now in which bilingual education has become a large-scale project in the Madrid area, this technique of resorting to students' L1 for the more difficult concepts is not unique to our teacher here. As students move up into higher grades, and the contents that have to be taught become increasingly more complex, teachers find it more and more difficult to deal with the challenge inherent in bilingual teaching, namely the combination of new concepts to be learnt with a foreign language medium to do so. Not knowing how to face this challenge, many teachers finally resort to students' L1 for these more complex explanations.

Yet, when turning to the literature, we find that some ideas are proposed to deal with this challenge, most notably the framework proposed by Cummins (2000) to gauge the complexity of language tasks. The model can, however, be applied to tasks in general too, and would help assess the difficulty inherent in understanding an explanation of the water cycle or doing an experiment in a foreign language. According to Cummins, tasks can be placed along the two intersecting continua of context embedded vs. context reduced and cognitively demanding vs. cognitively undemanding. The resulting quadrants reflect, to some extent, the difficulty of the task, with tasks placed in quadrant A being the easiest, while those placed in quadrant C will probably be much more challenging for students.

However, useful as it is, this framework provides only limited assistance to classroom teachers who try to find ways to work on complex contents and thus use certain types of task in their classrooms. While Cummins provides some information about the type of language that can be classified as context–embedded / context–reduced, he does not offer any hints as to what constitutes a cognitively demanding or a cognitively undemanding task beyond saying that this distinction relates "to the amount of information that must be processed simultaneously or in close succession by the student in order to carry out the activity" (Cummins 2000: 66), or vaguely relating the notion of *cognitive challenge* to Bloom's (1956 taxonomy). Generally speaking, the pedagogical implications Cummins does outline are related to the linguistic aspect of the challenge, rather than to the cognitive side of it. Furthermore, the framework provides only little guidance on what to do once a given task has been placed in the corresponding quadrant in order to ease its difficulty and be able to deal with the task. As it is, it would seem that the teacher's move to the L1 in the anecdote at the beginning of this paper, is really the only way forward when dealing with complex contents or tasks, and trying to avoid overburdening the student. Yet, if we look a bit further, we find that there are methodological proposals that can help us flesh out the model proposed by Cummins to make it a useful tool for content subject teachers involved in bilingual education.



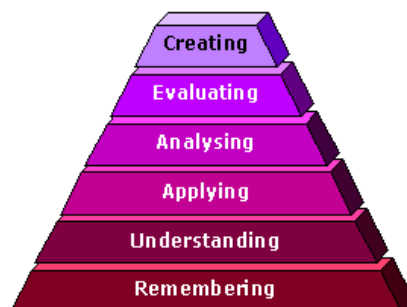
(adapted from Cummins 2000: 68)

2. The dimensions of the task

2.1 The cognitive aspect

To deal with the first difficulty mentioned, that related to knowing what constitutes a cognitively challenging task, Cummins himself mentions using Bloom's (1956) taxonomy. This has more recently been

modified by Anderson & Krathwohl (2001) and distinguishes between higher-order and lower-order thinking skills, creating a ranking from the least (remembering) to the most demanding (creating) types of task according to the cognitive skills they involve:



(taken from <http://www.learningandteaching.info/learning/bloomtax.htm>)

Thus, looking at this taxonomy, we know that tasks that involve recalling data will be placed at the “cognitively undemanding” end of the continuum, while tasks requiring the evaluation and interpretation of data, or the creation of new insights, correspond to the cognitively demanding end (for an adaptation of this framework to EFL tasks, see Waters 2006).

2.2 The linguistic aspect

Cummins (1984) is more explicit about what he means with the *linguistic* dimension of tasks, when, through his distinction between BICS (Basic Interpersonal Communication Strategies) and CALPS (Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency), he calls our attention to the fact that different uses of language pose different types of challenges to the language user. Basically, BICS would be located at the more context-embedded end of the continuum, where language is used for social interaction about the here and now, to speak about things present in the context in which the exchange takes place. CALP, on the contrary, is the language we use for abstraction, to describe less tangible things and processes, to relate things to each other, etc. Therefore, in order to participate in exchanges in which BICS dominates, the student can rely on non-linguistic cues to overcome his/her language shortcomings. When dealing with the de-contextualised language typical of academic exchanges, however, there are fewer extra-linguistic cues to fall back on, and the student has to rely mostly on his (limited) language.

As can be seen, these types of language are very much related to the cognitive demand of the tasks (for a similar point, see Cummins 2007: 121), so that cognitively challenging tasks more likely than not use context-reduced language, while less cognitively challenging tasks will probably also require less abstract language. Also, if, as was mentioned above, cognitive challenge is related to the amount of information that needs to be processed, relying mostly on language also implies a greater challenge than complementing the information transmitted through the language with that coming from the context. Thus, although theoretically possible, it is not very likely that, if we look at the diagram for the classification of tasks, we can find tasks situated in either quadrant B (context-embedded – cognitively demanding) or quadrant D (context-reduced – cognitively undemanding). Yet it is precisely in these two quadrants that the balance between challenge and

achievability of the tasks seems to be right¹, so what we need is to find ways in which tasks which in principle would be located in quadrant C could be adapted to make them fit into quadrants B and D.

3. Dealing with the challenge

Having reached this point we are now able to look for ways in which the challenge posed by the linguistic and cognitive dimensions can be met, without therefore having to resort to students' L1. Thus, for each of the dimensions there would be a move to bring the task towards the "easier" end of the continuum: for the linguistic dimension it would imply creating a context, so that the language used needn't be too abstract, and for the cognitive side the move is towards helping students deal with the complexities of the task through scaffolding.

3.1 Creating a context

For language that in principle is abstract and de-contextualised to become more context embedded, we first need to create a context for the task. This is to say, that in order for the language to relate to students' *here-and-now* we need to create a *here-and-now* that is adapted to the task. Many suggestions have been put forward in the literature of bilingual education as to how this can be done. Most prominently, researchers and practitioners alike have claimed that in order to situate learning, this experience needs to be based on students' own action, i.e. that bilingual learning needs to be hands-on and action-based. If rather than introducing a complex issue through an explanation, the teacher sets up an experiment that makes the topic under discussion visible for students, s/he will, at the same time, have created a context, a real-life experience, to which students can relate the explanation that follows. Thus a *here-and-now* has been created for students. The same effect can be achieved by using real-world resources as a starting point for a unit of work. Thus, going to see an exhibition on ancient Egypt will create a meaningful context to which students can relate the explanations that may later be given in their lessons, or the language used in the tasks they are going to be asked to perform on the topic (see Bonnet et al. 2003: 189 ff).

Similarly, taking students' experience as a starting point for explanations will mean that a *here-and-now* is recalled –if not created as in the above–, in which students can fit the new concepts that are being presented or worked on. Thus, what could be a stream of de-contextualised speech moves closer to the context-embedded language needed to ease the burden of understanding for the student.

A further means for creating a context in which language can be embedded is by using visual aids to illustrate the explanations. Often setting up experiments (hands-on learning or going to exhibitions (using real-world resources is seen as an impossible desideratum by teachers because of time-restrictions or the complexity of organising out-of-school activities, but the alternative of bringing the action and the real world into the classroom through documentaries, for example, can substitute for these. It is also clear that illustrating explanations –or language generally– with diagrams, pictures, charts, or models eases the burden of understanding by creating the necessary context. This "visualising the language" can also be applied to the

¹ At this point I deviate from Cummins's thinking who states that "language and content will be acquired most successfully when students are challenged cognitively but provided with the contextual and linguistic supports or scaffolds required for successful task completion" (Cummins 2007: 125). In line with Coyle et al's (2010) thinking, I do believe in bilingual education there is room also for more context-reduced cognitively undemanding tasks in which the focus may be more on developing academic language, for example.

structure of the discourse the students have to understand through graphic organizers (Clegg 1999). Incidentally these organizers are such not only to aid understanding but also to help students order their ideas for production, thus, again, easing the cognitive load of producing a coherent argument, for example, in a foreign language .

Finally, for students to be able to make sense of the learning experience, this context–building also needs to include information about the task itself. There is little that strains our ability to understand more than joining in a conversation half–way, without knowing what is being talked about. Yet we often expect our learners to engage in a learning task without allowing them to know what the aim of the activity is, how it fits in with the previous, and what procedures we are going to use to achieve the aim(s) set. Thus, letting students into the picture is vital for learning tasks to be embedded in a meaningful context, and therefore for language to be context–embedded (for a similar point related to mainstream EFL teaching see Nunan 1988: 5). Looking at this list of measures to be used for creating a meaningful *here–and–now* for the learning tasks in the classroom, one may get a feeling of *dejá vu*, as “Many of the approaches, strategies and techniques used by effective immersion teachers are characteristic of all good teachers [...]. However, immersion teachers must use these more extensively and more exclusively than do non–immersion teachers.” (Met and Lorenz 1997: 249).

3.2 Easing the cognitive demand

In a similar vein to context–embedding, in order to ease the cognitive demands for students’ in bilingual classrooms we do not need to invent anything totally new, but can resort to the concept of *scaffolding* coined by the Russian Vygotsky almost a century ago. In a general context, scaffolding has been defined as “a process of ‘setting up’ the situation to make the child’s entry easy and successful and then gradually pulling back and handing the role to the child as he becomes skilled enough to manage it” (Bruner 1983: 60). Although there are a variety of taxonomies of scaffolding strategies around, most authors would agree that the main types of scaffolding include *modeling*, *breaking the task up into manageable sub–tasks*, and *leading students’ attention in the right direction*.

As regards the first type of scaffold, modeling, this can apply to the task as a whole or focus on the more difficult parts of the task. This modeling needs to be explicit, as it is not enough for the teacher –or any other “expert” that may be in charge of the modeling– to perform the task for the students (see, for example, Bransford et al. 2000: 19; 49) This modeling needs to be accompanied by an explanation describing what the person is doing and why, how this part of the process fits in with the whole, etc. If learners have seen what they are supposed to perform themselves, the cognitive demand of figuring out what they are supposed to be doing and how is considerably lower.

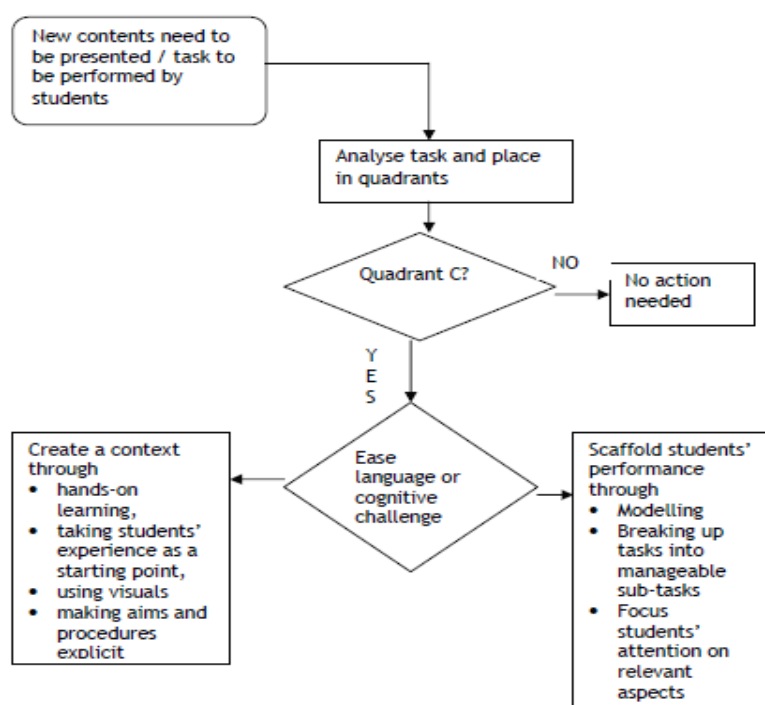
In the second type of scaffolding, a task is broken down into smaller sub–tasks that are more manageable for the student, very much in the way in which we would teach a child to lace up her shoe. Breaking the task into smaller parts helps the student stay focused on what is important at that moment, and gain a sense of achievement in the completion of the sub–tasks. The cognitive demand is, again, lowered. However, in this type of scaffolding there is a danger of losing sight of the task as such. It is therefore important to help students keep the whole picture in mind, so that the task doesn’t lose any of its meaningfulness as part of a larger project.

Finally, this breaking up of the task into smaller parts is a way of focusing students' attention on the important aspects of the learning task, the third of the types of scaffolding mentioned. When facing a cognitively challenging task, finding out what one is asked to do or what the activity focuses on is often the first and greatest challenge, and helping students overcome this first burden on their cognitive abilities will also contribute to making the task at hand less difficult.

These various scaffolding measures are not to be seen as exclusive or a matter of either or, but rather should constitute a set of strategies to be used by the teacher with flexibility and in response to students' actual difficulties. This does not mean that the teacher should not plan the scaffolding he will use with his students (see, for example, Cameron 2001: 22 ff), but rather that "the dynamics between the scaffolding structure and the scaffolding process must be kept in mind. The process is enabled by the scaffolding structure, and a constant evaluation of the process indicates when parts of the scaffolding structure can be dismantled or shifted elsewhere." (Walqui 2007: 205) and "there is an increasing role for the learner as skills and confidence increase; the teacher watches carefully for the learner's readiness to take over increasing parts of the action" (Walqui 2007: 206).

4. Pulling the strands together

Working with the linguistically and cognitively challenging tasks typical for a bilingual classroom needs, as was said earlier, especially skilful practice on the teacher's side. Thus, when facing this kind of tasks that would be placed in quadrant C in Cummins's diagram for the analysis of tasks, the teacher has to take action to either reduce the cognitive demand of tasks, or create a meaningful context in which to embed the task or explanation, or both. The representation of this process of adapting and making more manageable the tasks proposed could look like this:



5. Rounding up

Research into bilingual teaching –and language teaching at large– has a wealth of publications and findings to offer. Many models have been created to explain the challenges faced by learners, and to ease teachers’ task of responding to them, but often these solutions are fragmentary, and not easily translatable into classroom practice. In this article I have tried to work with some of the models and taxonomies that are already well-known in the profession, and pull together their strands to form a coherent whole, and one that hopefully will help the actual teacher deal with students’ difficulties in meeting the double challenge of bilingual education without having to resort to students’ L1 for the explanation of the more complex topics. A great number of alternative ways of meeting the language challenge are available to teachers, and using them will not only help to solve a problem typical for bilingual classrooms, but also contribute to improving the teaching generally. Thus “we may well see how the influence of the bilingual programme leads the teaching of literacy [or teaching in general] in the Spanish context to more adventurous, meaningful and communicative methodologies” (Halbach and Fernández 2007: 239).

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CLIL in teacher training: A Nottingham Trent University and University of Salamanca experience

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Resumen

Al considerar cada vez más la lengua inglesa como un componente básico de la educación, muchos países europeos, entre los que se encuentra España, están introduciendo iniciativas legislativas para incorporar el enfoque AICLE en entornos de enseñanza. El artículo presenta ejemplos de la aplicación del aprendizaje integrado de lengua y contenidos en el ámbito de la formación docente a partir de una larga relación de colaboración entre las universidades de Nottingham Trent y de Salamanca, que muestran cómo es posible incrementar el potencial del enfoque AICLE y alcanzar nuevas dimensiones de integración más allá de la lengua y de los contenidos al incardinar las iniciativas AICLE en amplios marcos de referencia para la formación de profesores de idiomas, superando así la distancia entre diferentes visiones culturales y pedagógicas y haciéndolas socialmente relevantes.

Palabras clave: AICLE. Formación del profesorado. Practicum internacional

Abstract

As English tends to be regarded as a component of basic education, most European countries, Spain amongst them, are issuing legislation to establish the CLIL approach in educational settings. The article presents instances of the implementation of CLIL in the area of teacher training which stem from a long established cooperation between Nottingham Trent University and the University of Salamanca, to show how the CLIL potential can be enhanced and new levels of integration beyond subject and content can be achieved when CLIL initiatives are embedded in larger Language Teacher Education Frames of Reference thus bridging the gap between different cultural and pedagogical visions and making them socially relevant.

Key words: CLIL. Teacher training. International Practicum

1. Contextual background

Almost a decade ago a constellation of factors was suggested to explain the seminal place of English in Europe such as the perception of English as an integral dimension of ongoing globalization processes in commerce, finance, politics, science, education, and the media; the growing use of English in networking, subcultural youth groups, and the internet, which consolidate its presence at the grassroots level; a substantial investment in the teaching of English in the education systems of continental European countries; an increasing tendency for universities to offer courses and degrees taught in English, particularly in such fields as Business Studies; and a demand for English as a language that is projected in advertising and the media as connoting success, influence and consumerism (Phillipson 2003: 64-65).

Parallel to these, the first decade of this century witnessed both a significant change in the vision of teaching foreign languages as it conceived the foreign language fundamentally as a means of learning content, and no longer as an end in itself, which is but a logical corollary of a communicative approach

involving a more and more instrumental use of languages, and, as English pervaded the fabric of the everyday, a shift in the goal of ELT towards the acquisition of effective communicative competencies so as to express ideas and convey knowledge, feelings and opinions in the second language in ways similar to the mother tongue.

In fact, three years after Phillipson's rationale for the expansion of English, David Graddol (2006: 102) reassessed the findings of a previous report for the British Council (Graddol 1997) and reached the conclusion that the traditional EFL model seemed to be in decline as countries respond to the rise of global English. As a consequence, English tends to be regarded as a component of basic education, thus losing a separate identity as a discipline, and as an entry requirement rather than an exit qualification in universities. And this, in its turn, entails predictable scenarios with an ever-changing mix of age-relationships and skill levels, besides the added consequence of making former approaches to textbooks, methods and testing instruments inappropriate. Briefly stated, the combination of three new global trends -content and language integrated learning (CLIL); English as a lingua franca (ELF), with intelligibility taking a preeminent role over native-like accuracy; and English for young learners (EYL)-, requires better trained and more proficient teachers, and this poses both new challenges and unprecedented opportunities for teacher training.

At a time when Europe aims at introducing the teaching of foreign languages at earlier stages within or even prior to the foundation stages of schooling there is, indeed, a growing tendency to integrate or closely relate the foreign language and the subject contents (House 2007). Differences aside, most countries are already issuing legislation to establish CLIL, or are broadening provision of this kind since the 1990s (Eurydice 2006). With the CLIL approach becoming more and more widespread, there is also an increasing number of schools in Spain in which the teaching of certain subjects in the curriculum are either entirely offered in a foreign language or include elements (subject content vocabulary, classroom language for routines) in the foreign language (Dafouz and Guerrini 2009). This entails new demands both for the teachers of English who may have to teach another subject through English and for the subject teachers who may be encouraged to teach their subject through English. Teachers can draw inspiration from ideas and activities to teach different subjects through English (Deller and Price 2007) as they are offered alternative routes, ranging from language showers to total early immersion, to maximize the benefits of CLIL in addition to a widening range of possibilities to join international projects.

Even if hindrances to achieve good practice in CLIL are not ignored, such as grappling with misconceptions surrounding CLIL, the shortage of CLIL teachers and materials resulting in greater workload for the teachers involved, and the difficulty to understand the implications of CLIL programming on the part of school administrators, "in an integrated world, integrated learning is increasingly viewed as a modern form of educational delivery designed to even better equip the learner with knowledge and skills suitable for the global age" (Mehisto, Marsh and Frigols 2008: 10-11).

If CLIL, then, "means that in the class there are two main aims, one related to the subject, topic or theme and one linked to the language" which explains "why CLIL is sometimes called dual-focussed education" (Marsh 2000: 6) teacher trainers are also bound to this duality and share both a cautionary stand and the excitement of introducing the CLIL approach in pre-service and in lifelong education programmes, with mixed feelings stemming from concerns about our newly acquired responsibility and expectations about uncharted avenues for learning. As Coyle (2010: viii) puts it "quite simply without appropriate teacher education programs the full potential of CLIL is unlikely to be realised and the approach unsustainable".

The following three references, among others, have been produced to help sensitize teachers and parents alike and thus pave the ground for a positive implementation of CLIL with full home and school support:

http://ec.europa.eu/education/languages/archive/teach/clil_en.html - “Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL), in which pupils learn a subject through the medium of a foreign language, has a major contribution to make to the Union’s language learning goals. It can provide effective opportunities for pupils to use their new language skills now, rather than learn them now for use later.” (last accessed 16 July 2011)

<http://www.clilcompendium.com/1uk.pdf> - In this concise presentation, *Using languages to learn and learning to use languages* (2000), Marsh clarifies the most important issues concerning CLIL for parents, carers or guardians, teachers, and the entire educational community. (last accessed 16 July 2011)

CLIL for the Knowledge Society (2006) – (A David Marsh-Eurydice video). The documentary shows that “there is no single model which is appearing across Europe. [...] What these models share is the interweaving of content and language in a dual-focussed way. Some people have said that this is more learning by construction rather than learning by instruction.” (Extract available on <http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=TGnkEMjBg4g>. Last accessed 16 July 2011)

In Spain, the MEC-British Council Bilingual Education Project was piloted in 1996 as a novelty within the Spanish education system which is now well established, and a report on the findings of an independent three-year investigation into the Ministry of Education / British Council Bilingual Schools project has been recently published in book format around the following three agreed aims:

“To provide [...] evidence on pupils’ English language proficiency [...] through the study of subject-matter in a bilingual context; to identify and disseminate good practice [...] in the project schools; and to provide research-based evidence on awareness, attitudes and motivation”. (Dobson, Pérez and Johnstone 2010: 16)

In spite of issues concerning the future sustainability of the project, the help to be offered to low-attaining students, and the ICT provision, the Bilingual Education Project has been assessed as a most successful educational enterprise, and four sets of factors account for its positive outcomes: societal factors (political will, parental interest and social consensus on the importance of English), provision factors (specific provision of the education system at national, regional and school level), process factors (teaching and learning strategies and atmosphere, management, collaboration, assessment and evaluation) and personal factors (individual and group commitment). They may well be used in teacher training as a compass to orient the formation of prospective teachers of English and as test criteria to diagnose the feasibility of intended integrated programmes.

In what follows three specific instances of the general trends described above will be presented in the area of teacher training which are the result of a long established relationship between Nottingham Trent University and the University of Salamanca: 1. A school-based international CLIL project coordinated by senior lecturers and teacher trainers from the two universities with one of the lessons of the project offered as a sample model for teaching and teacher training purposes; 2. An International Teaching Practicum for our teacher trainees at NTU and the USAL; and 3. Excerpted samples of Graduate and Postgraduate subjects, and Continuing Education courses and modules with a CLIL focus or including CLIL components.

2. The school-based international project

A Content and Language Integrated Learning Project: Christopher Columbus (2010)¹ is a DVD and educational resource published by the University of Salamanca aimed at illustrating a real use of the CLIL approach by a team of teachers, teacher trainers and educational institutions' representatives from the UK and Spain to exemplify good teaching practice in primary schools of the two countries and hence with a potential to serve as a pedagogical tool in teacher training. Different ways of implementing the CLIL approach are shown and can be compared as they can be seen at work in six primary schools from both countries.

Although this educational documentary primarily addresses teachers working or aiming to work in schools with an integrated curriculum of content and foreign language learning, it also provides clear visual evidence of possible CLIL dynamics for teacher trainers and for their trainees as well as for local, regional or national educational authorities, language planners and parents or carers from the two countries. In our case, the project which preceded it and is reflected in the recorded images together with the published outcome have contributed to strengthen the already rich networking and collaboration in teaching, training and life-long learning schemes between NTU and the USAL.

This international CLIL-based project began to take shape in February of 2007 when two initial meetings took place. Representatives from Nottingham Trent University, and language consultants from the Local Educational Authority (LEA) and the Teacher and Development Agency (TDA) first gathered in England while representatives from the University of Salamanca, the *Junta de Castilla y León* and the *CFIE (Centro de formación e innovación educativa)* held a parallel encounter in Spain. These initial meetings addressed and reached agreements on the definition of the aims of the project and on the identification of the schools involved in the joint educational initiative.

The project set itself the following aims: planning and implementing a work unit across schools participating in the project, three of which were English and three Spanish; developing teaching and training materials which would be accessible to every school through the internet, researching the topic chosen to teach effectively that work unit and, finally, enhancing prospective joint initiatives among British and Spanish schools, paying particular attention to a further increase of the Teaching Practice Placements for British Modern Foreign Languages (MFL) and Spanish trainees.

The following decisions were also taken: that the work unit should have an international scope; that all six schools would allocate half a day per week to it; that the project would take place in the autumn term 2007 during 10 consecutive weeks followed by an evaluation at the end; that Spanish teachers in England would do some language of instruction and mental starters in Spanish in preparation for the project and English teachers in Spain would contribute similar kinds of activities; and that teachers in both countries would look for online teaching resources for the implementation of the project, collect information (brochures, videos, websites, etc.) about the schools to exchange with the partner schools, and use shared templates to start the planning process.

The school year groups were slightly different in both countries: whereas the British schools considered that this work unit should be carried out with Year Five pupils, Spanish schools deemed Year Five and Year Six (*quinto y sexto de Primaria*) as the most appropriate age range for this project. All schools followed a

¹ This DVD has been reviewed by Santiago Bautista in *Encuentro* (2010) 19: 109-113.

model of CLIL-based lessons around four axes, namely, content, cognition, culture and communication, after the so-called four Cs of the Curriculum (Coyle 1999). An example of a CLIL lesson from the project combining these four elements will be shown at the end of this section.

The different tasks carried out by the teachers involved in the project and recorded on the DVD lend themselves to be adapted to other topics, language levels and school projects, and they may vary according to the availability of human, ICT or other resources and to the support of the educational community.

The activities can be regarded as belonging into two broad categories – use of the target language and cross curricular links – even if the actual interaction between learning and the use of language is always rich, complex and multidimensional.

2.1 Use of the Target Language

In order to introduce some basic facts about the life of Christopher Columbus, two different activities are shown on the DVD. In the first one, the topic is introduced through a power-point presentation combining non-linguistic clues and captions in Spanish with basic facts about the life of Christopher Columbus. As this activity is performed in an English school, the teacher uses Spanish to elicit the meaning of key words and invites the children to repeat them after her. She naturally drills frequently difficult-to-pronounce phonemes in Spanish and uses praising expressions in Spanish to positively assess their performance. In the second activity, performed in a Spanish school and working with the same historical information, the teacher chooses to sequence relevant data about Columbus' life through a time-line drawn on the blackboard. The students read the dates in English and the teacher ties in the children's answers with a summary of Columbus' journeys using the target language. Instead of using visual support, he supplies clues through expressive body language to mime key actions reinforcing meaning through synonyms.

A third activity shows pupils using fans, a very popular resource for numeracy and literacy in UK schools, which can also be useful for date reading practice. The teacher practises higher numbers so that pupils can say dates in Spanish. She invites children to show their comprehension of dates by showing her the fans ("mostradme 1492"). The children automatically imitate her pronunciation while they put the numbers in their fans in the right order. In the next activity we can see how children work in groups to solve a multiple choice quiz of their own making about Columbus using an interactive whiteboard to support learning.

Children are next shown using the language as a communication tool in a shopping role-play where food vocabulary from the New Land is firstly introduced with real fruits from the market, which allows children to pretend to buy and sell the products through patterned dialogues. In yet another activity, a battleship game is introduced to revise colours and numbers around a map of Christopher Columbus' journeys. Students make a grid and put numbers across the bottom and colours at the side and then they have to try and destroy Christopher Columbus' ships.

All of them illustrate how learning becomes meaningful as language gets activated to fulfil real purposes, including individual and group response activities, the use of various resources, many strategies and a convergence of cognitive, emotional and action-oriented activities which we frequently recommend our trainees to use (under the simplified mnemonic formula of the "the three 'hs'", that is, "head, heart and hands"), just the same as in real interactions in daily life. These examples show how teachers use the target language to share objectives with children, establish tasks, ask questions, give feedback, and provide them

with clues to help children guess the meaning of new words, sequence sentences, accompany body language, etc. In doing so, they are paving the way to link the learning of the language with other curricular areas.

2.2 Cross Curricular Links

In these clips in the menu, we can see how teachers have designed different tasks to link the learning of the foreign language with different curricular areas. Thus, in order to establish a connection between Literacy and Spanish as a foreign language, children are shown at work in groups trying to reassemble coherently the different jumbled strips of texts they are given from the captions of the power-point presentation about the life of Christopher Columbus. In another activity, children match dates with events in Spain, England and the world referring to a timeline, setting up links between History and the foreign language. This same link was also reinforced by another activity where children were asked to invent their own coat of arms inspired by traditional samples from Christopher Columbus' time. Children first describe the coat of arms of Columbus in English and next a coat of arms of their own design in Spanish containing drawings of some of their favourite things.

One of the most creative tasks links Dance and Music when children are encouraged to explore the theme of sea monsters in Columbus' time and a range of verbs of movement (i.e. swirling, waving, or twisting) as a stimulus for composing a group dance for class performance. An extension of this activity, integrating the foreign language with Art, consisted in an art project where children had to design a sea monster of their own based on the study of scientific and imaginary artwork dating from the 10th to the 19th century. This way, besides establishing a connection between the language and the subject content, the topic was explored from perspectives other than the objective knowledge of historical facts.

Total Physical Response (TPR) is used to establish links between PE and the foreign language, asking students to act out and repeat key expressions of the sailor's activities on board: "Subir la trampa", "¡Fregar la cubierta!", etc. As for links with Geography, the teachers invented a little game for the children to learn the points of the compass in Spanish. The children had to stand North, South, East and West and one in the middle. One child said two of the places and those people had to change places before the person in the middle.

The previous activities evince, in an easily graspable and visual way, both how the learning topic determines the choice of language and how the design of teaching and learning strategies has a dual focus, linguistic and educational. It is this interaction that will allow children to learn the target language in meaningful contexts while they consolidate and expand their knowledge of other curricular areas. The DVD also shows how teachers' formative assessment is not only applied to levels of linguistic achievement but also to the assimilation of subject content.

2.3 Outcomes

The manifold benefits of an international CLIL experience should not be measured solely in terms of language or content progress but also in terms of their educational and social implications. The following are just a few of the many outcomes of this joint initiative as regarded from the perspective of their three main protagonists: children, teachers and parents.

Children claim to have learnt a lot about Columbus in an enjoyable way, gaining confidence in their use of language in a natural and engaging way and maximizing the potential of their limited vocabulary range. They also felt very proud of having produced their own learning materials, exhibited them to the school

community, and exchanged them with other schools. Working in groups allowed them to use negotiation and discussion skills to reach a consensus and share their experience with their own school peers and with children from other schools in a different country.

Teachers highlight the novelty of the CLIL approach and the way subject and language content naturally blend. They gained confidence in the use of both their teaching and foreign language skills, and links with other local and foreign schools were also strengthened, which gave them the opportunity to contrast two different educational systems. Teachers also felt that they had engaged parents in novel and appealing ways creating expectation and exhibiting the material outcomes of the project.

Finally, parents witnessed how the children were keen on investigating and working together for a learning target outside the school boundaries, bridging the gap between home and school activities. They could see the children using the L2 for different subject tasks in a very natural way and they all, with no single exception, reported on the high motivation of their children to learn a foreign language.

2.4 Coyle's lesson plan as a training tool

All schools followed a model of CLIL-based lessons differentiating four main aspects: content, cognition, communication and culture. According to the so-called four Cs of the Curriculum (Coyle 1999), a carefully planned CLIL lesson should combine all these four elements as they provide a useful instrument to define both the teaching aims and the learning outcomes in which this approach is based.

From a CLIL perspective, language is not only an objective in itself but also a vehicle for learning. Content should be “linked to the community within and outside the classroom” (Mehisto *et al* 2008) and needs to be presented in an understandable way, particularly in primary education where most curricular subjects can be taught in CLIL and it may be easier to establish cross-curricular connections with any subject. Children mainly learn by participating in meaningful interaction in the classroom so communication is essential. Children's cognitive skills such as reasoning, recognizing, judging or imagining need to be developed and put at work in every subject in the curriculum. Finally, CLIL gives teachers the opportunity to introduce children to a variety of different cultural contexts. As Coyle (2007) states, “culture is at the core of CLIL”.

TOPIC CRISTOPHER COLUMBUS

AIMS
To make children aware of events in the past To gain insight into other people's lives To develop empathy To engage children in producing models, diaries, calendars To develop children's autonomy To develop sustainable links with schools
TEACHING OBJECTIVES
To introduce CC and his voyages to America To introduce different geographical locations, compass points and coordinates To enhance mathematical skills related to distances and fractions To introduce different food To motivate children to read diaries and journals

LEARNING OUTCOMES			
CONTENT	COGNITION	CULTURE/CITIZENSHIP	COMMUNICATION
➤ Understand time lines referred to this historical period ➤ Identify products from America ➤ Name parts of a ship ➤ Classify different types of food ➤ Locate the different Columbus voyages ➤ Explain reasons of Columbus voyages ➤ Compare American and European food ➤ Make a calendar, a diary, etc following instructions ➤ Create a new calendar, etc ➤ Research autonomously ➤ Talk about the project	➤ Remembering facts ➤ Memorising and using key vocabulary and phrases ➤ Applying the information ➤ Understanding information and interpreting facts ➤ Analysing information ➤ Creating ➤ Evaluating	➤ Show more interest in global issues ➤ Be aware of different places and cultures and understand how they live ➤ Be more aware of own culture ➤ Beginning to understand the lives of indigenous people ➤ Understand how Columbus felt and the indigenous people felt and compare this to current situations ➤ Get to know Spanish/English children from partner school	➤ Language of learning: Specific vocabulary (Countries, Food, Ships and parts, Compass points, Distance, Nationalities) Dates Verbs in the past Instructions ➤ Language for learning: Classroom language, Expressing similarities and differences, Following instructions, Writing a diary ➤ Language through learning: Reading skills, Ask and answer questions, World map location skills, Dictionary skills

3. The International Teaching Practicum²

The UK-Spanish programme to foster international teaching practice in primary schools started in November 2003 with an agreement signed between the Spanish Ministry of Education (ME) and the Training and Development Agency for Schools (TDA), from the Department for Education and Skills of the United Kingdom³. The main aim of this agreement was to cooperate jointly both in the field of teacher training and in the area of foreign language teaching in primary education. The programme was so successful that in just two years 13 Spanish and 15 British universities were participating in a programme that allowed over 200 students per year enrolled in teaching training programmes in both countries to travel to overseas schools to do their compulsory teaching practice for a period of four weeks.

Our formal institutional link was preceded by a long established relationship between Nottingham Trent University and the University of Salamanca, which has resulted in a range of shared educational projects in pre-service and in-service teacher training. This led to close and productive liaisons between educational institutions in both countries: mainly primary schools, local educational authorities, university departments and lecturers and teachers' centres. Among the different cooperation programmes, the following can be highlighted: Teaching practice (Practicum I and II) in Nottingham primary schools carried out by students enrolled in teacher training at the University of Salamanca for periods of 4 to 6 weeks; intensive tailor-made courses delivered in Spain, within the TDA –British Council financially supported– 500 Teachers Project, for groups of primary school teachers from Nottingham about aspects of language, culture and education in Spain, with a practical component in primary schools; development of both an Erasmus Cooperation Programme permitting student mobility between the two universities and Socrates mobility programmes for teaching staff; the joint publication of a bilingual teaching practice guide (Durán, Gutiérrez and Beltrán 2006a); an educational project of story-sacks in primary schools, with school correspondence and exchange of materials, together with mutual visits of teachers of both countries to their school partners; collaboration of different lecturers from the two institutions in papers presented at national and international forums and in different publications, etc.

This co-operation network culminated in a project of international teaching practice involving the University of Salamanca Schools of Education of Ávila and Zamora and the Nottingham Trent University Faculty of Education and the Arts and Humanities Modern Languages Department, with the effective collaboration of the Nottingham Local Education Authority (LEA). The partnership allowed fifteen Spanish trainees to travel every year to British primary schools to do their compulsory teaching practice (Practicum I or II) for a period of four weeks, while fifteen British PGCE (Postgraduate Certificate in Education) students had the opportunity of completing an equivalent four-week training placement in schools in Spain. Thus, the agreement signed between the Spanish Ministry of Education and the English TDA added important qualitative changes to a long and productive relationship already initiated more than ten years before. Above all, the university students of both countries were given an extraordinary incentive, as they received financial and academic backing for their aspirations, and the exchange of experiences, visits and perspectives of children, teachers, educators and collaborating institutions could be extended.

² A detailed account of the International Practicum was given by Durán, R., Beltrán F., and Gutiérrez, G. (2006b) in *Encuentro* 16: 40-50.

³ In 2003 the Spanish ME was called the Ministry of Education, Culture and Sports (MECD) while the British TDA was called the Teacher Training Agency (TTA).

This international teaching practice experience was not exempt from difficulties, mainly concerning the differences between the British and the Spanish models of educational training for MFL (Modern Foreign Languages) primary teachers. Thus, British PGCEs receive a more general preparation whereas the Spanish trainees have some degree of specialization. Another difference is that while most Spanish students are generally younger with little or non-existent working or travel abroad experience, British students tend to be more mature and possess a broader working and visits abroad experience. In the third place, in order to access the teaching training programme, Spanish students are exclusively required to pass Bachillerato (A levels) while British students should have completed an undergraduate university course and are selected by a process of presentations and interviews. These, and other cultural and pedagogical differences, explain some of the differing answers to a questionnaire about intercultural communication, but put together, all of them serve to confirm our conviction that “the responsibility for effective exposure to relevant intercultural experiences in teacher training needs to be considered as a shared objective both by the host and the guest institutions –fostering this or similar stay abroad visits, links or exchanges, beneficial to their educational agendas– and by the individual students who need to integrate these personal, cultural, educational and linguistic challenges within their experiential portfolio and professional profile” (Durán 2011: 129). From a CLIL perspective, the indisputably greatest benefit of this programme is the fact that trainees get acquainted with not only the classroom language but also with the content language, and with the strategies and resources used for all subjects, by being fully immersed and actively participating in and interacting within a global classroom dynamics. This provides them with an awareness of the what and how of all primary subjects in a foreign language but also with a clear sense of the way whereby not only the actual delivery of all subject lessons, but their previous preparation and the feedback comments, as much as the overall teaching and learning performance, are linguistically articulated. No better hands-on experiential preparation could be expected for teachers who may be required to teach the content of some or all school subjects in a foreign language.

4. CLIL in other pre-service and in-service teacher training schemes

Besides the International Practicum and the collaborative projects which have emerged from it, and inextricably bound up with its driving motivation to both thread together different cultural pedagogies and break through the boundaries of differing pedagogical cultures, while partaking in the experience gained through it, CLIL has also found a place, with major or minor roles, in other USAL courses or modules such as the following:

1. *CLIL in the English Classroom* has been designed as one out of a total of 6 new 6 ECTS subjects on offer for student teachers within the *Mención de lengua inglesa* in the new *Grado de Maestro en Educación primaria* (a Spanish equivalent to the UK Teaching Status Qualification).

PREVIOUS REQUIREMENT

As this subject will be entirely conducted in English, students are expected to have at least a B1 entry level of English according to the CEF and they are recommended to develop their listening, speaking, reading and writing skills in English to reach at least a B2 level according to the CEF.

AIMS OF THE SUBJECT

On completion of this course, students must be able to:

- Get involved in the integrated curriculum within the Spanish state education system and its implementation
- Understand the CLIL approach: origins, rationale and case studies
- Develop CLIL teaching materials and use strategies for specific subject content in English: P.E., Arts and Crafts, Science, etc.
- Use a wide range of the CLIL-based activities and resources available
- Produce home/class-made CLIL materials
- Evaluate CLIL teaching materials
- Plan and assess a CLIL-based syllabus
- Be familiar with international teaching programmes (school twinning schemes, Comenius, international exchange programmes, etc.)

CONTENTS

The contents of this subject will be mainly based on the following sources:

- 1) Teaching Knowledge Test. CLIL Module developed by Cambridge ESOL (English for Speakers of Other Languages) exams
- 2) *Using languages to learn and learning to use languages* (Marsh 2000)
- 3) "CLIL: A new model for language teaching" (House 2007)

MODULE 1. A window on CLIL: Origins and rationale. What is CLIL? How is it a different model? What does CLIL claim to do? How many models are there? What kind of problems can we find when implementing the CLIL approach?

MODULE 2. Knowledge and principles of CLIL: communication, cognitive and learning skills across the curriculum. Evaluating, assembling and modifying CLIL materials.

MODULE 3. Lesson Preparation and Lesson Delivery. Planning a Lesson. Language Demands of Subject Content. Materials Selection and Adaptation. Classroom Language. Monitoring and evaluating CLIL in action.

MODULE 4. Assessment in CLIL. Types of assessment. Support strategies for assessment. Summary of assessment principles.

METHODOLOGY

Students will be required to prepare and participate in activities presented by the teacher or by other classmates. They will need to complete the tasks assigned throughout the course, such as microteaching sessions, giving short oral presentations, producing individual essays and producing didactic activities to be presented in the classroom. They will also be encouraged to put into practice the instructions commented on in the group tutorials and to develop strategies for ongoing self-study of a foreign language.

ASSESSMENT

At the end of the course students will be expected to have acquired and will have been subject to formative and summative types of assessment on basic and specific (linguistic, methodological and cross-curricular) competences.

2. *Towards a bilingual teaching*. Intensive language courses organized since 2008 by the Junta de Castilla y León under the supervision of the public universities of the Community for in-service primary and secondary teachers willing to participate in their school content and language integrated programmes: <http://www.educa.jcyl.es/profesorado/es/formacion-profesorado/actualidad-formacion-profesorado/cursos-idiomas-colaboracion-universidades-hacia-ensenanza-b> (last accessed 16 July 2011).

PROGRAMME FOR DEVELOPMENT OF IN-SERVICE TEACHERS IN BILINGUAL SCHOOLS
(This was later adapted to suit the needs of the participants in subsequent editions)

AIMS

- To provide in-service teachers with the tools necessary for teaching contents of different subject areas in English, within the framework of the methodological foundations and philosophy of Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL)
- To reach B2 level proficiency in clearly contextualized language skills in CLIL-related areas
- To consolidate and further improve both the linguistic and the didactic grasp of CLIL

CONTENTS

MODULE 1. Phonetics. Tools and strategies for enhancing pronunciation

MODULE 2. The Communication Continuum in the classroom: fluency-accuracy, communicative strategies, receptive and productive skills, finely-tuned and roughly-tuned input, integration and balance of skills

MODULE 3. CLIL: background and origins, key concepts, goals, different models all over the world, roles of teacher, evaluation, anticipated difficulties

MODULE 4. Language in use: a lexical approach. Lexical items: Classroom English, ELT jargon, specialised vocabulary and texts for CLIL-oriented areas

MODULE 5. Visual resources in the classroom for meaningful input: diagrams and graphs, posters and murals, internet and the media, authentic materials

MODULE 6. Activities for classroom exploitation. Classroom practices

METHODOLOGY

Dynamic, highly interactive and communicative. Learner-centred, practically focussed, based on a “learning by doing” approach. Candidates may be divided into different groups according to their initial linguistic proficiency (A2, B1, B2, C1) and/or their teaching experience (Nursery, Primary or Secondary Education).

ASSESSMENT

In addition to continuous assessment, participants in the course will have to present parts of a lesson from their nursery/primary/secondary sector and subject based on the CLIL approach.

3. *Linguistic Tools for Teachers of English in Bilingual Contexts* was a seminar held at the School of Education and Tourism in Ávila in 2009, co-sponsored by the Council of Education of Castilla y León and the University of Salamanca, where the CLIL approach was given due attention by some of the presenters. One of the main ideas, which cut across all proposals, was the fact that all teachers use language as the main vehicle for teaching their assigned portion of the whole school curriculum. Indeed, language use is so pervasive that it is often taken for granted and is as unconsciously handled as the air we breathe. The CLIL novelty is then as simple as it can be effective since EFL teachers today may have the English language serve exactly the same purpose as the mother tongue (Durán and Sánchez-Reyes 2010).

4.- *Título propio de Especialista en docencia en programas bilingües en lengua inglesa en educación infantil, primaria y secundaria* (USAL): <http://www.usal.es/webusal/node/392> (last accessed 16 july 2011).

The third, 2011-2012 edition of this 300-hour postgraduate course includes the following modules (originally published in Spanish):

MODULE 1. The bilingual curriculum and CLIL programmes. Programme design.

MODULE 2. Language and Communication.

MODULE 3. Language acquisition and classroom language.

MODULE 4. Methodology in bilingual and in CLIL classrooms.

MODULE 5. Cross-curricular workshops for Infant Education and for the First and Second Cycles of Primary Education: Science, PE, Music, Arts and Crafts, and Literacy.

MODULE 6. School placements

MODULE 7. Final Extended Essay

5.- The CLIL approach is also introduced, from different perspectives and with varying teaching loads, in specific modules of the Master Degrees by the University of Salamanca, with the collaboration of the NTU: 1) “Subject content in the English specialism” (3 ECTS) in the *Máster Universitario en Profesor de Educación Secundaria Obligatoria y Bachillerato, Formación Profesional y Enseñanza de Idiomas*: <http://www.usal.es/webusal/node/2261> (last accessed 16 July 2011) and 2) “Module 1. Linguistics itinerary. The English language and its methodological applications” (6 ECTS) in *Máster en Estudios Ingleses Avanzados. Lenguas y culturas en contacto*: <http://www.usal.es/webusal/node/367> (last accessed 16 July 2011).

5. A “Clil-room” with a view

The preceding pages have just shown a minor case that only attests to a reality which is changing rapidly and needs to be situated within broader Spanish (Lasagabaster and Ruiz 2010) and European (Ruiz and Jiménez 2009) contexts. CLIL-based teaching and teacher training schemes ask for a continuous adaptation to complex and very different primary, secondary and tertiary education scenarios often subject to pressing demands that do reflect and try to provide responses to while drawing lessons from the complications and urgencies of society at large.

Even if CLIL is affecting both the form and the content of our training programmes in substantial ways, we still, or perhaps now more than ever, need to see its emergence from even wider angles and in the light of contemporary paradigm shifts in many areas of educational concern. Thus, a proposed European Profile for Language Teacher Educators “presents a toolkit of 40 items which could be included in a teacher education programme to equip language teachers with the necessary skills and knowledge, as well as other professional competencies, to enhance their professional development and to lead to greater transparency and portability of qualifications” (Kelly, Grenfell, Allan, Kriza and McEvoy 2004: 3). Training in Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) is only item number 33 in the list, which may be humbling, but it is paradoxically equally revealing for the list also includes: experience of an intercultural and multicultural environment; participation in links with partners abroad, including visits, exchanges or ICT links; a period of work or study in a country or countries where the trainee's foreign language is spoken as native; the opportunity to observe or participate in teaching in more than one country, and training in the critical evaluation of nationally or regionally adopted curricula in terms of aims, objectives and outcomes. And what is most important, besides structural components, and alongside with elements of knowledge and understanding, and strategies and skills, the list also includes training in the following values: the diversity of languages and cultures; the importance of teaching and learning about foreign languages and cultures;

teaching European citizenship; team-working, collaboration and networking, inside and outside the immediate school context; and the importance of life-long learning.

While it is true, then, that CLIL is not incompatible with any of the competencies of this Profile, as we trust to have illustrated through the example of the NTU-USAL cooperation in the field of teacher training, our experience so far suggests that embedding any CLIL initiative within the above or similar educational frames of reference could certainly enrich the integrated learning approach by transforming its dual focus into a multifaceted reality that might well be both the premise and the promise of language teacher education for the time which lies ahead of us.

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Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL): Limitations and possibilities

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Abstract

CLIL is currently enjoying a surge in popularity across the world in its cross-curricular form. While the structural difficulties in implementing CLIL are often recognised, there is little discussion of its inherent limitations. Focusing on cross-curricular programmes, this article analyses critically four of CLIL's central claims against the evidence of the latest research. The claims analysed are: CLIL leads to greater linguistic proficiency, it boosts motivation, it is suitable for learners of all abilities and it leads to greater intercultural awareness. The article concludes that while all four claims are, to a large degree, substantiated by the evidence, there are also clear limitations, stemming from theoretical and methodological shortcomings of the CLIL model, as well as from its interaction with contextual factors. The article suggests a number of ways in which these limitations can be addressed and concludes that, unless remedied, they could lead to an understandable yet regrettable disappointment with a model that is genuinely promising.

Key words: CLIL, intercultural awareness, bilingual education

Resumen

CLIL goza en estos momentos de enorme popularidad a nivel internacional. Mientras que sus dificultades logísticas y estructurales se reconocen ampliamente, sus limitaciones intrínsecas son objeto de escaso debate. Este artículo analiza de forma crítica cuatro de los postulados centrales de sus programas croscurriculares en base a las investigaciones más recientes. Los postulados analizados son los siguientes: CLIL conduce a mayor competencia lingüística, CLIL aumenta la motivación, CLIL es adecuado para alumnos de todas las capacidades y CLIL realza la comprensión intercultural. Nuestro artículo concluye que aunque estos postulados se ven confirmados en su mayor parte por los resultados de las investigaciones, hay claras limitaciones al modelo CLIL. Estas limitaciones resultan de deficiencias teóricas del modelo CLIL así como de su interacción con factores contextuales. Se sugieren algunas estrategias para superar estas limitaciones. A no ser que se aborden estas deficiencias, estamos abocados a una decepción comprensible aunque lamentable.

Palabras clave: CLIL, educación bilingüe, comprensión intercultural

1. CLIL: definition and rationale

The acronym CLIL was coined in Europe in the early nineties (Coyle et al (2010)) to describe any dual-focused type of provision in which a second language, foreign or other, is used for the teaching and learning of a non-language subject matter, with language and content having a joint and mutually beneficial role (Marsh 2002). CLIL has two distinctive features that set it apart from other types of provision, such as immersion teaching or EAL (Gajo 2007, Lasagabaster 2008, Coyle 2007). The first one is the integration of language and content. In CLIL, the two elements are interwoven and receive equal importance, although the emphasis may vary from one to another on specific occasions. The aim is to develop proficiency in both (Eurydice 2005: 7), by teaching the content not *in*, but *with* and *through* the foreign language. The second distinctive feature is the flexibility of CLIL to accommodate the wide range of socio-political and cultural realities of the European context. CLIL models range from theme-based language modules to cross-

curricular approaches where a content subject is taught through the foreign language. The latter model has become the most prevalent in Europe in the last few years.

CLIL's flexibility is underpinned by a theoretical framework commonly referred to as the 4C model. The 4C model is a holistic approach, where content, communication, cognition and culture are integrated. Effective CLIL takes place through 5 dimensions: progression in knowledge, skills and understanding of content, engagement in higher order cognitive processing, interaction in the communicative context, development of appropriate communication skills, and acquisition of a deepening intercultural awareness (Coyle et al 2010).

The rationale for CLIL rests on a number of points based on second language acquisition theories (Dalton-Puffer 2008). With its integration of content and language, CLIL can offer an authenticity of purpose unlike that of any communicative classroom (Greenfell 2002, Graddol 2006). By realigning language and cognitive development, CLIL can combat the lack of relevance of language teaching based on grammatical progression and boost learners' motivation (Lasagabaster 2009). CLIL provides learners with a richer, more naturalistic environment that reinforces language acquisition and learning, and thus leads to greater proficiency in learners of all abilities (Lyster 2007, Krashen 1985, Lightbown and Spada 2006). CLIL also regenerates content teaching by fostering cognitive development and flexibility in the learner through its constructivist approach, and by recognising language as an essential tool in learning (Lyster 2007, Gajo 2007, Coyle et al 2009 and 2010, Dalton-Puffer 2008). Finally, CLIL can also lead to greater intercultural understanding and prepares pupils better for internationalisation (Coyle et al (2009)). In essence, CLIL claims to be a dynamic unit that is bigger than its two parts, providing an education that goes beyond subject and content learning (Coyle et al. 2010).

The current processes of globalisation have made CLIL a timely solution for governments concerned with developing the linguistic proficiency of their citizens as a pre-requisite for economic success. There was already some dissatisfaction with traditional MFL teaching approaches and a perception that they were not bearing fruit. In fact, research has proved that there is no linear relationship between increased instruction time in traditional MFL settings and achievement (Eurydice 2005, Lasagabaster 2008). CLIL offers a budgetary efficient way of promoting multilingualism without cramming existing curricula. With its emphasis on the convergence of curriculum areas and transferable skills, CLIL also appears to serve well the demands of the Knowledge Economy for increased innovation capacity and creativity. Finally, its potential for intercultural understanding addresses issues of social cohesion. The EU officially endorsed CLIL in its cross-curricular form in 2005 (European Commission (2005)) and in the UK, it was not until the advent of the new National Curriculum (QCA 2008) that CLIL approaches were formally presented as a tool of choice to deliver "new opportunities" in MFL (ALL 2010).

Most studies on CLIL concentrate on the many structural difficulties surrounding its implementation. From a lack of sustainable teacher supply and insufficient pre- or in-service training, to the difficulties in sourcing teaching materials and overcoming parental reluctance, the road to CLIL is not straightforward even for the most committed (Mehisto 2008). This essay wants to take a few steps back and analyse critically some of the claims which rest on CLIL's inherent characteristics. It will specifically focus on the cross-curricular model of CLIL, on which the majority of research is carried out. By reviewing some of the latest evidence and considering the interaction between CLIL's features and contextual factors, this essay will try to provide a clearer picture of CLIL's potential and its limitations.

The claims this article will concentrate on can be summarised as follows:

- a) CLIL leads to a higher level of attainment in MFL
- b) CLIL improves motivation in all learners
- c) CLIL benefits learners of all abilities
- d) CLIL increases intercultural awareness

2. CLIL leads to higher levels of attainment in MFL

Preoccupation with levels of achievement in MFL by learners is a recurrent theme (Lazaruk 2007, Lasagabaster and Sierra 2009, Rifkin 2005). In the UK, for instance, beyond the well-documented limited pool of linguistic ability (Coleman et al. 2008), inspection reviews for MFL often comment on achievement being below that of comparable subjects, with speaking a particular area of concern (Ofsted 2008).

CLIL claims to lead to an increased level of linguistic proficiency in several ways. It provides not just extra exposure to comprehensible input (Krashen 1985), but more specifically, context-embedded, cognitively challenging tasks that move the learner on in terms of both content and language (Greenfell 2002, Cummins and Swain 1986). Moreover, by creating an authentic communicative context, CLIL provides a naturalistic environment, where language can be more easily acquired while the focus is on meaning (Lightbown and Spada 2006). Finally, CLIL also provides a careful analysis of the linguistic demands that tasks place on learners. The best example of this is Coyle's model (Coyle 2007) of linguistic progression in 3 strands: language of learning (needed to access basic concepts in a given context), language for learning (language needed to operate and interact with the content in a given context), and language through learning (incidental language that results from active involvement with the task). CLIL claims thus to make transparent and accessible all language needed for successful completion of tasks and knowledge acquisition in a way that is not always found in content subjects (Coyle 1999, Gajo 2007).

The growing research evidence largely supports this claim. The outcomes of most CLIL programmes are unsurprisingly positive, with CLIL students displaying higher levels of proficiency and higher communicative competence than their non-CLIL peers. However, the differences are not always substantial (Dalton-Puffer 2008, Ruiz de Zarobe et al. (ed.) 2009, Alonso et al. 2008, Admiraal 2006, Airey 2009). Furthermore, there is evidence from longitudinal studies suggesting that the advantage of CLIL students do not always accrue over time (Ruiz de Zarobe 2008). This is particularly significant as one of the rationales for CLIL is precisely its alleged ability to avoid the plateau effect of traditional foreign language teaching. Moreover, research suggests that the profile of CLIL learners is similar to that of their historical predecessors, Canadian immersion students (Lazaruk 2007). CLIL students largely outperform their non-CLIL peers in listening and reading comprehension, fluency and range of vocabulary, but less often so in pronunciation, accuracy and complexity of written and spoken language (Dalton-Puffer 2007 and 2008, Lasagabaster 2008, Alonso et al. 2008, Naves 2009, Ruiz de Zarobe 2008).

What this evidence suggests is that the tension between language and content which CLIL theoretically had resolved (Greenfell (2002)), still prevails. Although the 4C model was originally created in response to the lack of balance between content and language observed in some early versions of CLIL, it does not appear to be sufficiently underpinning practice (Coyle 2007). It seems that in the CLIL classrooms, which are legitimately content-led, there is still an insufficient focus on form, as identified in early Canadian immersion studies (Cummins 1998). This lack of focus on form can lead to an early fossilization of errors

(Snow et al. 198), Swain and Lapkin 1995) and thus to a perceived stagnation of progress just like in traditional MFL models.

This interpretation is supported by two facts. Firstly, the uneasy relationship between CLIL and grammatical progression at a theoretical level. In most CLIL models, the assumption is that although the explicit teaching of grammatical structures is legitimate and necessary, the traditional foreign language lessons are best suited to the teaching of the “nuts and bolts” of language (Coyle et al. 2010, Hood and Tobbutt 2009). There is a distinct lack of clarity in all the literature as to how the two may be best combined. The unspoken assumption seems to be that most structure practice by nature would be context-reduced and cognitively undemanding, and thus unsuitable for CLIL. Indeed, references to Skehan’s (1998) model of post-task activities focused on form-in order to achieve greater accuracy of expression- is conspicuously absent from the most recent CLIL literature. This proves that the Krasheian element of CLIL –that language acquisition will run its course in a meaningful environment- is still strong. On the other hand, CLIL’s responsibility to provide an environment where structural knowledge can be acquired and operationalised (Greenfell 2002, Lightbrown and Spada 2006) is not made so obvious in theoretical models.

Secondly, the lack of systematic and constructive approach to error correction focusing on form in CLIL practice, as evidenced by a range of studies on error correction. Similar to what happened in Canadian immersion classes (Swain 1988), there is little negotiation of meaning in CLIL classrooms (Serra 2007, Dalton-Puffer 2007, Dalton-Puffer and Nikkula 2006 and Sajda 2008). The overwhelming majority of error correction is lexical, while correction and feedback on grammatical errors is less frequent and consistent. In addition, CLIL teachers show a preference for recasts, which interrupt the flow of lessons minimally, as opposed to other types of feedback that encourage self-repair and greater form awareness (Lyster 2004, Ellis et al. 2006). The positive outcome of this is that error correction becomes low stakes and CLIL learners often initiate repair sequences themselves (Dalton-Puffer 2007). On the other hand, learners are not often pushed to move from a semantic to a syntactic processing of their output, which is crucial to improve accuracy and complexity in the short and the long term (Long et al. 1987, Swain and Lapkin 1995).

The CLIL model, like any others, has therefore obvious limitations. However, this is something rarely recognised. CLIL is often described as a “linguistic bath” where learners can acquire all they need to be prepared for real life communication (Dalton-Puffer 2007, Lasagabaster and Sierra 2009). The risk is that an overestimation of its potential together with the current lack of definition of expected linguistic outcomes can lead to an early and unfair disappointment with results.

To resolve the tension between content and form, two different measures are needed. Firstly, a better theoretical model for the integration of content and form in CLIL needs to underpin successful practice. This model could also provide the basis for a better coordination of CLIL and foreign language lessons, integrating the linguistic dimension of CLIL and the foreign language lessons in one curriculum. Recent research on how learners move from declarative to procedural knowledge of linguistic features by a combination of rule-based and exemplar approaches could provide a solid basis (Lyster 2007, Skehan’s 1998). A useful starting point to coordinate instruction could be Ellis’ (2002) findings that the extent to which explicit instruction of structures is needed depends on their availability in unfocused tasks through naturalistic exposure. CLIL lessons, while less conducive to controlled practice on form, can nonetheless focus on it through two strategies. They can introduce tasks that encourage learners to become more aware of form, and crucially, they can engage learners in self-repair on form more systematically (Lyster 2007). In this sense, teachers’ prompts (repetition, clarification requests and feedback) act as an opportunity to elicit

form practice during a meaningful interaction, by forcing learners to move from semantic to syntactic processing. This is the only way in which CLIL lessons can enable learners to reconstruct their inter-language efficiently and can sustain their linguistic growth. From a practical point of view, using joint FL and CLIL assessment policies for linguistic aspects could be a useful strategy.

A second measure to better balance content and language would be to establish what linguistic outcomes are reasonably to be expected of CLIL programmes. It has been pointed out that the specific socio-pragmatic conditions of CLIL classrooms impose restrictions on all aspects of the communicative competence acquired by CLIL learners (Dalton-Puffer 2007, Dalton-Puffer and Nikkula 2006, Lyster 2007). There is a need in CLIL classrooms to ensure learners have access to a maximally rich environment, from a communicative point of view, as is possible within the constraints of an educational institution. Another approach increasingly found in recent research is to define the objectives of CLIL from an instrumental point of view, based on what the learners are most likely to do with the foreign language (Dalton-Puffer 2007, Airey 2009, Lasagabaster and Sierra 2009). Since in most CLIL, the vehicular language is English, it has been suggested that the acquisition, manipulation and display of knowledge is the aim of CLIL. This approach, while undoubtedly pragmatic, entails however a fairly restricted and uninspiring view of what language learning is about. Moreover, such an approach is likely to be less relevant to languages other than English, where other non-academic instrumental factors may lie behind the learner's choice. The issue of defining linguistic objectives is thus not a straightforward one, but nonetheless essential if the integration of content and language is to be achieved and if CLIL is going to survive as a valid methodology.

Through its integration of cognition and language, CLIL has undoubtedly the potential to lead to higher levels of attainment. However, if CLIL is to realise its full potential, it needs to resolve the tension between content and language that is emerging from CLIL practice. Both theoretical and practical adjustments are required so that CLIL can fully contribute to the learners' balanced and ongoing linguistic development. This is the only way that CLIL can avoid producing learners whose productive skills, as Lyster (2007: 21) puts it, seem "*linguistically truncated albeit functionally effective*".

3. CLIL improves motivation in all learners

Motivation is an essential part of language learning. Two basic types of motivation are at play in language learning: integrative motivation (a desire to be part of the target language culture for affective reasons) and instrumental motivation (a desire to learn language for a personal gain) (Gardner 1985, Greenfell 2002). A considerable amount of research into learners' attitudes towards MFL in the UK has found that across the age groups, MFL is perceived by many as difficult, not enjoyable and not relevant (Dearing 2007, Evans and Fisher 2009) with surprising consistency. Davies (2004) and Coleman (2007) have also shown that as learners' progress through secondary education, their attitudes to MFL deteriorate slowly but surely, the deterioration sometimes beginning at the end of the primary phase (Jones 2010). Two main factors have been repeatedly identified as the source of the problem: the lack of relevance of current MFL lessons and an extreme interpretation of the communicative approach to language teaching. It is widely acknowledged that the contexts in which MFL is presented, still based on the notional-functional curricula, are far removed from learners' interests (Coyle and Holmes 2009, Macaro 2008, Pachler 2000, Greenfell 2002). This is compounded by an emphasis on transaction rather than genuine communication and on rote learning instead of grammatical progression (Macaro 2008).

CLIL, with its integration of language and non-language content, can boost motivation by providing a legitimate and authentic context for language use. In CLIL, the language becomes the means rather than the end in itself and this leads to a significant reduction in the amount of anxiety expressed by learners (Lasagabaster 2009). The content-led nature of the lessons allows the learners to engage with them at a more creative and challenging cognitive level and provides opportunities for genuine interaction with others, oneself and the world over a varied range of contexts (Greenfell (2002)). CLIL proposers also mention the possibility of the so-called “double effect”, i.e., positive attitudes towards the content subject may transfer to the language subject (Coyle et al. 2010). Finally, CLIL is described as fostering a “feel-good and can-do” attitude in all learners towards the vehicular language and language teaching in general (Marsh 2002, Coyle et al. 2010).

The limited research available so far in CLIL affective effects seems to back up these claims (Lasagabaster 2009, Hood 2006, Seikkula-Leino 2007, Alonso et al. 2008). CLIL learners display significantly more positive attitudes to the foreign language and language learning in general than non-CLIL learners. However, in all of these studies, the CLIL effect shows also some significant limitations. In Lasagabaster (2009), CLIL learners experienced a visible deterioration in their attitudes towards the foreign language over their secondary schooling, more so the case than their non-CLIL peers. Contrary to the researchers’ expectation and unlike the Canadian immersion experience, the gender gap in motivation was the same in both groups. In Seikkula-Leino’s study (2007), while CLIL learners remained more motivated than their non-CLIL peers, they also reported a lower self-concept of themselves as language learners.

What this suggests is that, as one would expect, CLIL, on its own, cannot solve the motivation problems associated with learning languages. The motivation to learn the content cannot be taken for granted, but neither is content on its own the source of all motivation. Motivation is an environmentally sensitive entity that needs to be created, but also maintained and reviewed (Dörnyei 2001). Other factors are at play, not least the classroom environment and specific methodology. Seikkula’s findings can be explained by the intrinsically challenging nature of CLIL lessons, where the learners are exposed to plenty of language which is above their current level of competence. Hood (2006) (in Coyle et al. 2010) had already identified the need to preserve the learners’ self-esteem in the initial stages of CLIL while they adjust to the new challenge. The implication for CLIL teachers is the need to provide plenty of positive feedback.

The persistence of the gender gap in CLIL programmes is even more revealing. In the vast literature on boys’ underachievement and lack of motivation in MFL, a recurrent theme is that boys are de-motivated by the lack of content beyond the purely linguistic. It has been argued that boys respond best to extrinsic motivation and that thus CLIL could be more appealing to them (Field 2000, Davies 2006, Clark and Trafford 1996, Jones and Jones 2001). The above findings, therefore, suggest that other factors are still at play, and these could be, among others, differences in learning styles and wider social perceptions about the gendered nature of languages. Interestingly, CLIL relies quite heavily on two types of methodology that have been seen associated with demotivating boys –the cooperative approach to tasks and an extensive use of target language (Field 2000, Jones and Jones 2001). At the same time, the hegemonic masculinity image offered in the wider cultural context continues to accord little importance to communication and contributes to perpetuate the gendered message about languages (Davies 2004, Coleman 2009, Carr and Pauwells 2006). Thus, for CLIL to have a gender-eroding capacity in motivation, it would need to be reinforced by a context where the personal and economic benefits of learning the foreign language are immediately obvious and part of the learners’ day to day experience, such as in Canada (Lasagabaster and Sierra 2009).

CLIL does not exist in a vacuum, but in the social and cultural contexts of different countries. The research on the motivational impact of CLIL has been carried out within the context of CLIL in English in Europe, where learners feel a strong instrumental motivation. Most learners know they will have to (and probably already do) use English as an instrument to do other things, from accessing knowledge to cultural products. Learning another subject through English reflects realistically their needs as learners. It is doubtful that the same considerations could apply necessarily to the context of schools where languages other than English are used as vehicular languages, such as in the UK. Research suggests that the globalisation of English as a lingua franca has resulted in a deviating trend between English and other languages, which are becoming an increasingly marginal field of specialisation across Europe (Dörnyei 2002). Learners are unlikely to see the instrumental need of learning a content subject in a foreign language other than English beyond providing a more authentic communication context. Yet the authenticity of that context seems more intrinsic than extrinsic. While it creates some specific communication needs in the classroom, it does not reflect the reality of the learner's wider experience. The danger is that CLIL could be perceived as an ultimately artificial communicative situation (Johnstone 1994).

Finally, if integrative motivation remains the main determinant of attitudes towards languages, the impact on motivation of the wider social attitudes towards "otherness" must be taken into account. In countries such as the UK where the social climate and public opinion, as reflected and shaped by the media, is conspicuously unsupportive of anything foreign and commonly portrays multilingualism as a problem rather than a resource (Coleman 2009), CLIL, for all its provision of meaningful content, on its own cannot neutralize social perceptions. It must be reinforced by an active effort, at whole school level, to counteract the way in which public discourse favours monolingualism and cultural insularity. In schools where people in key management positions overtly support languages, pupils are more likely to carry on with languages learning beyond the compulsory level (Evans and Fisher 2009). If CLIL has a chance of success, the whole school community must engage in shifting social attitudes to language learning beyond the classroom.

CLIL can enhance learners' motivation and overcome the main shortcoming of communicative language teaching by providing a meaningful context for authentic communication around relevant and cognitively challenging content. While it responds to long-established short-comings in MFL teaching, CLIL has its own limitations. It must be complemented by good practice into positive feedback and a variety of teaching styles to support the achievement of all learners. More importantly, where relevant, it must be coupled with active attempts at counteracting social perceptions of otherness and language learning. Combined with all these factors, the potential for CLIL to boost motivation could be a powerful tool.

4. CLIL is for learners of all abilities

CLIL proposers claim that it not only increases linguistic proficiency, but that it also enhances content knowledge, cognitive skills and creativity in learners of all abilities and not just top end (Marsh 2002, Baetens Beardsmore 2008, Coyle et al. 2010). CLIL, in their view, is entitlement for all (Coyle et al. 2010).

A substantial body of research proves that CLIL learners suffer no disadvantage in their levels of achievements in their first language or the content subjects, and that very often they outperform their non-CLIL peers (Serra 2007, Dalton-Puffer 2007, Lasagabaster 2008, Alonso et al. 2008, Hood 2006, Swain and Lapkin 2005, Holmes et al. 2009). This enhanced grasp of content knowledge is explained by two different factors: the relation between language and content in CLIL lessons and the so called "double processing".

The dual focus of CLIL means that the relationship between language and content has to be totally transparent. Language is seen as a tool for learning and one that needs scaffolding and progression as much as content. In this sense, CLIL exposes the linguistic issues in subject content in a way that is often absent in non-language subjects (Gajo 2007, Coyle et al. 2010, Baetens Bearsmore 2008, Mehisto 2008). This makes CLIL teachers more aware of the linguistic needs of the learners and thus more effective at ensuring comprehension (Muñoz 2002). If education is a “language socialization of learning” (Mohan 1987), this approach addresses issues of equity and inclusion, and has potentially a socially equalizing effect (Lasagabaster 2008), which, in the UK, is even more essential in an increasingly culturally diverse student body (Swain and Lapkin 2005). In this respect, CLIL can in all fairness be described as an entitlement for all.

However, this approach relies on a balanced integration of content, language and cognition, which is still not always the case. A failure to analyse and provide for the linguistic needs of learners will inevitably fail the weakest because of the intrinsic challenge of CLIL (Mehisto 2008), as has been the case in Hong Kong, Malaysia and Estonia (Mehisto 2008, Yassin 2009). Teachers’ abilities are key in this area, but the lack of specific training is an all too frequent hurdle (Mehisto 2008, Coyle et al. 2010). Lorenzo (2008) showed that often CLIL teachers lack a sufficiently wide repertoire of strategies to put academic content into an interlanguage that is understandable, stretching and sound from a content perspective. The problem is compounded by the fact that subject teachers involved in cross-curricular CLIL do not often recognise that their subjects are a place for language development and practice as much as content acquisition (Mehisto 2008, Lyster 2007, Gajo 2007). Therefore, CLIL’s potential to raise all pupils’ achievement will depend on there being sufficient acceptance of the role which language plays in mediating content.

The so called “double processing” refers to how CLIL learners process speech in a foreign language in order to take in new information, while at the same time integrating the new knowledge in an existing corpus (Sajda (2009)). While this provides learners with a motivating challenge (Hood 2006, Coyle et al. 2010), it also has a number of potentially negative side effects.

Firstly, it means that a lack of linguistic proficiency may be a serious barrier to understanding and learning, particularly in secondary schooling (Lightbown and Spada 2006). The problem can be made worse if coupled with insufficient teacher proficiency or a limited range of teaching strategies to support linguistic development. It must be noted that the vast majority of cross-curricular CLIL programmes are selective or self-selective on the basis of linguistic ability in the language and/or general academic performance (Ullman 1999, Dalton-Puffer 2007, Sajda 2008, Lasagabaster 2008, Coyle 2007). Interestingly, this “voluntary nature” is often described a key feature of successful CLIL programmes (Navés 2009, Mehisto 2008). It begs the question to what extent this type of self-selection, which traditionally attracts motivated, middle-class learners, has eschewed perceptions of the relative difficulty of CLIL. Over the next few years, it will be interesting to see results from the CLIL programmes in Madrid, which have been intentionally implemented in disadvantaged areas. Initial reports mention a 10% drop-out rate because of inability to cope with the demands of the programme (Hidalgo 2010). The challenge, if CLIL is to become an entitlement for all, will lie in developing approaches that can cater for all linguistic abilities instead of falling back onto exclusion.

A second implication of “double-processing” is that it can lead to a longer teaching process and a concentration on the basics to the exclusion of the wider elements of the subject (Sajda 2008, Dalton-Puffer 2009 and 2007, Hood 2006, and Mehisto 2008). However, this may not necessarily have a negative impact. It can lead, in the perception of both teachers and learners, to a deeper understanding of concepts. Learners benefit from having to engage more actively with the material to overcome the linguistic barrier (Dalton-

Puffer 2008) and, at the same time, teachers report avoiding overloading students with unnecessary information (Sajda 2008). The result of both strategies is that learners remember more of the material taught.

There is a further side effect of CLIL which has only recently come to light. Research in Finland (Seikkula 2007) suggests that although learners of all abilities achieve as expected, CLIL programmes cap overachievement. While in CLIL programmes more pupils achieve in line with their ability and less pupils below, there is a significantly lower proportion of pupils exceeding initial expectations. The results are attributed to the intrinsically more demanding nature of the CLIL learning situation. The implication for individual learners is that reaching maximum outcome results may need to be sacrificed to increased mastery of a foreign language.

In contexts such as the UK where there are educational markets in operation, the implications of such findings could be potentially decisive for the uptake of CLIL. CLIL could potentially enhance the overall value-added of a school for the middle and bottom end, yet it could also limit the amount of top grades in the content subjects¹. While value-added league measurements are valued by inspectors, raw results ultimately decide the social perception of a school, due to the nature of education as a positional good (Winch 1996). If to this limitation we add, in some countries, a social context which is at best lukewarm towards language learning CLIL looks like a choice that only the bravest of headteachers may want to make.

A final point must be made about the general cognitive advantages of bilingualism, which are often quoted in support of offering CLIL to all learners (Baetens Beardmore 2008, Coyle et al. 2010, Directorate General 2009, CCN 2010). There is evidence to suggest that properly developed school bilingualism is linked to greater communicative sensibility, metalinguistic capacities and elasticity in thinking and creativity (Mehisto 2008, Baker 2006). However, there is also evidence that the amount of foreign language knowledge needed for the benefits of bilingualism to be evident is substantial (Lightbown and Spada 2006). There is so far no evidence that the much more limited scope of cross-curricular CLIL can deliver the same sort of linguistic proficiency and thus cognitive effects. The risk, once again, is that presenting the advantages of CLIL on a par with those of immersion education (Lasagabaster and Sierra 2009) can lead in a few years' time to serious questioning of its effectiveness. There is an urgent need to define what the cognitive advantages of the limited yet enhanced communicative proficiency provided by CLIL could be.

CLIL has the potential to lead to better understanding of content and to raise achievement for all, but this will only happen if CLIL is put in the context of optimal teaching practice that scaffolds language development as much as content development. CLIL can be seen as an entitlement for all, with different outcomes for different learners, but stakeholders must accept that even the best delivered CLIL programme, because of its intrinsic difficulty, may limit the extent to which learners can overachieve. Competitive pressure in the current educational markets and a social attitude still sceptic about foreign languages may limit severely the interest in such programmes.

¹ This is in the hypothetical scenario where content subjects could be taken in a foreign language as is the case in some European CLIL programmes.

5. CLIL leads to greater intercultural awareness

CLIL is generally linked to the development of greater intercultural awareness (Coyle et al. 2010 and 2009) by providing learners with experiences that would have been impossible in a monolingual or traditional MFL setting. Although language and culture are inseparable, language work in itself does not necessarily lead to the sort of self-awareness and tolerance of difference linked to intercultural understanding (Broady 2004, Byram 1997, Jones 2000). In CLIL, the key difference is the provision of a meaningful context and the use of the foreign language as a tool to explore and construct meaning. In this way, learners can engage in deeper learning about themselves and others, and, at the same time, experience the process from the perspective of their counterparts (Coffey 2005). An intercultural ethos is thus a defining feature of the CLIL classroom both a micro-level, through meaningful interactions in the vehicular language and potentially, at macro level, by providing pupils with the linguistic tools and knowledge to extend their interactions beyond the classroom (Coyle et al. 2010). The use of new technologies and school partnerships abroad can make CLIL a catalyst for living intercultural experiences, and teachers are encouraged to be proactive in order to fulfil CLIL's potential.

There are potentially some theoretical and practical limitations to this claim. In the CLIL cross-curricular model, it is often the case that the learning of a subject is not culturally located at all, such as in science, maths or PE. In these contexts, the amount of *savoirs* (Byram 1997) developed by the learner can be limited. However, it can be argued that the use of a foreign language as a medium for learning is in itself a decentring process of one's own linguistic worldview and thus, in itself, an essentially intercultural process (Coffey 2005). The use of a different language to explore the world can be seen as a first *prise de conscience* of a different culture and of the commonality of the human learning experience. In the context of increasingly diverse student populations, such as in the UK, CLIL can thus also contribute to the development of social cohesion within a given society through greater intercultural competence² (Anderson 2008).

It is interesting to note that not all CLIL models accord the same central importance to culture and intercultural understanding as Coyle's 4C model. Whereas her model places culture at the centre of the 4C pyramid, other European models place language and communication at the core and culture as a peripheral element (Dalton-Puffer 2008). This difference may stem from the practical fact that CLIL in Europe is essentially CLIL in English (Dalton-Puffer 2008). The motivation to learn English is linked less to an interest in the culture(s) it is associated with and more to its usefulness as a lingua franca (Byram and Risager 1999, Holly 1990). However, even if the motivation to learn English is purely instrumental, developing the full range of *savoirs* associated with intercultural awareness is still essential, because a lingua franca is never culturally neutral (Byram and Risager 1999). Learners of different native languages using English to communicate will inevitably do so by reference to cultural realities embedded in the lingua franca. CLIL in English, in many ways, has greater potential to develop intercultural awareness than CLIL in other languages, because it multiplies exponentially the range of possible opportunities for contact with a broader range of cultures. It can therefore contribute to placing learning in a truly multilingual context. It is thus essential not only that the intercultural ethos is maintained in the classroom, but also that the cultural

² Of course, CLIL would reach its maximum intercultural effect if community languages were used as vehicular languages, but so far, CLIL is overwhelmingly restricted to the so called "prestigious languages", another mark of its elitist origins (Dalton-Puffer 2007).

elements that underpin English as a language are incorporated in the process. Failure to do so would result in an impoverished CLIL experience for learners.

CLIL certainly has the potential to lead to greater intercultural awareness than traditional content or language teaching. In fact, this is probably its most solid claim. Its integration of context, language and cognition creates the perfect environment to encourage reflection and self-awareness, while allowing learners to re-appropriate the language as a learning tool in their own context. In this sense, CLIL can allow the learners to step outside their own experience and develop a “perspective consciousness” of cultural processes (Broady 2004, Coffey 2005) more effectively than traditional classrooms. With the growing need for a genuinely global sense of citizenship, this dimension of CLIL programmes is probably its most valuable asset and one that cannot afford to come second to the more practical aims of enhancing linguistic proficiency. Ironically, because of the status of English as a lingua franca, this may be strength of CLIL programmes which use other vehicular languages, as will be the case in the UK.

6. Conclusion

CLIL as an alternative and complementary model for MFL teaching has the potential to address many of the shortcomings of traditional approaches. Although research is still limited, there is increasing evidence that, as its proposers claim, it leads to a higher level of linguistic proficiency and heightened motivation, it can suit learners of different abilities and it affords a unique opportunity to prepare learners for global citizenship. However, as this essay has shown, CLIL also has inherent limitations not often recognised, but which are beginning to emerge and which point at both theoretical and methodological shortcomings. The CLIL learners can have an imbalanced linguistic development which favours their receptive rather than productive skills, while their motivation is still subject to contextual and social influences. The extra level of difficulty which CLIL entails can leave the weakest learners very vulnerable if insufficient scaffolding is provided for linguistic development, and finally, while CLIL’s greatest potential lies in its intercultural dimension, the role of cultural awareness in CLIL models where English is the vehicular language is less well established.

If CLIL’s potential is to be fully implemented, a number of measures are needed. A clearer theoretical model is required to better underpin the integration of content and language in CLIL lessons and the relationship between the CLIL language curriculum and the traditional MFL lessons. In this sense, CLIL could make a crucial contribution to addressing the long standing tension between content and form in all models of language teaching. If CLIL is to be accessible to all learners and leave behind its selective past, it should trigger more integrated and socially inclusive whole-school language policies, with a clearer focus on the role that language plays in assimilating concepts across subjects. Its motivational potential needs to be complemented by broader initiatives which counteract entrenched social perceptions, and its intercultural ethos needs to be protected from a utilitarian approach which sees CLIL as the way purely to achieve greater linguistic proficiency.

Addressing these limitations is essential for the future of CLIL, not less because there is currently an unmistakable evangelical tone about much of the CLIL literature. It is presented as a timely and perfect solution to the demands of the global knowledge society for a multilingual, adaptable workforce, and this has led to a lack of definition and occasional over-estimation of its expected outcomes. Yet CLIL is a costly model, in terms of financial and human resources, and its implementation must be seen to deliver maximum

benefits. The risk of implementing CLIL under the weight of unrealistic expectations and without specifically addressing its emerging shortcomings is one that we cannot afford to run. It would lead to CLIL being perceived as a quick fix rather than a timely solution and to a logical yet regrettable disappointment with a model that is genuinely promising.

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The shaping of Spanish CLIL

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Abstract

ELT in Spain is witnessing the arrival of CLIL and English is changing from a goal-oriented school subject to a medium of instruction for content subjects. What is taking place in our system is influenced by what has previously happened elsewhere. Two research episodes have contributed to it: the Bangalore Project in India and the Canadian Immersion Program originated at the St Lambert School in Montreal. From the first one we learnt about the notion of task, as an innovative element for curriculum design at that time, and, consequently, about a new type of syllabus: the process syllabus. Task-based approaches and project-work founded its pedagogical principles on this type of syllabus. The Canadian Immersion Program has provided us with, at least, two psycho-pedagogical principles that are paramount in bilingual education: (a) the distinction between BICS and CALP, and b) the principle of *common underlying proficiency*.

Key words: CLIL, Task, Canadian Immersion

Resumen

La aparición de CLIL (AICLE, en español), como enfoque y metodología alternativa a las tradicionales clases de lengua extranjera está suponiendo un cambio radical en el sistema educativo español. Sin embargo, buscar parte de sus fundamentos psicopedagógicos nos lleva a prestar especial atención al Proyecto Bangalore y al programa de Inmersión Canadiense. Del primero hemos aprendido el concepto de *tarea*, como el elemento que articula todo el diseño curricular de tipo procedimental. La distinción entre los términos BICS y CALP y sus consecuencias metodológicas, así como la idea de la competencia común subyacente son los dos principios teóricos que apoyan nuestro aprendizaje de contenidos a través de las lenguas.

Palabras clave: AICLE, tarea, Inmersión Canadiense

1. Introduction

ELT in Spain has experienced a dramatic change during the last decade. ELT in the school system has moved from traditional EFL lessons –three hours a week in the best cases- to a variety of CLIL programs being administered by most education authorities all throughout the country. This assortment of CLIL programs provides learners with larger exposure to a second language, ranging from a few extra hours a week to almost fifty per cent of all teaching periods in a school timetable.

Both national and regional education authorities (Naves & Muñoz 1999; Centre de Recursos de Llengües Estrangeres 2006; Lorenzo, Casal, Moore & Afonso 2009; Pérez Vidal 2009 or Lorenzo, Trujillo & Vez, 2011, for example) are taking steps to set up innovative programs that are content-based and delivered through a second language. Most commonly, schools that are involved in this process are being labelled as *bilingual schools* in spite of the fact that the programs that are offered have little to do with bilingualism. To tell the truth, as above mentioned, we are witnessing a wave of content-based programs with different degrees of exposure to the L2.

Implementing a CLIL program implies challenges and innovations at all levels (Roldán Tapia 2007a; Mehisto, Marsh & Frigols 2008; Coyle, Holmes & King 2009; or Coyle, Hood & Marsh 2010). Changes never come alone and what is taking place in our school system is influenced by what has previously happened elsewhere. In this sense, CLIL is not simply a trend that European countries (Eurydice 2006) have designed to counteract American content-based or bilingual programs. On the contrary, CLIL relies on the knowledge and expertise generated by the implementation of a variety of programs in a large number of countries (Lorenzo, Trujillo & Vez 2011:182-187). At least, two research episodes have contributed to outline the teaching context we are immersed in: the Bangalore Project in India and the Canadian Immersion Program originated at the St Lambert School in Montreal.

From the first one we learnt about the notion of task, as an innovative element for curriculum design at that time, and, consequently, about a new type of syllabus: the process syllabus. In addition, we also learnt from the Indian experience in the Bangalore area that classroom-generated research is possible wherever we want to carry it out, with no need for laboratory conditions or else.

The Canadian Immersion Program has provided us with, at least, two psycho-pedagogical principles that are paramount in content-based and bilingual education: (a) the distinction between BICS and CALP as two different types of competences to be developed; and (b) the principle of *common underlying proficiency* (CUP), which explains how the acquisition of the first language benefits the learning of a second or any other additional language.

2. The Bangalore Project

Having been one of the most widely reported (Johnson 1982; Brumfit 1984a and 1984b) and revisited ELT projects (Roldán Tapia 2000), it ran from 1979 to 1984 under the full name of The Bangalore/Madras Communicational Teaching Project. The most comprehensive report of the project, Prabhu's publication, came out a bit later, in 1987, when its implementation was already over.

A wish to change the teaching situation in the Bangalore area gave way to the project. At that time, ELT in the region was dominated by an S-O-S (structural-oral-situational) approach. This kind of approach and its subsequent syllabus was characterized by a planned progression and pre-selection of contents as well as by the use of form-focused activities; all these features being typical of type-A or product syllabuses (White 1988). This paradigm did not bring out satisfactory results in the sense that students who had been taught with it were unable to make an appropriate use of the language in situations of real communication outside the classroom.

Participating students in this project exceeded 200 and the teachers (Beretta 1990) summed up a total of 16, but it has been criticized that only four of them were ordinary teachers whereas the other twelve were especially recruited for the research program: they were a kind of elite; they used to work as teacher trainers and were closely associated with the British Council's office in Bangalore.

The Bangalore Project put an emphasis on the learning-centred approach to foreign languages, being linked in that way to the strong version of the communicative approach, which supported the idea of *teaching through communication* rather than *training for communication*. In fact, the notion of *procedure*, widely used by Prabhu and the Project reporters, states very clearly what kind of syllabus was going to be developed throughout the research period. The syllabus, actually called the procedural syllabus, is a task-based one and the intensive

exposure to the L2 caused by the effort to solve the different tasks becomes the necessary condition for language learning to take place.

The task is the element that articulates this teaching project; in fact, the syllabus itself consists of a series of tasks, which have to be solved. For Prabhu (1987: 24), a task is: “an activity which required learners to arrive at an outcome from given information through a process of thought, and which allowed teachers to control and regulate that process”.

His definition of task hardly fits into one of the categories that have been described in academic research: on the one hand, imitating real communication outside the class is one of the goals of the project, but, on the other hand, the degree of control the teacher exercises on the learner reminds us of pedagogical tasks.

Real world tasks	Pedagogical tasks
Communicativetasks	Enablingtasks
Open-endedtasks	Closedtasks
Focusonmeaning	Focusonform

Abridged from Roldán Tapia (2007b: 125-126)

Willis (1996: 23) provides another point of view and estimates that: “tasks are always activities where the target language is used by the learner for a communicative purpose (goal) in order to achieve an outcome”.

The difference lies, precisely, in the little interest Willis's definition shows for the planning and selection of tasks. Apart from that, the differences are perhaps more relevant in as much as Prabhu's approach is more teacher- than learner-centred, and, therefore, it is the teacher who controls the tasks which are carried out in the classroom.

The use of tasks in the early eighties meant a breadth of innovation in the field of second/foreign language teaching, although the way they were presented in the classroom has not been exempt from criticism. On the one hand, lessons consisted of three different stages (Prabhu 1987: 24) which might offer a misleading conception of what a task was: first of all, there was a stage called perhaps erroneously "pre-task", in which the teacher exercised guidance and control; secondly, it was the "task" itself, featured by each learner's individual work; and finally, a third stage called "checking", in which students' work was marked on the basis of content, not language.

This threefold division has been maintained with considerable differences. Although broadly accepted, the taxonomy that has been coined is not exempt from extensive review and criticism. Scholars and researchers talk about pre-task, task and post-task, with a generous listing of activities that fall into each category (Lorenzo, Trujillo & Vez (2011: 248-253).

Among those scholars, Brumfit (1984a), Greenwood (1985), Clark (1987), Willis (1996) and Willis & Willis (2007) express their disagreement with Prabhu's threefold division because they feel that it may be easily confused with the kind of activities developed in a more traditional kind of classroom (grammar-translation or drill-based), in which a three-stage organization is made use of: that is, presentation, controlled practice and less-controlled production (PPP).

When reported, the list of tasks (Prabhu 1987:138-143) was extensive and included issues as varied as drawing, maps and timetables, *finding the odd man out*, listening to and reading stories, identifying errors, etc.

In fact, this variety was criticized by Greenwood (1985:269-270) because it included elements as diverse as *maps and plans*, which are materials; *listening*, which is a language skill or games such as *the odd man out*, which resemble very little real-world tasks (Long 1985, Nunan 1989, Kumaravadivelu 1993), for example.

Two positive aspects have to be pointed out about Prabhu's choice of task types: the first one is the preference for information-gap and reasoning-gap tasks over opinion/decision-making ones as the appropriate tools for the learning process. The second positive aspect of that list of tasks is that all those different elements (functions, skills, materials) covered under the notion of task implied an anticipation of what we have mentioned above and regarded as pedagogical tasks.

The task is the element which articulates the procedural syllabus, developed by Prabhu (1987) and, consequently, it has also been the constituent of the typology of approaches that have come out since then (for example, Willis 1996 or Littlewood 2004).

The type of syllabus designed for the Project played an important role in the development of the broad category of type-B syllabuses (White 1988), so fashionable since the late 1980s and early 1990s: (a) the process syllabus (Breen 1987; Candlin 1987), characterized by its wider educational goals (beyond language learning) and by the importance granted to the process of negotiation; (b) the procedural syllabus, informed by Prabhu himself; and (c) the task-based syllabus (Long 1985; Long & Crookes 1993 or Nunan 1993), with its emphasis on the distinction between real-world and pedagogical tasks.

The implementation of the procedural syllabus also influenced the growth of ESP teaching throughout the world, with an increasing use of the task-based approach for curriculum design.

Its influence has also reached Spain in two different waves: in the 1990s, tasks became the pivotal element for the reform of our national EFL curriculum and, in the 2000s, CLIL methodology is not understood without the use of tasks.

In the early nineties, *LOGSE* provided a considerable shift in terms of curriculum design and implementation; tasks were presented as the new paradigm of curriculum design. Project work, or so-called long-term tasks at that time, became the key stone in terms of classroom methodology. This wave of task-based learning was, somehow, a kind of content-based approach to teaching, but delivered by foreign language teachers with a focus on language learning.

Since early this century a second wave of content-based teaching is noticeable and all foreign language policies are geared towards its implementation. This second wave comes in the shape of CLIL, which, in contrast to the former, is delivered by content teachers. English is no longer just the goal of learning, since it has acquired the role of medium of instruction. Tasks are carried in a second language and they are designed to close the existing gap between the classroom and the real world. Integration and collaboration of different school subjects is required to fulfil these tasks.

In addition to the use of tasks for curriculum design, the Bangalore Project was also an example of research on second language learning in school contexts. With the discussion about research terminology being set aside, classroom-based seems to be the label which best describes the research done by Prabhu and his colleagues.

Classroom-based research is never easy to carry out because of the external factors which have an influence on it and which constraint it (Hawes 1997: 7-8): (a) classroom teachers are consumed by working long hours

and find very little or no time to conduct or even read research; (b) they also have few incentives, either administrative or economic, to get involved in research; (c) teaching, in general, has become an underestimated job which is not being appreciated by society; as a consequence, research on teaching is even a step behind; and (d) many teachers perceive that research is inaccessible to them because it seems such an intellectual activity that only academic scholars are capable of it.

Even though several constraints seem to undervalue this type of research, the Bangalore Project turns to be an extremely valuable piece of classroom-based research because of the economic, social and educational circumstances of a country such as India, where it was carried out.

The Bangalore project originates out of a real teaching situation and tries to sort out some deficiencies observed in a particular teaching context. It is a large-scale project, extending for some years and involving a considerable number of students; these circumstances never make things easy if we consider the number of external factors, which affect both the design, and the process of research. Probably, such a piece of research might have been easy to conduct in a Western country rather than in India and therefore it deserves the praise of all the scholar and teaching community.

In closing, the race towards the achievement of an ideal curriculum design will go on for many years. In any case, the Bangalore Project is not perfect but, at least, has already become a turning point for curriculum designers, teachers and education authorities; and, hopefully, the role it has played for closing the gap between theory and classroom reality will have to be taken into account in this new era of teacher education.

3. The Canadian Immersion Program

The term Canadian immersion came into stage in the late 1960s, to make reference to the innovative programs which were using French as a medium of instruction in elementary schools (Lambert & Tucker 1972; Lambert 1981; Genesse, Lambert & Holobow 1986; Genesse 1995; Cummins 2000b or Baker 2003) in that country. These programs provided opportunities for the learner to add a second language to their repertory with no cost to their cognitive academic development.

With the growing importance of French as the main working language in the Quebec area and increasing dissatisfaction with the linguistic barriers between English and French Canadians, a group of English-speaking parents in St Lambert, outside Montreal, began to meet informally in the early 1960's to discuss the situation and see what kind of response they might find in the school system. Two years later, the school district was sensitive and responded to their demands: St. Lambert School was going to implement an experimental kindergarten immersion class; it was September 1965.

With this project, the children were expected to (a) become competent in speaking, reading and writing French; (b) reach normal achievement levels throughout the curriculum, including the English language; and (c) appreciate the traditions and culture of both French-speaking and English-speaking Canadians.

In short, the aims were for children to become bilingual and bicultural without loss of academic achievement.

The vast amount of research generated since then has provided scholars, trainers and teachers alike the theoretical foundations for many subsequent L2-medium programs: in this sense, the distinction between BICS

and CALP together with the coinage of the common underlying principle (CUP) turned to be two of the assets gained from this wealth of research.

The acronyms BICS and CALP make reference to the distinction set up by Cummins (1979) (1999) (2000a) between *basic interpersonal communication skills* and *cognitive academic language proficiency*. The distinction lies on the very different time spans required by an immigrant child to acquire conversational fluency in the L2 as compared to academic proficiency that enables him to cope with his learning process in the new language. Whereas BICS take about two years to acquire since the initial exposure to the language, CALP may need about five years since that same moment.

If the distinction between BICS and CALP is translated into an EFL school context, the time required to achieve both levels may vary considerably because of the far shorter time of exposure to the second language.

	In an immersion context	In an EFL school context
BICS	About 2 years since arrival in the country	About 7-8 years, with a communicative approach to EFL
CALP	About 5 years since arrival in the country	Only attainable by following a CLIL program

Abridged from Roldán Tapia (2007b: 38)

This distinction between BICS and CALP explains why, traditionally, our EFL students were unable to go any further than simulating some real life communicative situations after completing their compulsory secondary education. EFL had become just one more subject within their school curriculum, stripped of any instrumental role that might contribute to some sort of non-linguistic cognitive thinking.

In the same way, Cummins (2000b) set up the scene to exemplify the concept of *common underlying proficiency* with a clear case of two languages that have little in common: that is, in a Japanese-English immersion program in Japan, all instruction that develops literacy and skills in English contributes significantly to the development of literacy in the first language, in this case Japanese.

In our brain, all the thinking skills that are activated for the learning of one language are useful for the same process in any other language the learner is trying to acquire. The distance between languages does not necessarily mean a hindrance to the process.

Why does this co-development of languages happen? The answer has to do with the existence of a common underlying principle. In this respect, Swain & Johnson (1997), Cummins & Swain (1998), Cummins (1999), Cummins (2000c) and Baker (2003), argue for a common underlying proficiency or interdependence hypothesis, in which cross-lingual proficiencies can promote the development of cognitive, academic skills. Common underlying proficiency refers to the interdependence of concepts, skills and linguistic knowledge found in a learner's brain. It is stated that cognitive and literacy skills established in the mother tongue, L1 or whatever the language of instruction is will transfer to the second or third language of the learner. Both languages are distinct when uttered but are meant to share, at a deeper level, concepts and knowledge derived from the cognitive and linguistic abilities of the speaker.

The way in which CUP functions is the best example to illustrate how linguistic knowledge is stored in the brain. In other words, the use of the first or second language is independent, but the concepts and

linguistic codes are stored as underlying proficiency. It may, therefore, describe language proficiency in terms of surface and deeper levels of thinking skills. It is argued that the deeper levels of cognitive processing such as analysis, synthesis and evaluation are necessary to academic progress, no matter what the language of that academic activity is.

This notion of *common underlying proficiency* provides the theoretical background that supports the idea of an integrated curriculum. This integrated curriculum is the document that articulates CLIL in the schools where these programs are being implemented. Many education authorities are encouraging their schools to design their own integrated curriculum to cater for a competence-based learning of languages together with an acquisition of non-linguistic contents by means of a second language, other than the L1. This type of curriculum design is not standardized across regions and some of them just include English –most common L2– and the content subjects, whereas education authorities in Andalusia are asking for the integration of the mother tongue as well as the L2 and L3. With no doubt, apart from the contribution of key competences in education, the *common underlying proficiency* is at the root of this CLIL-oriented integrated curriculum.

4. Conclusion

CLIL in Spain has not come out of thin air or has not been a rabbit let out of the hat; on the contrary, there has been a wealth of previous research and knowledge in the shaping of its current state. Research is the key element in this whole picture in as much as it originates in the classroom and findings have an impact in the school system afterwards. In the first case, the notion of task and its role in curriculum design has jumped from the field of foreign language teaching to the realm of content-based language learning. In the second case, the Canadian experience has shown us the difference between learning a language and using a language for a real communicative purpose as well as the potential the human brain possesses to store and activate other additional languages a person may learn throughout his/her life.

The Canadian Immersion program was set up about fifty years ago and still goes on, whereas Spanish CLIL has been just a decade with us. Classroom-based research and extensive analysis of its implementation are the bench marks to prove that it works and overcome reluctant attitudes.

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Making communication happen: Interactive groups in the bilingual classroom

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Abstract

One of the main challenges teachers face at Bilingual Primary schools is our students' lack of communicative skills. The research presented here intends to prove that Interactive Groups work improves Primary Education students' participation in learning activities in L2 classrooms. Furthermore, since Interactive Groups advocate for meaningful learning through interaction, we are helping our students to efficiently develop their communicative competence. Findings of the research suggest that Interactive Groups not only substantially increase students talking time and improve their attitudes towards the target language but they are also an egalitarian and dialogic tool that keeps all of our students' expectations high.

Key words: Interactive Groups, bilingualism, high expectations, academic success

Resumen

Uno de los principales retos a los que nos enfrentamos los profesores y las profesoras de inglés en centros Bilingües de Educación Primaria, es la falta de destrezas comunicativas por parte de nuestro alumnado. El estudio que aquí se presenta defiende que el trabajo en el aula de lenguas por medio de Grupos Interactivos ayuda a mejorar su participación en las actividades del aula a lo largo de la etapa de Educación Primaria. Al basarse en el aprendizaje significativo a través de la interacción, estamos ayudando a nuestros estudiantes a desarrollar eficazmente su competencia comunicativa. Además de incrementar la participación y mejorar la actitud del estudiante hacia el aprendizaje de la lengua extranjera, los resultados de la investigación sugieren que los Grupos Interactivos son una herramienta que fomenta la igualdad y el diálogo entre todos los estudiantes.

Palabras clave: Grupos Interactivos, bilingüismo, altas expectativas, éxito educativo

1. Introduction

“Teachers who inspire realize there will always be rocks in the road ahead of us. They will be stumbling blocks or stepping stones; it all depends on how we use them.”

Author Unknown

In what follows, I will attempt to establish how these rocks can be turned into stepping stones in order to meet our primary school students' needs as well as face the challenges of the teaching profession. I will focus on an important and common challenge that primary school teachers of English face every day: students' lack of effective oral communication skills. Despite the support given by both Spanish legislation and the Spanish curriculum in order to help students “acquire a basic communicative competence in at least one foreign language” (RD. 1513/2006: 31488. Author's translation), the truth is that most students find it difficult to make themselves understood in a foreign language. There is a real need, therefore, to provide students with effective oral communication skills in English in the Spanish context. In Spain, this idea is underlined in the introduction of the Bilingual State Schools Syllabus: “the full incorporation of Spain into Europe demands better communicative skills in the different European languages” (Syllabus 2005:1). More precisely, one of the Bilingual Schools Program Objectives states: “Pupils should not only be able to

recognize the different possible expressive styles in both languages, but should also acquire enough communicative competence in English to be able to interact naturally in everyday situations” (Bilingual School Program, 2009:2).

On the one hand, I am aware of both, the limited exposure language learners get from traditional foreign language classes, and the limitations of learning a foreign language in an artificial context. On the other hand, I consider it essential to provide students with real communication situations, meaningful practice of the four skills and plenty of opportunities to put everything they have learnt into practice.

In order to face all the challenges mentioned in the previous paragraphs, I have been using Interactive Groups¹ for some years, but only now can I attest my findings using this teaching technique. In this article I will describe part of my Action Research Project² about how Interactive Groups can help us provide our students with plenty of opportunities to communicate in a real and meaningful way, improve our students’ oral communication skills and, ultimately, help them develop a positive and motivating attitude towards the learning of a second language.

To organize, guide and direct the research I set up two research questions:

1. If I set up Interactive Groups in an English lesson for a group of students in their sixth year of Primary Education, in what ways, if any, will the development of their communication skills be affected?
2. How will the use of Interactive Groups affect the students’ attitude towards English?

2. Interactive Groups theoretical background

Interactive Groups are one of the Successful Educational Actions (SEAS³) included in Learning Communities. So, with the aim to provide a complete and global definition of Interactive Groups it is essential to first describe the Learning Communities project, and consequently, part of the basic literature concerning Interactive Groups will be revisited.

2.1. Learning communities

The Centre of Research in Theories and Practices that Overcome Inequalities, CREA⁴ founded by Ramón Flecha, studied and develop the concept of Learning Communities (Giner, 2010). In 1999, a group of university teachers, researchers and professionals from different disciplines (anthropology, biology, communication, economics, engineering, history, pedagogy, political sciences, psychology and sociology among others) decided to take part in CREA. At present, there are Learning Communities in Spain, Brazil and Chile. In particular, there are 95 schools that have been transformed into Learning Communities in Spain.

¹ Interactive Groups are small mixed groups inside the classroom where students are encouraged to cooperate with other under adult supervision; they must reach a consensus through dialogue to find the right answers or solution to the activity.

² Research framed within the Master Universitario en Enseñanza del Inglés, “Teaching through English in the Bilingual school.”

³ Actions that produce academic success and lead to social cohesion, especially for social and cultural groups that have traditionally been marginalised.

⁴ Further information about CREA at www.pcb.ub.es/crea.

Flecha and Puigvert (2002:1) state that “Learning Communities is a transformation project of educational centers, which aims at overcoming school failure and conflicts”. The principles of Learning Communities can be summarized as follows:

1. *Creation of opportunities.* Regardless of a student’s cultural and social class, Learning Communities seek equal results for all. As Flecha (2000) suggests, the creation of opportunities is based on the theory of dialogic learning which evolved from the investigation and observation of how people learn through dialogic interactions, both outside and inside schools. Dialogic interactions are based on equality, and seek understanding through speakers appreciating the arguments provided to the dialogue regardless of their position of power.
2. *Educational community involvement.* All members of the educational community in general, and families in particular, are encouraged to get involved in the learning process of students. Learning is planned through egalitarian, critical and reflexive dialogue with all members (families, volunteers, professionals, students and teachers). Volunteers from the educational community can collaborate with teachers inside their classrooms and in other learning spaces in the school.
3. *High expectations of all students.* Learning Communities ought to maintain high expectations of all students, and goals are shared with all the members of the educational community.
4. *Creation of phases.* Those schools which decide to be a Learning Community go through different phases before starting. Following Flecha and Puigvert (2002:7), these phases are: “Sensitization, taking decisions, dream, election of priorities, and planning”. These phases can be resume as the process by which, first, all the members receive an intensive training, then, they *dream* and decide what kind of school they want and, according to that, select their priorities and plan their project.

In addition to these four principles, the Learning Communities project highly recommends the use of Successful Educational Actions, the main SEAs are: 1) *Dialogic Literary Gatherings* addressed to low academic instruction people: they read texts that are later commented on promoting an egalitarian dialogue to sharing knowledge; 2) *Dialogic model of solving conflicts*, which implies preventing conflicts through dialogue before these conflicts happen; 3) *Tutored libraries*, which are learning time extensions; and 4) *Interactive Groups*. It is this Successful Education Action with which I am most interested in and which forms the centre of my investigations. A more detailed analysis follows..

2.2 Interactive Groups

Interactive Groups can be defined as: “Small and heterogeneous groups of students who work collaboratively on activities with the support of an adult, usually a community member, who promotes supportive interactions and dialogue in the group so that all the children learn the content knowledge.” (Racionero and Padrós, 2010: 155). These groups rotate, so that over time each group works on a different activity. As every group is supervised by an adult, students not only interact with other students but also with four or five different adults. Students should reach a consensus or agreement in order to provide a common solution to different challenges. In doing so, students successfully solve several activities suggested by the teacher by means of egalitarian dialogue. The classroom dynamics behind Interactive Groups result in two essential dialogic learning dimensions; on the one hand, there is an instrumental dimension and on the other, a dimension of solidarity.

It is important that the teacher is familiar with his/her students, because he or she will have to create 4-5 groups, being the members of these groups as heterogeneous as possible. This composition can vary with the frequency established by the teacher. In other words, weak and strong students have to work together, and the more diverse they are the better (personality, learning style, background). The rationale is that the diversity will include several different view points that will generate “conflict of interests”. This conflict provides discussion, and this discussion, in turn, makes students eager to participate and defend their points of view through egalitarian dialogue (Flecha, 2000). With the help of the volunteer, who acts as a moderator, students must reach a consensus through a discussion within the limits of respect and education, that is, they do not fight and nobody misbehaves. Furthermore, mixing different levels and conditions means that weaker students benefit from the stronger ones, and stronger students gain from learning with the weaker ones .

Diversity amongst volunteers is also desirable because as Ramis and Kastrina (2010) insist “all adults, including those without a substantial academic background have many abilities that constitute a *cultural intelligence*, that is central in today’s diverse societies to help all children learn” (Racionero and Padrós, 2010:155 cited in Ramis and Krastina, 2010: 247). In order to help volunteers achieve their duty, some previous instructions have to be given before starting with the groups. The volunteer’s role is to make sure that everyone takes part, promoting dialogue among the students and preventing than only one student becoming the protagonist. They do not have to teach or give the solution, but rather guide and make sure that dialogue is in progress. The ideal scenario is that volunteers are parents because in turn this increases awareness of the school’s work and improves the relationship between parents and teachers, which has been proven to be essential to enhancing student learning. (Aubert et al. 2008).

When planning classroom activities for learners of a second language, two important aspects should be taken into account: Scaffolding⁵ and Zone of Proximal Development⁶. Scaffolding and Zone of Proximal Development are closely related. Walqui (2006:163) points out: “Learning in the ZPD means that the learner is assisted (scaffold) by others to be able to achieve more than he or she would be able to achieve alone”. In fact it is only within ZPD when Scaffolding can occur. During Interactive Groups sessions, interaction and participation is much higher than in a regular class, as a consequence Scaffolding happens more frequently, giving students many more benefits.

Besides, according to Wood (1988: 96) “scaffolding is tutorial behaviour that is contingent, collaborative and interactive”. Interactive Groups meet all the requirements quoted by Wood since behaviour is contingent upon the actions and answers given, which depend on another’s answers or actions. It is collaborative because students have to reach a consensus through egalitarian dialogue in order to find an answer or solution to the activity. It is also interactive because there are several people mutually engaged in the same objective.

However, Collective Scaffolding is the most relevant term for what occurs during Interactive Groups sessions: “students working in groups can produce results that none of them could have been capable of producing on their own” (Donato 1994: 33-56). Besides, Walqui, (2006: 168) states:

⁵ As Bruner (1983: 60) suggests, “Scaffolding is a process of setting up the situation to make the child’s entry easy and successful and then gradually pulling back and handing the role to the child as he becomes skilled enough to manage it.”

⁶ In Vigotsky’s words (1978: 86): “the distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in cooperation with more capable peers”.

When working together with equal learners, discovery and joint construction occur, when one learner discovers something new, the partner will experience the discovery too. When teaching a less accomplished peer, a learner needs to organize his or her thoughts and actions and achieve maximum quality of expression. Then the learner can internalize teaching and learning strategies, rely on inner resources and experiment and try new angles, in a self-directed way.

3. Interactive Groups process

In the following sections, I will describe first how to prepare the session, and afterwards, a clear description of the process itself will be provided.

3.1 Getting ready⁷

Initially we have to create and design suitable activities some days prior the session. In order to design effective activities I always consider the following: a) the topic we are dealing with; b) the degree of interaction and communicative component an activity has; and c) feedback from previous sessions. Although I try to meet the students' needs when choosing activities, the fact that a technique used in a particular activity can be adapted to different structures and/or contents makes it easier for students to become autonomous.

After that, it is time to brief the volunteers, given that both volunteers and I need to prepare the classroom and have an opportunity to discuss the activities, it is important to decide which day of the week Interactive Groups will take place. In my particular case, I chose Tuesdays, because English is the first subject of the day and so it was possible for us to meet up 15 minutes before class begins. With the help of the volunteers or students, we rearrange desks and chairs creating four different spaces where the four different activities will take place. Students will work in these four different areas and on their corresponding activities during the session. Since students have become really involved in the process, they also volunteer to organize the classroom; thus, teacher and volunteers have more time for their meeting before class.

In our school, one volunteer works at the same table and manages the same activity for the whole session. It is important for the volunteer to know what his or her activity is about. During the meeting before the session the teacher reminds volunteers what they have to do⁸. Coordination between teacher and volunteers can be arranged freely depending on teacher and volunteer need and/or availability. However, it must be added that the teacher continues to be the person who is in control and who teaches. He or she is the one who explains how the activities work and helps students and volunteers if necessary. If volunteers or students have any questions or problems during the activity, any of the components of the group may ask the teacher for help.

In order to provide a better understanding of the process, the four activities used during this research will be described next. Owing to current needs at that moment, activities were designed around three axes: Grammar, the Circulatory System and Cambridge exams.

The first activity is called "the bomb". This is a multipurpose and multitask activity where students have to answer diverse questions about a specific issue with or without the help of their classmates. We only need

⁷ These particular sessions cannot be viewed as a typical class since they are not only the result of my previous experience but also of the theoretical and practical knowledge acquired while working on this Action Research Project.

⁸ See previous section role of the volunteers.

some fake money, and two A4 white papers. The teacher has to divide one of the sheets of papers into 16 pieces. In each of those pieces he or she has to draw one symbol; there are 5 possible symbols in total, a heart, a happy face, a sad face, a bomb and a dollar. After that, the teacher has to divide the other sheet of paper into 16 pieces, cut them out, and write different instructions in every of the 16 resulting pieces. Finally we should think about the equivalence for any of the symbols. Here is my suggestion: a) Happy face = get an extra dollar; b) Sad face = loose a dollar; c) Dollar = get a dollar from another person; d) Heart = give a dollar to another person; and e) Bomb = can take away all of another player's money. The Rules are fairly easy. First of all, the bank (volunteer) hands out ten notes to every student. Then by turns students have to pick a card and answer the corresponding prompt. If they do it correctly then they can take the card and see what is underneath it (reward). Students are not allowed to use Spanish, and if they do the volunteer will take one of his/her dollars. Every time that a student helps any of his/her classmates he/she will get an extra dollar from the bank. The Interactive part starts when a student does not know the answer for one of the boxes. Students are rewarded with an extra dollar every time they help a classmate so they are really eager to offer their help.

The second activity is called "wall dictation". This is another flexible and easy- to-adapt activity. At this time, I focused on the English and Science prompts. In addition, students subconsciously worked on their spelling skills, and T.P.R was also involved. For this activity we just need to paste a text on the wall, we can design our own text or photocopy it from the text book. For this particular rotation, I designed my own text in order to satisfy my student's needs and combine work on passive voice and circulatory system at the same time. You may also need small pieces of paper and pencils for the students to use. The activity goes like this. Students stand up in turns and run to the wall where the text is. They read a sentence and then go back to the group to dictate it to the rest of their group. Once students have copied the whole sentence, as a group, they have to correct all of their writing paying attention to spelling, punctuation, etc. The interaction starts when students correct their own sentences, and they discuss for instance if a certain word has one or two s.

The third activity is called "the debate". This activity is specifically designed to work Cambridge texts and give them further practice in this matter. Students have to follow the instructions given on paper, and decide which advice corresponds to what poster. Taking turns, students give their answers. The interaction starts when they get different answers, at this point, they have to discuss and get a consensus about which is the right answer.

The fourth activity is called "password". For this activity you need some *post-its* and the key words that students have seen along the topic. I also add some extra words to break with the routine or just to make the game funnier. You only need to write one word per post-it. To play this game students close their eyes, and then the volunteer puts the post-it on any of their foreheads. Students open their eyes, and now they can see the key word. By turns every student says something about the word. Once everyone has said something, the student with the post-it on his/her forehead can make a guess. If he or she says the key word everyone closes their eyes and the game starts again. The interaction is quite natural since students say short fragments or ideas and then little by little they add little chunks to the previous information. The group that guesses the most words will be the winner of the day; this is an extra source of motivation for students.

3.2. General description of an Interactive Groups session

During the *first stage* students arrive at the classroom, which has been set up earlier in the morning as explained above, and listen to the teacher's instruction for the activities. Students should sit in their

designated group at one of the four areas or activities. Every activity is numbered from one to four along with groups; therefore it is very easy for students to find their initial seat.

After that, in the *second stage* they have to listen carefully to the explanations given by the teacher; they can ask questions and are reminded of the importance of speaking English. Although volunteers can help with this aspect, the teacher can also walk around the classroom monitoring the process.

In the *third stage*, students decide, on their own, how to undertake the first activity. If students have understood the instructions, it will not be difficult for them to do this; in case they haven't, the volunteer may help them. During the activities students have to participate as much as possible, help each other, discuss, etc. with the objective of reaching a consensus through dialogue and find an answer or a solution to the activity. When stage three is finished, the teacher takes the remaining time of the session into account and divides it by four (number of groups and activities). The average time devoted to every activity is about 12 minutes.

Stage four is devoted to doing the rest of activities which have been designed for the session. After those 12 minutes, the teacher counts to three and says "change ", the students then stand up and move to the next activity. The teacher controls the time to make sure students rotate and for everyone to get a chance to work on every activity. By the end of the session all students will have done the same activities.

During the session, the teacher can walk around the classroom taking notes or even recording the session in order to obtain a more accurate view of the experience. Though some may think that Interactive Groups sound hectic or chaotic, in fact they usually run smoothly. Students are usually eager to participate and do not want to waste their time. Needless to say, a clear explanation and concise instructions before the session are a great help.

In the *last stage* students return the classroom furniture to its previous arrangement. While they do so, volunteers can give the teacher some feedback about the session. As it is not always easy to have subsequent meetings due to the general lack of time, it is interesting to have, among the volunteers, a teacher /assistant that works at the same school; they can act as a critical peer suggesting new ideas, possible changes or just giving an alternative perspective just after the session or at a later meeting.

4. Research context

At present, I work at a Comunidad de Madrid bilingual school situated in San Fernando de Henares, Madrid. El Olivar was founded in 1977 and renovated in 2005. This school has been in the CAM bilingual project since 2004, therefore El Olivar has been involved in the CAM bilingual program for eight years. El Olivar's conversion to a bilingual school status increased the number of new students significantly, from two or three groups per course to four groups per course in some cases. Today there are 31 groups in total. The conversion to bilingualism also led teacher-student ratios to become in some cases as high as 28 students per teacher.

The group selected for my research is in its 6th year of primary education. This group is comprised of 25 students who have been involved in the bilingual project (learning English as a second language) for six years. I have worked with some of them for six years and with others just for two. Not only are they a mixed-ability class, but when using English, a big communicative gap exists among them due to their different

backgrounds and learning experiences. In this way, we can find both very strong students and very weak students due to different personal circumstances (i.e. immigrants, special needs, timid, outcast students, etc.). Yet, on the whole, they get along with each other and a good atmosphere exists in our classes. The above mentioned gap, their diversity, and above all, the lack of communicative skills of some students, made this group ideal for Interactive Groups sessions.

5. Research tools, data analysis and findings

In order to get reliable answers to the two questions formulated as a starting point of my research⁹, different data collection methods have been used: a) a teaching journal; b) questionnaires for students, volunteers and teachers; c) interviews and d) registration and comparison of students' participation in both regular sessions and Interactive Groups sessions with the aim to compare them.

Data was collected by means of a teaching journal with a focus on student participation and interaction. During this process I took notes during my regular classes, including two text-book led sessions per week, one Interactive Groups session per week, one session for external exam preparation and one session for grammar. I selected this method of data collection because "By writing a teaching journal (...) the reflections can thus be spread over a period of time and this allows teachers to observe patterns and trends that they may not ordinarily see." (Farrel 2007:112). Furthermore, there is sometimes a gap between what we teachers believe, the things that we say about our teaching and what we actually do.

As part of my research, I have also decided to include my students' opinion using a questionnaire related to our classes. I do believe their opinion should be taken into account as students are the "beneficiaries" of our methodologies and techniques. Students' opinions can enhance our perspective on the functioning of the classroom. I agree with Rudduck and McIntyre when they say that:

When pupils are asked to give their views on their own teachers' teaching, they generally take advantage of this opportunity by offering serious and constructive comments. Teachers generally find these comments quite reassuring because pupils' comments are usually rather positive, both praising their teachers for what they normally do and formulating many of their suggestions as requests that their teachers should more frequently do things that they currently do sometimes. But pupils also seem to be very honest (but still polite) in telling their teachers what they find unhelpful in their classroom practices. They make practical suggestions about how their teachers could modify their practices. (Rudduck and McIntyre, 2007: 83)

The questionnaire, designed with open-ended questions, yielded very useful feedback which was used to improve the sessions each week. The questions were: 1) What did you like the most about yesterday's session? Why? 2) What didn't you like at all? Why? 3) What is your favourite thing in our English lessons? Why? and 4) What is the worst thing about our English lessons? Why? These questions are general enough to encompass almost all the issues, even topics from the Interactive Groups. Volunteers were also given a questionnaire. Their responses provided further detail and an additional perspective on how the Interactive Groups had functioned.

Although this study uses mainly a qualitative analysis of data, a quantitative analysis was integrated whenever possible, that is why I also registered the number of times students participated in regular and

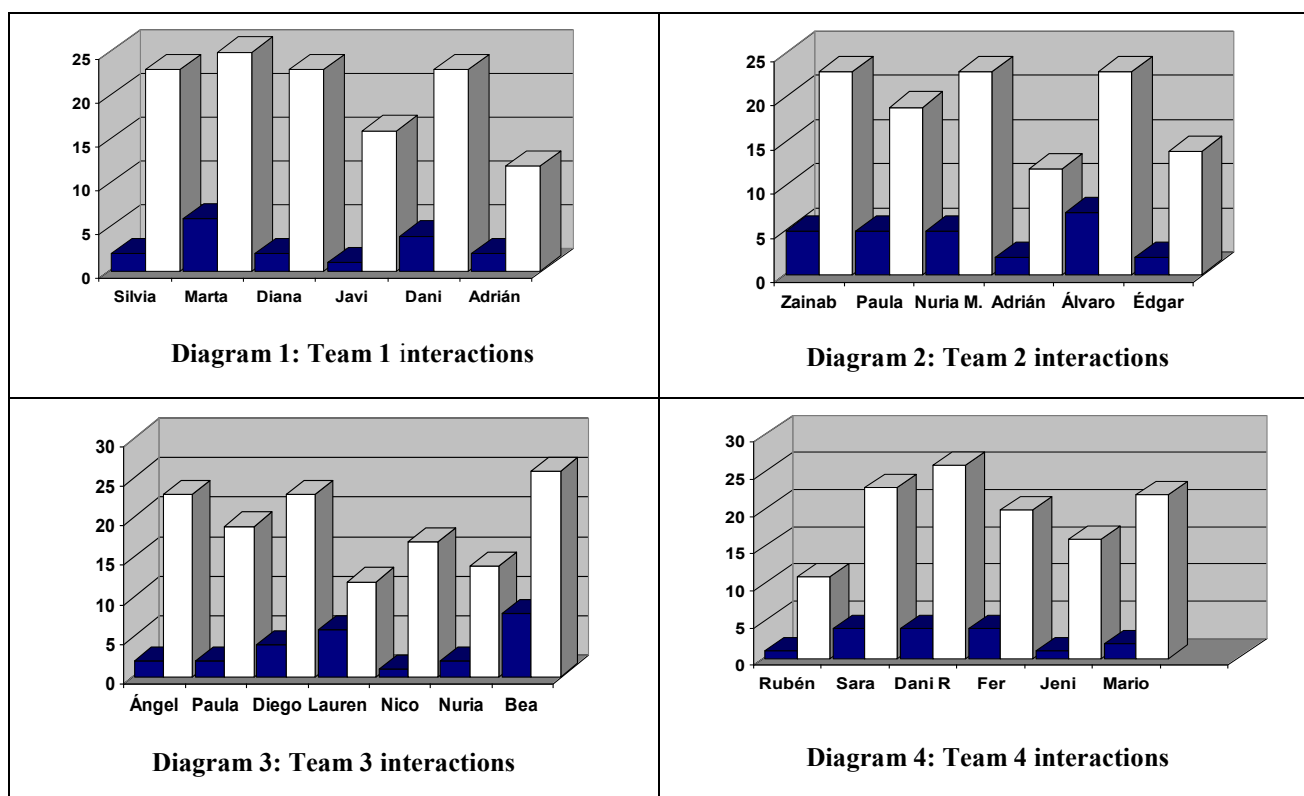
⁹ 1. If I set up Interactive Groups in an English lesson for a group of students in their sixth year of Primary Education, in what ways, if any, will the development of their communication skills be affected?; 2. How will the use of Interactive Groups affect the students' attitude towards English?

Interactive Groups sessions. Thanks to this strategy, I was able to contrast the number of interactions during a regular session with the number of interactions during an Interactive Groups session.

In what follows, I will present a comprehensive summary of the results of my research. Since the aim of this Action Research Project is to test whether or not the development of 6th year students' communicative skills would be affected by the use of Interactive Groups, and whether or not the use of Interactive Groups would have a positive effect on students' attitude towards English, I am including all the findings here. I will attempt to answer each research question individually.

5.1. Data analysis and findings related to research question 1¹⁰

At the risk of making a sweeping generalization, the quantitative analysis of data suggests that Interactive Groups help students develop their communication skills in a second language as they increase their participation. To obtain these data, students' participation on Interactive Groups sessions were contrasted with students' participation in ordinary lessons (see diagrams below). For example, during Team 1 session (diagram 1), 6 students took part 122 times in total, while during a regular class the same 6 students took part only 17 times in total. In blue we can see the number of times that each student spoke in a regular English lesson, and in white the number of times the same student spoke during an Interactive Groups session.



Interaction and participation are essential when learning a second language; As Aida Walqui (2006: 159) states regarding interaction and learning:

¹⁰ All the student's names used on this research don't correspond to their real names. The names that will appear in the following lines have been used just to help the reader understand the process and findings better.

The primary place by which learning takes place is *interaction*, more specifically an engagement with other learners and teachers in joint activities that focus on matters of shared interest and that contain opportunities for learning.

During my research I became aware of the fact that if we plan activities in which our students are free to move or to chat to whomever they wish, we have to supervise the activity closely. In my regular classes I could hear some students speaking Spanish while I was talking about the teaching journal with the language assistants. If students feel that nobody is watching them they tend to speak Spanish. It is important that students are supervised for every activity, but especially when working in pairs and groups. This fact highlights the importance of the arrangement of Interactive Groups. Volunteers not only supervise the development of the activity, they also ensure that everyone speaks English in the group. In relation to the first question, it is obvious that if students work under close adult supervision, they will use English more often than if they work unsupervised. If students use English to interact, their communicative skills will improve in the long term as the more they speak English the better they become at using it.

Since Interactive Groups are based on personalized activities, we avoid the use of text books. Text book work reduces the amount of interactions. If we want our students to interact and participate when we are using text books, it is essential that students devote time in each lesson to share ideas and compare results. Unless we teachers provide an alternative way to work on text books, students' participation in class will remain at a low level. As we can see in diagram 1, in a regular session, one of the students (Silvia) participated only twice whereas in an Interactive Groups session the same student participated 23 times. This issue is closely related not only to students' participation but also to students' motivation towards the subject and motivation in general as not being able to participate in interactions, whatever the reason can be, may produce student's frustration.

Interactive Groups acknowledge as well the potentials gains of group work, and how carefully considered seating arrangements can influence students' interactions and attitude. For instance students will participate more and exchange information if they are sitting in groups, even if the activity is not really interactive or communication focused. Sitting apart in traditional rows as they often do, doesn't foster communication at all. Sitting in groups as in Interactive Groups sessions allows for communication to come about more naturally. We humans are social animals, sitting individually and not socializing with anyone is boring and frustrating. This is clearly connected with the social aspect of learning Vigotsky (1978) pointed out. Even more important is the fact that communicative interactions provide students with the right answers. For example, thanks to peer interactions and help, Javi (one of the weakest students in the class) wrote an accurate sentence combining simple past and past continuous: "My mum and I were watching television when the telephone rang." This was remarkable since Javi (see diagram 1) displays evident difficulties in the second language learning process. He never wants to participate and English frustrates him. Thanks to his classmates and their respectful attitude towards his situation, he was able to write that sentence. The process was documented in the following transcription:

[S1 wrote] *"My mum and I was watched television and the telephone ring"*

The volunteer took his writing and showed it to the rest of the class, and then I asked students for "suggestions".

S2: My mum and I is plural.

S1: ah! Were watched.

V: No, Students, what do you think?

S3: Continuous

S1: were watched?

S3: no.

S1 (thought for some seconds and couldn't find the answer, and then someone spontaneously):

S4: ING!

S1: ah!, Were watching.

T: O.k. Javi, do you remember that when two things happened in past, the one that lasts for longer is in past continuous "were watching" and the "interruption" is in past simple?

S1: My mum and I were watching television when the telephone rang

After this, his group clapped spontaneously. His facial expression at that moment appeared to reinforce the view that Interactive Groups technique can be highly effective. It is unlikely that this breakthrough could have been achieved in the traditional classroom organization. This is a clear example of how Interactive Groups dynamic communication can improve not only participation but also grammar accuracy. As the transcription above shows, this student, normally one of the weakest, was able to produce a sentence with a moderate grade of difficulty.

Furthermore, we can also state that Interactive Groups are effective tools for catering for diversity as individual rates of participation increased regardless of initial ability. The same student that participate only twice or three times in a regular lesson, participates more than fifteen times in an Interactive Groups session (i.e. Silvia). The case of Ruben, another struggling student is also notable. Despite the fact of being a class leader, he speaks very little English in class (he has got a very low level). He repeats constantly "Teacher I can't speak English" (in Spanish of course), something that tremendously embarrasses him. However, as he feels more relaxed and confident thanks to his classmates' support and help, during Interactive Groups sessions he is able to make sentences such as "In three years time, I will fly in the sky."

In the light of evidence then, it is possible to confirm that Interactive Groups help develop students' oral communication skills. Work with Interactive Groups not only they foster and increase interactions and participation among students but also contribute to improve grammatical accuracy. Students' talking time noticeably increases and the teacher-student ratio decreases. Finally, thanks to Interactive Groups we are catering for diversity and promoting aspects like cooperation and solidarity.

5.2 Data analysis and findings related to research question 2

It can also be confirmed that the use of Interactive Groups affects students' attitude towards learning English. According to the data obtained through the questionnaires, Interactive Groups had a positive effect on students' attitude towards English. First, the most relevant finding is that 18 out of 25 students consider Interactive Groups as their favourite activity in the English classes.

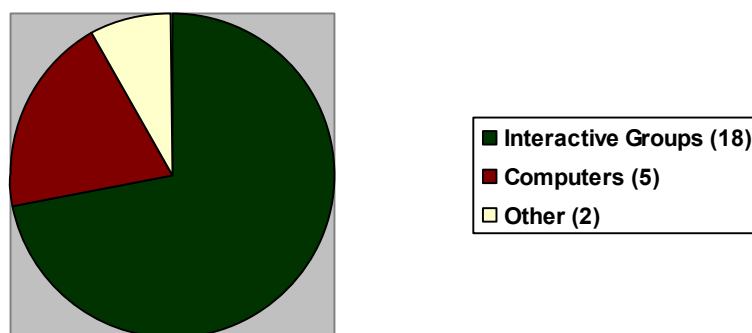


Diagram 5: Number of students who prefer Interactive Groups sessions

Students' association of English regarding participation, sharing ideas with their friends and having fun, clearly enhances their motivation. If we take into account that students spend a large part of their morning sitting on their chairs for most of their subjects, standing up, walking around the classroom, finding a classmate to talk to is something that will break their routine and, as a consequence, will make them eager to participate and do their best. If we promote activities where movement is involved students will enjoy more. Then, if students have fun and enjoy the class, their attitude towards the subject will necessarily be positive. When the topic is familiar and appealing to students you can see 25 hands in the air, but when the topic is not interesting, hardly anyone raises his/her hand. This important aspect should also be taken into account when designing the activities for the groups; just a simple photograph may change something boring into something appealing. According to the students' comments, just by attaching a picture to the text provided for the *wall dictation*, makes students enjoy the activity much more.

Moreover, the student-centred nature of Interactive Groups allows students to feel empowered. This enhanced sense of control makes students more eager to participate in Interactive Groups sessions, and results in their showing a positive attitude towards the subject. Offering students the opportunity to explain activities or providing oral exercises in which students have to give their opinion, point of view, ideas etc., can be challenging but is always motivating. Due to their age, (11-12 years olds) being able to express themselves and to demonstrate their knowledge and ability to the rest of the group is a powerful motivator. Even if students don't fully understand the teacher's initial instructions (or don't pay enough attention), this can be regarded as advantageous instead of a problem since this situation gives an additional opportunity to those students who understood the instructions to explain the activity to the whole group.

Finally, we should always bear in mind that silence is often a guise of frustration. Students usually love to talk about their lives, abilities, what they are going to do or have done at the weekend, etc. and when only a few students can participate, the rest show clear signs of disappointment. When students want to share their ideas with the rest of the class but you do not give them voice, they feel discouraged and it is easy to hear some complaints or see discontent on their faces. Interactive Groups offer any student the possibility to express himself/herself at any moment the activity carried out is in progress.

6. Conclusion

The research has confirmed how Interactive Groups are a highly effective mode of classroom organisation and provide a solution to one of the most demanding challenges teachers of English in Bilingual Primary Schools face everyday: students' lack of effective oral communication skills.

According to findings related to question 1, it is possible to say that Interactive Groups increase students' participation, students' talking time and boost meaningful interaction. As a result, Interactive Groups can accelerate second language learning and differs from other methodologies because it maintains high expectations for all of the students and strives for everyone's success.

According to findings related to question 2, we can affirm that, due to its intrinsic characteristics, Interactive Groups have a positive effect on student's attitude towards English. Interactive Groups are based on a student-centred methodology that gives voice to every student in the class and makes them eager to participate during the session.

To conclude, it can be stated that Interactive Groups offer new possibilities to teach foreign or second languages. Nevertheless there are many questions that still have to answered, for instance, can Interactive Groups be used to achieve better academic results? Are they an appropriate tool to help our students pass external exams such as P.E.T. or K.E.T.? Can other subjects like Science be taught through Interactive Groups? Nowadays bilingualism is wide spread all over the world and some new methodological options like Interactive Groups may come up as a response to the demands of bilingual classrooms.

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Engaging in Dramatic Activities in English as a Foreign Language Classes at the University Level

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Resumen

Este artículo estudia como, por medio de actividades dramáticas, ficción y realidad se unen para ayudar a que el estudiante de Inglés como Lengua Extranjera pueda comunicar de una forma personal y significativa. El tipo de actividades propuestas están diseñadas para generar ese espacio en el que los estudiantes puedan relacionarse personalmente entre sí en un entorno capaz de producir una interacción espontánea y creativa. El trabajo incluye dos tipos de actividades dramáticas elaboradas para estudiantes de universidad que ejemplifican lo expuesto en el estudio.

Palabras clave: actividades dramáticas en EFL, interacción significativa

Summary

In this article, we discuss how, through dramatic activities, fiction and reality can work together to help the English as a Foreign language learner communicate in a more personal and meaningful way. The kind of activities proposed are designed to help engender a space where students can personally engage with each other in an atmosphere that is conducive to creative and spontaneous interaction. Two examples of dramatic activities, designed for university students, are given.

Key words: EFL drama, ELF dramatic activities, meaningful interaction

1. Drama and Language Learning

In foreign language learning, it is important to establish an atmosphere where students can freely explore the language. Since language means communication, it is essential to provide learners both with activities that help them to develop their communicative competence in English and a flexible atmosphere that is conducive to the application of these resources.

The need to create a dynamic, interactive space in the foreign language learning environment is not a new concept. Rivers (1987: xiii) proposes establishing spaces that promote individual and personal communication. On the other hand, Stevick (1976: 33) recommends the creation of environments where the expressive capacity of the whole person can be explored; a place where, as Krashen (1987: 73) points out, learners do not feel inhibited to express themselves.

Dramatic activities such as storytelling and scenarios (Di Pietro 1994: 41) can provide students with the possibility of performing interactively in a transformed space, where meaningful communication can take place. With stories and dramatic interaction, learners face novel realities and new challenges, and by participating in these sort of activities, students can experience the language in a personal and creative manner.

This is in line with Vigotsky's (1998) proposal of four phases in the development of creative imagination: exploration, inspiration, participation, and interaction. In the first phase, learners explore a novel situation, which may be in the form of a story or a scenario. If the input is in some way relevant, or meaningful, the

learners, to some extent, become inspired and are subsequently motivated to participate. At this point they produce or express themselves interactively with others, as long as they feel that they are in an unthreatening environment.

In this article, we will discuss how, through dramatic activities, fiction and reality can work together to help the English as a Foreign language learner communicate in a more personal and meaningful way. The kind of activities proposed are designed to help engender a space where students can engage with each other personally in an atmosphere that is conducive to creative and spontaneous interaction. Some examples of different dramatic activities, designed for university students, will be given.

Over the years, a number of authors have written books supporting the remedial use of drama in the language learning field. Schewe and Shaw (1993: 7) indicate, Tenuous though they may often have been, connections have long existed between modern language teaching and drama or theatre. Authors who have written book-length works include Parry (1972), Via (1976), Nomura (1982), Smith (1984), Maley and Duff (1984), Di Pietro (1976, 1987, 1994), O'Neill (1989, 1995), Kao and O'Neill (1998), and Whiteson (1998).

But what is drama? The *Merriam-Webster Unabridged Dictionary* (2012) defines it as a composition in verse or prose arranged for enactment (as by actors on a stage) and intended to portray life or character or to tell a story through the actions and usually dialogue of the enactors. The enactment of a story, then, is at the core of drama.

All dramatic activity involves a process of theorising and hypothesis testing. The word "theory" comes from the Greek word θεωρία, meaning "contemplation". Pabón de Urbina (1997: 296) explains that the word in Greek also means espectáculo o asistencia de espectáculos. Similarly, Lyman y Scott (1975: 1) note, "Theory" is derived from the Greek term for "theatre". This derivation suggests that the method appropriate to theorising was, from the beginning, dramatic. The authors further propose that the intention of observing has always been to bring truth to light. The sought-after truth was *aletheia* (literally, "unhiddenness"), the truth that was hidden from view but available (Lyman and Scott, 1975: 1).

To a greater or lesser extent, seeking to bring truth to light comes naturally to human beings. Implicit in this view is the idea that the everyday world provides situations from which truth might be extracted by those who would take the trouble to look (Lyman and Scott, 1975: 2).

Drama derives from the Greek word δράμα, meaning action. In essence, drama is natural human action, which involves searching for truth and bringing it to light. But drama also entails revealing the uncovered truth to others. This notion coincides with the fourth definition of the word drama given in the *Diccionario de la Lengua Española* de la Real Academia Española (1992), Suceso de la vida real, capaz de interesar y conmover vivamente, and with the meaning of the word "dramática": Capaz de interesar y conmover vivamente.

We maintain that drama consists of stories and enactment, and it is participatory, a natural dialogical process in which meaning is established and shared through action, interaction and personal commitment. Echoing Lyman and Scott (1975: 3), we believe that drama is an inextricable part of all social interaction. In the modern language teaching field this notion of drama has been advocated by authors such as Via (1987: 10), who holds that Drama is communication between people, and Lyman and Scott (1975: 3), who claim that Reality is drama. This is what makes it a valuable tool in second language and foreign language learning.

Over three decades ago the Council for Cultural Co-operation of the Council of Europe established that In the school context as for adults, the communicative skills should indeed be the primary objective of learning a foreign language (Porcher 1980: 9). Few teachers, today, would disagree, though there is no unanimity about how to go about achieving this goal.

We hold that, in both the second language and foreign language learning classroom, as in the real world, real communication is dramatic and replete with role-plays as strategically active scenarios (DiNapoli & Algarra 2001a). This is in line with what Stern (1980: 82) proposes, claiming that drama develops skills in personal and interpersonal expression. It is, in the words of Vitz (1994: 23), a natural outgrowth of the trend towards an interactive approach to second language teaching.

We believe that dramatic activity in the classroom is a creative, interactive, and dialogical process involving the solving of problems that are fictionally created by what Courtney (1990: 6) calls an as if mode of thinking. Courtney explains, Being “as if” is the self’s fictional mode of operation (p.13).

An “as if”, or fictional, kind of thinking comes naturally to human beings. When we think of possibilities we are imagining scenarios. We then externalize possibilities in action, testing their feasibility in reality. It is the way humans naturally create a dramatic world that provides a valid perspective on the actual world (Courtney 1990: 50). People normally imagine performing different roles in fictional situations. We do this in many spheres of life, not all of which are as obviously dramatic as role-taking or theatre (Courtney: 13). The author further explains, At the core of all dramatic activity is a fictional mode of thinking that involves a dialogical process of hypothesis testing in groups. This social interaction is the basis of meaningful communicative performance.

The *Merriam-Webster Unabridge Dictionary* (2012) defines fiction as the act of creating something imaginary: a fabrication of the mind. The creation is fiction, and it is the nature of human intelligence to engage in fictional creativity in order to better understand the world. It is both rational and logical to create a dramatic scenario that provides a convincing perspective on one’s surroundings. The creation of fiction lies at the center of dramatic activity. The story must be dramatically meaningful for the person who is doing the telling or enacting it. In addition, it should be engaging for others.

Dramatic engagement is not the same as problem oriented simulation (DiNapoli & Algarra 2001b), which, as Jones (1995: 18) suggests, is an event in which the participants have (functional) roles, duties and sufficient key information about the problem to carry out these duties. Simulations are undramatic role-plays, the principle aim of which is the correct execution of grammatical structures or language functions. The students’ concentration is focused primarily on linguistic form, and the activity, therefore, is not dramatic or truly meaningful, because the performers are not cognitively and affectively involved in the performance. The performers are not emotionally committed to the roles they are playing, personally lacking what Packard (1987: 14) calls a stake in the story. Not being personally committed to the roles they are playing, they cannot give their full attention to the performance itself. Using dramatic role-play to develop emotional aptitude (DiNapoli 2009), therefore, is essential to learning another language.

Claiming that logical and affective commitment obliges students to attend to the verbal environment, Scarcella (1978: 45) maintains that a student’s cognitive and emotional commitment to the discourse of a dramatic activity is essential, and is derived from the intrinsic factors, feelings and attitudes, and extrinsic factors, interests and cares, that are particular to the individual and the fictional circumstance. In this line of reasoning, Hegman (1990: 304) affirms, The fusing of affective and cognitive components of learning

benefits both affective and cognitive components of learning, and both are critical to mastery of L2. Moreover, Via (1987: 113) holds that performers must bring to the role-play a concept of self, because It is impossible for someone to be anyone else; therefore language learners need to add their own feelings and desires, and he suggests getting them to ask themselves the the magic if question, as in, for example, What would I do if fell in love with the smartest student in the class?

However, drama is not about stereotyping characters and banalizing situations that seem to be real. This can only hold back meaningful communication building, as can also the imposition of laws and social mores. As Barnes (1968: 14) notes, interaction will merit the name “drama” by not seeking to impose a single “right answer” but to contain a complex of attitudes and judgements.

This is precisely what makes drama a potent resource in the EFL classroom. Yet, as O’Neill (1989: 528) points out,

Of the many teaching strategies which are likely to promote dialogue, the approach which has the greatest potential and yet is the least often used is drama in education—where teacher and students co-create fictional roles and contexts, in order to explore and select on some issue, concept, relationship, or event.

2. Two remedial drama activities

The authors of this paper have over the years consistently endeavored to find ways to get their English as a Foreign Language students at the university level involved in dramatic activities, or activities consisting of stories and participatory enactment in a natural dialogical process, in which meaning is established and shared through action, interaction and personal commitment. This is the meaning of dramatic activity as we see it, though the activities themselves may differ procedurally. What follows is a descriptive analysis of two different remedial dramatic activities, implemented in order to raise the students’ communicative competence in English.

a. Activity 1: Constructed Situations

Context

The first one was carried out during the early weeks in a class of *Textos Filosóficos en Lengua Inglesa*, at the Universidad de Valencia, involving intermediate and upper-intermediate English level speakers. It was based in part on the artist Tino Sehgal’s constructed situations (Collins 2012), in which prior to the start of the activity, each student is given several prompts to choose from that, when posed as questions, serve to initiate a dialogue between two interlocutors. The prompts, or skeleton topics, are used to call forth real-life stories.

Procedure

The procedure of the activity is as follows: The students are paired off and asked to engage one another conversationally for a few minutes. While they are talking the teacher walks around and, discreetly, listens in on as many conversations as possible. After a few minutes the teacher calls out All right, Talkers, stand up and engage someone else, meaning those who are speaking at the moment are to find new partners.

In the previous class session, the teacher will have asked the students to consider for homework a series of “constructed situations” to be used for initiating and maintaining a conversation in the next class. The situations are constructed in the sense that each “talker” is provided with a skeleton upon which improvisational layers can be added to the performative edifice of voice, language and movement. The

performance is the engagement itself. The “talkers” use the questions to engage one another. The interlocutors are both question askers and interpreters. One of them initiates the engagement, usually with a question such as, I like your tatoo. Where did you have it done? The question is derived from a constructed situation, which the interlocutor had chosen previously. In this case, the topic initiator was satisfaction. The four prompts, or constructed situations, given to the interpreters are used to call forth anecdotes or stories. To the best of their abilities, the “talkers” are to be prepared to discuss moments in their lives when (1) they have experienced a sense of arrival, (2) they have experienced a sense of belonging, (3) a sense of satisfaction, (4) or a sense of dissatisfaction with themselves.

Experience/Results

In the past, during the activity students have used the constructed situational prompts to discuss such matters as how they had arrived in class that morning, initiated by the topic initiator “arrival”, or, stemming from the same topic, what their arrival in Valencia for the first time had been like. In response to the topic initiator satisfaction, a student once said she was satisfied with herself for having recently moved in with her boyfriend; another student discussed his dissatisfaction with the political situation in the country. While the discussions were taking place, the teacher circled the room, encouraging students to include as many details as they could. One student said she was satisfied with her recent visit to New York City, where she had met a lot of interesting people. When pressed for more information by her partner, she explained that she had made friends with an artist couple from Ecuador who lived in the Bronx, and that she had visited their studio, describing as best she could, with as many details as possible, what she had seen and experienced.

Whenever Spanish was heard being used by a student, the teacher discreetly approached the individual, listening closely to what he or she was saying, before asking, in English, the person to explain in more detail, in English. One student was talking about the overcrowded tram she had caught to class that morning. As quietly as possible, so as not to attract too much attention from the others in the class, the teacher asked her, in English, if she could recall anything, or anyone, interesting she had seen on the tram. The student replied that she could not, so the teacher asked her if she had ever seen anyone interesting on a tram. The student recalled a man who had once boarded with a monkey in a cage who had got off at the beach. The teacher left her and her partner discussing that anecdote.

The overall objective was active, authentic engagement in English. Passivity was discouraged. The students were told, Spectators are unwelcome. In way not unlike the humanistic techniques for language learning proposed by Moskowitz in her seminal work, *Caring and Sharing in the Foreign Language Class* (1978), the “talkers” were encouraged to show an interest in their partners. Asking pertinent questions was one way of doing this. Sehgal (Collins 2012: 34) refers to the process as an interrogative art, prompting concentrated exchanges of thoughts between interlocutors and engaging in creative meaning-making (DiNapoli 1997)

In the course of the activity, the teacher encouraged the learners to share as many details as they could in a real engagement. The “talkers” blended personal experiences with some fantasy. Anecdotes dovetailed together as the conversation proceeded. On one occasion, a student said she was happy with a tatoo she had

recently had done on her arm. Her partner said she was disinclined to get a tatoo because she was afraid of needles, but that she thought having one was “cool” and wondered what it would be like if she had one. That was authentic engagement, where anecdote and fantasy overlapped, the kind of real, improvisational engagement that Del Close (Halpern np: 2005) calls theatre of the heart, in reference to engagement between

improvisors who mutually respect one another and speak from their hearts, honestly, about real experiences or fantasies.

b. Activity 2: “Fool the listeners”

Context

The second dramatic activity we will present here is based on narrating stories and is called “Fool the listeners”. The activity was performed on several occasions by intermediate and upper-intermediates students of fine arts and architecture at the Universidad Politécnica de Valencia.

Procedure

The dramatic activity consists in having students tell stories in English about themselves or somebody they know. The objective in telling the story is to convince the listener that they are being told a true story. The students have to prepare a story that is scary, intriguing, hard to believe, surprising or even fantastic, depending on the topic chosen by the teacher.

The students are asked to tell the story in a way that manifests their commitment to it. The teller’s personal engagement in the undertaking is imperative to the success of the activity.

When the teller finishes narrating, the listeners then proceed to ask questions in order to find out whether the story is true or false, and whether it is so completely or partly.

The activity was carried out over the course of two class sessions. The first session took place during the last twenty minutes or so of the class. It consisted in the teacher telling the students a story in English, along the lines of one of the constructed situations mentioned in the previous paragraph.

After being told the story by the teacher, the students then decide whether or not the narration was true. To this end, the students ask the teacher a battery of questions with regard to the story. These questions might entail any aspect of the telling, including hesitations in the teacher’s telling, contradictions, seemingly unsound reasoning, or any other aspects related to the narration. At the end of the question and answer session, the students decide, amongst themselves, whether or not the story was, indeed, true, partially true, totally false, or just a little. Subsequently, the teacher confesses the veracity or fallacy of the story, or parts thereof.

It is important to keep in mind that the success of the story depends not only on the fact that it is personally meaningful for the teller, but also on its being only slightly far-fetched, neither too believable nor too improbable. According to Di Pietro (1981: 33), “real life provides much raw material for classroom scenarios”. In truth, real life is full of implausible, preposterous happenings to draw upon. In a dramatic activity, an interesting story, or anecdote, is one that is, to some extent, astonishing, questionable, or incredible.

At the end of the first session, the students are asked to prepare to tell a five to ten minute story of their own for the next class session. They are to confine their narrations to the constructed situations mentioned earlier: scary, intriguing, hard to believe, surprising or fantastic. The teacher tells them that the objective is to mislead, or deceive, the listeners, for example, by narrating an improbable event as if it were factual, or inserting unlikely occurrences as if they had actually happened.

For the dramatic activity of the second class session, the students are put into groups of four. The members of each group then tell each other their respective stories and at the end of each story, as in the

previous class session, the students decide whether the story they have just heard, or any part of it, is true or false.

After having heard each others' stories and appraised their veracity or otherwise, each group then chooses the one story they feel is the best. The story voted the most outstanding of each group is then narrated to the class as a whole, and the question and answer session as to the credibility, or inverisimilitude, of each narration is once again repeated by the entire class. At the end, the group as a whole decides on the best story.

Experience/Results

In our experience, the majority of the stories that the students told were factual, perhaps because lying is more difficult to sustain than telling the truth. That said, by and large, the untrue stories ended up being more entertaining than the factual narrations were.

The following examples are of two students who elaborated different personal stories, both surprising and quite unbelievable. But, nevertheless, through their juggling of reality and fiction, they were able to fool the rest of the class with their tales. We have chosen these stories because they connect very well with the reality of university students. As a result, the emotional engagement with the listeners provided fertile ground for real interaction.

In the first story, told in a very dramatic fashion, the student was telling the truth and supplied a lot of details. But the listeners wrongly concluded that the story was untrue.

The second story, however, turned out to be completely false. But it was narrated in such a convincing way that almost everyone thought that it really had happened. This was because the narrator ostensibly did not try to convince them of the veracity of her story but delivered it in a natural manner that disarmed the potentially skeptical listeners. The stories as recorded by the teacher and then transcribed may be read in the Appendix to this article.

3. Conclusion

During the dramatic activities described in this paper, the students' linguistic mistakes mattered less than the real communication that took place. Fiction and reality blended in personal and meaningful ways, thoroughly engaging the interlocutors in a dialogical process, in a relaxed atmosphere, conducive to creative, uninhibited and spontaneous interaction. The students experienced the language in a personal manner, both emotionally and cognitively. It was dramatic in that it consisted of stories and elicited participatory enactment, the basis of all social interaction, in which meaning was established and shared through action, interaction and personal commitment.

Story A, told by a student of the School of Architecture

The School of Architecture of the UPV is located opposite a tram stop, called “La Carrasca”. The students are all familiar with the stop, which becomes very crowded during rush hours. The student begins the story:

One day, I had to come to the School on a Saturday morning to hand in a project. What a surprise. The tram stop was completely empty. After handing my project in, I went back to the tram stop. Shoot! I couldn't find my tram card so I had to buy a single ticket. More expensive, of course. I was totally alone on the platform, when I deposited a coin in the slot. I pressed the button and... the machine started throwing a bunch of coins at me. I couldn't believe it. I put the coins in my pocket except for one which I deposited again in the slot to get a ticket, but... another surprise, the machine gave a bunch of coins for the second time. By then, a girl had arrived and started looking at me with curiosity. All these coins but still no ticket!

I tried for the third time. I put a coin in and... no kidding, more coins again!

The girl looked at me suspiciously. I told myself (this machine must be broken. Let's take advantage of that!) But when I deposited my euro again... this time I only got a ticket.

I took the tram and counted all the coins that I got. A total of 36 euros! That made my day.

After telling the story, the students asked him several questions to find out if he was telling the truth or not. They finally decided that he was lying. The student, then, explained that the story was totally true but unfortunately it did not happen to him, but to another student, and he was just standing on the platform while the other one hit the jackpot.

Story B, told by a student of the Faculty of Fine Arts

It was a special day. I got home really late the night before and woke up almost at lunch time the next day. The apartment was empty, as usual, I'm always the last one getting up. I brushed my teeth and had some toast while listening, very annoyed, to the noisy workers rebuilding the street in front of the Serranos Towers. It's been seven months since I came to live in this flat, which I share with three more students. Seven months with that noise! Why are they spending this huge amount of money?

I finished my homework and went to the University. I stopped in the cafeteria and met Miguel, one of my flatmates. He was very upset because something had happened. This is what Miguel told me:

“I was still sleeping when our neighbour, the old lady, finally woke me up because of her banging and screaming for help for a long time. I finally got something to get dressed and opened the door. She was standing in the landing crying desperately. Mumbling something about her little dog and her washing machine. I kind of understood that the washer fell down and, also, that she could not find her doggy. Well, she needed my help: an old lady, 75 years old, could not possibly lift a washer herself. Actually she lives alone with her dog, her only family that we know. We like her a lot. She is not the typical pain in the ass lady; she is the kind of the helping one. She usually invites us for coffee and cake and brings us delicious food. She is aware of how bad we students, far from our family eat.

I walked in her apartment, followed by her, opened the kitchen door and saw the whole thing: The washer had fallen on the floor. I lifted carefully when—gash!—I saw the little dog smashed on the floor. I could hear the scream of my neighbor behind me. She fell on her knees trying to find some kind of life inside the poor little animal. Too late. The doggy was pretty much dead. Hey! And there I was not knowing what to do. Watching my desolated neighbor crying, I asked her how this could possibly happened. She told me her washer was a really old one. In fact some years ago, it started shaking dangerously while *centrifugating*. It even fell down once, but not over her dog. Somebody put some *cuñas* to hold it. But the *tacos* got wore down, and two days ago she realized she had to buy new ones. She removed the old ones, thinking of putting new ones, but the night before she totally forgot that the washer was loose, and set the washing machine as usual. She went to bed without realizing that her doggy was comfortably sleeping next to the washing machine, her favorite place in winter, so cozy and warm.

When the washer fell down, the dog could not escape.

What a way to start a day! Miguel was really down and upset, but when he finished telling me what had happened, the coffee I was sipping came back from my stomach trying to find a way to escape”

When the narration was done, the class asked a lot of questions. The story was so sad that most people concluded that it could not have been invented. The narrator had spiced the telling with details that were familiar to students sharing an apartment, which made the story even more believable. In the end, the listeners were informed that that the story was fiction, which was a relief since that meant the dog was still alive.

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Student choice and reading in the EFL classroom

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Abstract

This paper deals with the role of both the teacher and the student when choosing materials for the course, more specifically, with the selection of books for extensive reading. Although carried out in a first year tertiary education level, the results of this small scale study could be a good starting point for reflection in previous secondary and pre-university educational levels. It will be attempted here to make explicit the reasons that lead teachers to make their reading choices within the scope of a traditional syllabus type and the actual reasons that students have to make their own choice within a more negotiated syllabus design. The conclusion of this study points to the fact that genre and topic preferences guide the choice when selecting a book to read in the classroom. On the other hand, if students have the option to select their own readings this can have a direct effect in their implication in the learning process, eventually leading to greater motivation and thus, to better learning.

Keywords: extensive reading, student choice, student implication, language learning process.

Resumen

Este trabajo se centra en el papel que desempeñan tanto los profesores como los alumnos en la selección de materiales para el curso, en concreto, en la elección de las lecturas. Si bien es cierto que el estudio se lleva a cabo en el primer curso de niveles universitarios, los resultados de esta investigación de aula, pueden servir como punto de partida para la reflexión en los niveles previos de educación secundaria y bachillerato. En este trabajo se analizan los motivos que llevan a los profesores a elegir ciertas lecturas de curso dentro del contexto más tradicional y el contraste con las razones que esgrimen los estudiantes para decidirse por unas o por otras dentro de un contexto flexible más próximo al del currículo negociado. La conclusión de este estudio apunta al género y al tema del libro como principales factores que guían la elección de los estudiantes. Por otro lado, si el estudiante tiene la opción de elegir su lectura de curso, se favorece su implicación con respecto al proceso de aprendizaje que podría redundar en una mayor motivación y por ende, en un aprendizaje mejor.

Palabras clave: lectura extensiva, elección del alumno, implicación del alumno, aprendizaje de lenguas.

1. Introduction

Although literature on autonomy or Self Directed Learning (SDL), as was also called in the context of lifelong learners in the 20th Century, is extensive (Benson 2005), more research can be carried out to understand the part played by the student in the organization of a language course. It is not intended here to repeat a history of the different theoretical aspects of autonomy as there is by now a considerable measure of agreement as to the importance of the student's implication in their learning process. There are many definitions of autonomy; technical, psychological or political versions (Benson and Voller 1997, Little 1994) but researchers share the view that learner autonomy is an important goal in second language acquisition (Holec 1987, Little 1990, 1991). Learner autonomy has been used to make predictions about second language acquisition, the usual assumption being that an autonomous learner will be a "good learner" and that learning is best achieved if students play an active role in the process (Holec 1987, Rubin 1987).

The incorporation of autonomy as a goal in the curricula in European countries has led to classroom-based approaches aiming at the development of learner autonomy which is seen as a capacity for taking control of learning (Sinclair 2000, Benson 2001). This capacity can be developed and deployed in a number of ways and situations (Little 1991) and the study presented here aims at exemplifying one of the many practical in-class actions which may eventually contribute to build an “education towards autonomy” as Ojanguren and Blanco (2006) put it:

El aprendizaje autónomo no es sinónimo de aprender sin apoyo profesional, no implica una cesión de la responsabilidad al alumno, *sino una mayor importancia a la educación hacia la autonomía*, donde el trabajo voluntario y autónomo lleva generalmente implícita una motivación más alta y la posibilidad de desarrollar un método de aprendizaje individual que conduzca a un mayor éxito en el aprendizaje. (italics are ours)

While SDL includes many different aspects, this small scale study will deal with the role of both the teacher and the student when choosing materials for the course, more specifically, it will deal with the selection of extensive reading. Traditionally, it has been the teacher’s role to decide what books would be suitable for different students, levels or groups but the least of the times she would take into account the student’s opinion about them. Most research (Tudor 1993, Coterall 1995, 2000) has assumed that the help of students in making decisions which concern the development of the course have a clear direct positive relation with their motivation; learning is more effective and students get more out of activities, they are also likely to be more secure in their learning. The fact that the student takes part in the process would also benefit the over-loaded teacher who transfers part of her responsibility and becomes a facilitator, counsellor or resource (Voller 1997).

Making a decision in this context, directly implicates the collaboration and negotiation not only among learners but also between learners and teacher (Breen and Littlejohn 2000). Some evidence in support of the negotiated syllabus presented by Clarke (1989, 1991) concerns the question of materials: «Many teachers, if not the vast majority, have built their profession upon the mastery of a specific body of materials [...] it might be that the materials generated by and for one group would rarely if ever find future appropriacy to another group». To summarise, the approach permits the adoption of a negotiated component, although within an externally imposed syllabus, which provides the students with an opportunity to further intervene in their own learning (Holec 1987 or Holme 1996). During the first stages and after the teacher’s introduction to the books, the students analyze or discuss the suitability of different books and decide which ones they consider the most adequate for themselves. Students then, select a book which implies the most basic learner choice, this where students have an opinion or can choose among a number of options concerning activities they are going to engage in for a period of time.

Thus, in accordance with some of the theories previously mentioned, why not leave the decision to the learner? Some teachers will claim that students lack “reasonable” criteria to make a good choice but, what are the student’s criteria? Do they differ from the teachers’? And, in case they are different, are these criteria necessarily wrong? In what follows I shall attempt to make a connection between the reasons that lead teachers to make their choices when selecting reading materials for their students within the scope of a traditional syllabus type and the actual reasons that these last have to make their own choice within a more negotiated syllabus design.

2. Literature in a foreign language

Provided that «the teaching of reading must do more than simply exercise reading in the target language» (Brumfit, 1987), the criteria for selection must recognize different students' needs and expectations. Brumfit lists basic criteria for the selection of texts of any kind:

1. Linguistic level, measured in terms of lexicon or syntax.
2. Cultural level: «Different works of literature will be close to the cultural and social expectations of different groups of learners.»
3. Length.
4. Pedagogical role. Books can be deliberately selected in relation with the topic.
5. Genre representation. Different sorts of literature have to be made available.
6. Classic status or “face validity”. Some text may be more motivating for students than others.

These Brumfit's criteria are here adopted as a departure point for the design of questionnaires which are aimed at studying the reasons for the selection of books on the part of students and teachers.

In a first approximation, the intuitive idea is that it is language level the most powerful criterion that will basically guide teachers' choice although it is also thought not to be appropriate alone. They will possibly consider also genre and try to include poetry or theatre as something new for students and worth reading. As for students, when confronted for the first time to the selection of an optional reading for the course, they are expected to base their decision in the length of the book, they will prefer the shortest ones. It is also possible that they will consider genre although not for the same reasons as teachers do; they are thought to prefer those books they know something about because they have already read them in Spanish or because they have seen or have access to the film with the same title.

If the criteria for the selection are shown to be different, it is understood that the fact that the student chooses her own reading or no, may eventually have an effect in their learning process. According to the approach based on a negotiated component, although within an externally imposed syllabus (Holec 1987, Holme 1996), the departing hypothesis is that if students chose their reading they would achieve greater motivation and more effectiveness in their learning.

3. The study

Based on a Classroom Action Research (CAR) model, this study seeks to identify to what extent the decisions made by teachers when selecting readings for the course within the more traditional Learning Directed by Others (LDO) scope correspond with the needs and preferences of the students. In a course prepared and taught by several teachers the discussion aroused among them whether the students should or should not choose the course readings and the pilot study presented herein followed the debate. With respect to the methodology and according to Mettetal (2003), CAR represents a midpoint on a continuum ranging from teacher reflection at one end to traditional educational research at the other and is an adequate way for instructors to discover what works best in their own classroom situation, thus allowing informed decisions about the teaching and learning process.

Assuming that not self-learning trained learners have intuitions about their individual needs, the externally chosen readers are likely to generate a response (positive or negative) on the part of the students. The former and also the actual reasons that these last have to make their own choices within a more negotiated syllabus design and the extent to which they correspond with the decisions made by the teacher were studied.

Thus, we are concerned with three different aspects here: the student's response to externally imposed materials, their reasons for their choice when selecting readers and the comparison with the teacher's actual reasons. An important although additional factor in this framework is the notion of consciousness which as Little (1991) presents it, «...implies the possibility of the learners having an attitude to it [learning task], which in turn admits the possibility of widely differing degrees of success».

This notion will be adopted in the final part of the paper to argue that trained self directed or simply more autonomous learners are more likely to critically choose their readings and explicitly judge their teacher's choice rather than these students who are not aware of their learning process.

3.1. The research questions

- What are the reasons that lead teachers to select certain course readers for their students within an LDO scope?
- What is the student's response to their teacher's choice when the text is externally selected?
- What are the reasons that lead students to select their own course readers within a SDL scope?
- To what extent are these reasons similar to / different from the teachers'?
- To what extent does students' awareness of the learning process play a role in the selection or response in each case?

3.2. The subjects

The subjects participating in this pilot study are 10 teachers of English as a foreign language; 20 Spanish students of EFL all of them enrolled in a first year upper intermediate English course and 30 Spanish students of English as a foreign language all of them enrolled in a first year intermediate English course both offered by the University Alfonso X el Sabio in Madrid, Spain. Their ages range from 18 to 20 years old. They have reached this level by means of a level test prepared by the teachers in the Faculty of Applied Linguistics and they all got similar marks in them.

3.3. The books

It is agreed by the teachers in the department (a total number of 10) that students in level 3 must compulsory read a book to pass the level. Every teacher has the option to choose for their own group one book among a previous selection of three in which only part of the teachers participates with some proposals. The options for the teachers to choose are:

1. *To kill a Mocking Bird* by Harper Lee (Minerva)
2. *Look Back in Anger* by John Osborne (Faber)
3. *Ah, Sweet Mystery of Life* by Roald Dahl (Penguin)

In order to gather data for our study, some experimental groups in level 2 are given the possibility to choose an optional reading. The process of selection is similar to the previous one: the two teachers in these experimental groups select four possible readings but in this case, they give students the option to read one of them or more. Bringing them into the classroom, and letting students consult, they have the choice of taking a look to the possible options; number of pages, difficulty, topic...The options for the students to choose are:

1. *Meet me in Istanbul* by Richard Chisholm
2. *The Client* by John Grisham
3. *The go – between* by L. P. Hartley
4. *Far from the Madding Crow* by Thomas Hardy

These last are abridged editions in Penguin and Heinemann.

3.4. *The method*

In gathering the data, three questionnaires are used: one is designed to elicit information regarding the reasons that lead teachers to select certain course readers, the second studies the reasons students have to select the book they are going to read and the last is designed to gain information regarding the student's preferences and responses to the external choice when the book is imposed.

The aim of the first and second questionnaires is to check if there is any significant difference between the criteria of choice that subjects follow in the group (teachers or students) and between groups (teachers vs. students). It is also important to see to what extent the students have more or less problems in the selection in comparison with the teachers. The aim of the third questionnaire is to study student's feelings and reactions to teachers' choices; thus, the initial motivation with which they will face their "imposed" readings.

Depending on the gathered data, an interview with some of the students could be included as part of the investigation to get some responses about learners' intuitions which eventually explained their answers to the former questionnaires. Some general questions to gain information about their autonomy or teacher independency degree would be included although this individual information is considered additional in our study. As noted above, more autonomous learners are likely to be more critical in the choice of their readings rather than these students who are less. In a relaxed situation, the teacher would show the student alone his/her answers and ask some questions to gain information about the extent to which the student is more or less aware of his/her learning process which we understand here as related with their autonomy degree. It is possible that a "more autonomous" or simply more self-aware student will find greater motivation in choosing her own reading and probably will be more critical to the teacher's choice. On the other hand, the "less autonomous" one can be terrified by the idea of having to make a personal decision and is likely to prefer to have a compulsory reading chosen for her.

3.5 *The questionnaires*

The 10 teachers of English of the first year upper intermediate English course and the first year intermediate English course and the 50 students attending these courses complete the questionnaires. In order to gather data on teachers / students' reasons to select and to ensure enough answers from which valid conclusions can be drawn, it is felt essential to encourage subjects to actively participate giving their personal opinion as sincerely as possible.

- a) To gain information regarding the reasons that lead teachers to select certain course readers, the subjects are presented with a number of questions related to their process of selection (APPENDIX A). These questions range from closer questions which will provide the opportunity to the subjects to be more confident about their answers to more open questions. The questionnaires are translated so that the teachers have the option to answer to the Spanish or English version.
- b) To gain information regarding the reasons that lead students to select the book they prefer, the subjects are presented with a number of questions related to their process of selection (APPENDIX B). To design the questionnaire the researcher follows the same process as with the teachers. The students are given these questionnaires in their own language (Spanish) so that they feel more confident and understand what they are being asked, and immediately after having chosen their books.
- c) To gain information regarding the student's responses to the teacher's choice, they will complete another questionnaire which includes questions in connection with the book they have been asked to read (APPENDIX C). Previous to the reading they are required to take a close look at it and answer the questions in their sheets. By means of this questionnaire we will get a very close to truth first general impression on the part on the student in response to her compulsory reading of the course.

4. The results

4.1 *The teacher's criteria*

What are the reasons that lead teachers to select certain course readers for their students within an LDO scope? The reasons that lead teachers to select certain readers for their students are:

- title (preferably if it's representative of a cultural moment, or if it has connection with a current affair, or if it has literary value)
- difficulty of grammar and vocabulary
- number of pages

4.2 *The students' criteria*

What are the reasons that lead students to select certain course readers within a SDL scope? The reasons that lead students to select certain readers within a SDL scope are these:

- title (some references to the availability of a film with the same title)
- difficulty of grammar and vocabulary
- number of pages

When we analysed the results, three things called our attention first:

- 1) 85% of the students did not share their opinions or evaluate the books with a group and only 15% asked their classmates so as to agree to read the same book.
- 2) On the other hand, although we did expect most of the students to ask the teacher questions about her preferences or the difficulty of the book, they chose completely on their own using the information given, the book itself.
- 3) 50% of the students chose the book after eliminating the others and the other 50% as soon as they saw it.

In general, we can say that for 60% of the students the level indicated on the back page is important, the number of pages is important for 52% (although not all of them admit it directly), and the title is the most important thing for 55%. Nearly half the students admit to have chosen a book because they have seen or heard about the film with the same title. The connection between cinema and students' preferences is more relevant than originally expected.

The percentages regarding the reluctance of students to work collaboratively would lead us to the conclusion that students are not taught within a co-operative methodology. Their tendency is to work individually unless the teacher asks them to work in groups. They are not used to spontaneously make a group and comment, which would benefit their process of choice and eventually their learning process. Students are neither prepared to get information from the teacher and although this could be understood as a sign of teacher independency, it could also be interpreted, together with their lack of initiative to work in groups, as a failure to identify the teacher as a facilitator, counsellor or resource as described in Voller(1997). Students have their own preferences regarding the process of choice and no problems to do it but these data could eventually lead more to consider the students in the group as "individualistic" rather to as "autonomous".

4.3. The students' response to imposed material

What is the student's response to their teacher's choice when the text is externally selected? The student's answers to the questionnaires are summarised in tables 1 and 2 below.

Table 1: Students opinion related to the importance of reading a book during the course and preferences of choice.

	Students who find it necessary	Students who do not find it necessary	TOTAL NUMBER
	80%	20%	100%
Would prefer to choose among 3 or 4 proposed by the teacher	55%	5%	60%
Would prefer to read any book selected by themselves	15%	10%	25%
Would prefer their teacher to give them a compulsory reading	10%	5%	15%

The results in this chart show the disagreement of the students in level 3 who were asked to read a book with no option of choice. Half of them will do because they consider it important, although they would have preferred to choose their own reading among three or four possibilities offered by the teacher or to select by themselves.

Their preferences of genre and topic are shown in Table 2.

Table 2

GENRE	NUMBER STUDENTS	TOPIC	NUMBER STUDENTS
Novel	70%	Adventures / thrillers	73%
Short stories	25%	Humour	14%
Poetry	5%	History	13%

The book selected by the teacher *Ah, sweet mystery of life* by Roald Dahl consists on seven short stories of humour. In an informal interview, the teacher explains the choice. It was made quite clear in an informal conversation that she thought students would enjoy something funny considering they come from different studies and they are possibly not very interested in literature in general but the choice is not the option mostly preferred by the students who established adventure and thriller as their first option.

4.4. Reading selection and students' response

To what extent are these reasons for the selection similar to / different from the teachers'? Surprisingly, teachers and students agree about the importance of the level indicated on the back page and about the number of pages. We say surprisingly because the students were expected to be much more worried than teachers about these two aspects, as expected results were thought to show that students would prefer to avoid difficult and/or long texts.

Again, for both teachers and students the title and the summary are the most important aspects, whereas the pictures and the cover are the least important ones in general. However, 50% of the teachers admit that they chose the book mainly according to their preferences. For most of these teachers, the reason why they chose a book is its literary value or its representativeness of certain cultural moment or its relationship with a current affair. On the other hand, student's preferences prove to be for adventure & thriller and film-connected books.

In an informal interview with some of the students that answered they would prefer to have the book chosen for them, the general impression is that not only their competence in English is lower than the rest of students' but also they are teacher - dependent in many aspects; their degree of autonomy or self-awareness regarding the process of learning in general is seen as low. On the other hand, those students who opted for selecting their own readings seem much more confident with their English, more teacher - independent in many other aspects (more self-confident) and have clearer ideas about their preferences not only in respect to readings but also to the process of learning a language itself and their own strategies. Their English level is in general also better than their partners'.

5. Final conclusions and further research

It can in fact be seen as exaggerated to speak about autonomy or Self Directed Learning when treating about the participation of students in the selection of an adequate reading for the course. Nevertheless, this single action, if understood as some freedom to control learning content, can exemplify one out of a large number of possible alternatives. Carried out together with other participatory activities during the course, just choosing a

title can lead to higher student involvement in the traditional classroom; contribute to raise their awareness concerning their own learning needs or merely likes and eventually lead to a more negotiated syllabus and greater learner autonomy.

The conclusion of this study as regards teachers, is that if the main difference in the selection of a book to read in the classroom are genre and topic preferences, they might start considering the possibility of giving the students part of the responsibility by letting them choose their own reading as it is not proved that most of them would try to choose an extremely easy or short book which could eventually be not considered adequate for their level. On the other hand, learners might gradually get involved in the decision-making process where they would have increasingly more opportunities to act rather than to assume a passive role regarding the organization of the course.

Finally, the departure point of this study assumed from previous research (see section 1) that if students are given the chance to participate in the decision making process, they will gain motivation which implies a more effective learning. According to this general framework, it is here understood that the simple selection of a reader can have a direct effect in motivation and thus, in learning. Although further research must be carried out to prove this—i.e. by means of a longitudinal study which would attend to the students results or opinions after the course—it can be inferred from the informal interviews with some of them, that their command of English as well as their degree of teacher-independency affect their preferences and their response to externally imposed material. More autonomous learners—and we are speaking here of «people taking more control over their learning in classrooms and outside them» (Benson 2001) —are also more likely to critically choose their readings and explicitly judge their teacher's choice rather than these students who are less conscious of their learning process.

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APPENDIX A

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR TEACHERS

- 1.- How important is the level indicated on the back page?
☒Very important ☐Important ☐Not very important ☐Not important at all ☐I didn't notice
☐I don't know
- 2.- How important is the number of pages?
☒Very important ☐Important ☐Not very important ☐Not important at all ☐I didn't notice
☐I don't know
- 3.- In which order did you take the following into account ?
☒the cover ☐the title ☐the summary ☐the pictures
 Whose preferences and likes did you take into account, yours or your students'? Explain
- 4.- Choose one of these statements that you agree with. Explain your answer.
 - I chose this book because it is related to another book / to a film. I want to analyse an aspect they share
 - I chose this book because of its connection with a current affair which can be interesting
 - I chose this book just because I want my students to read it
- 5.- What type of book (genre) have you chosen? Explain your answer.

APPENDIX B

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR LEVEL II STUDENTS

- 1.- How important is the level indicated on the back page?
☒Very important ☐Important ☐Not very important ☐Not important at all ☐I didn't notice
☐I don't know
- 2.- How important is the number of pages?
☒Very important ☐Important ☐Not very important ☐Not important at all ☐I didn't notice
☐I don't know

3.- In which order did you take the following into account ?

☐the cover ☐the title ☐the summary ☐the pictures

IF YOU CHOSE THE BOOK AFTER ELIMINATING THE OTHERS, ANSWER THESE QUESTIONS

4.-Which book(s) did you first reject? Why?

5.- What made you choose a book among the others?

6.- Did you have any doubts when choosing a book? Why? What made you decide?

7.- Did you ask anyone? If so, who? what did you want to know?

IF YOU CHOSE THE BOOK AS SOON AS YOU SAW IT, ANSWER THESE QUESTIONS

4.- What attracted you the most? Why?

5.- Did you have a look at all the books even if you had a favourite one? Why?

6.- Did you change your mind? Why?

7.- Did you ask anyone? If so, who? what did you want to know?

APPENDIX C

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR LEVEL III STUDENTS

1.- In my opinion, having to read a book is ...

- necessary - unnecessary - boring - ok - other

2.- What type of book do you prefer?

- a play - a novel - poetry - short stories - other

What is your first impression of the book the teacher has asked you to read? Explain your answer.

3.- Which topics do you prefer?

- humour - thriller - adventure - history - love - other

In which one would you include the book you have been asked to read?

4.- Choose one of these statements that you agree with. Explain your answer.

- I prefer to be told which book I have to read so as to avoid choosing one myself

- I prefer to be given the chance to choose any book

- I prefer to be given the chance to choose among 4 or 5 books

- other

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La música en el aula de inglés: una propuesta práctica

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Resumen

La presente propuesta nace a partir de los resultados y conclusiones de dos investigaciones llevadas a cabo en el curso académico 2010/2011. Las conclusiones muestran la necesidad de crear nuevos materiales que utilicen la música en el aula de inglés desde una perspectiva interdisciplinar. Es por ello que tras contextualizar el valor de la música en la educación en general y en el aprendizaje de lenguas extranjeras en particular, se presentan en este artículo una serie de propuestas didácticas que parten de rimas y canciones para trabajar el aprendizaje de la lengua inglesa en el aula de Infantil y Primaria.

Palabras clave: Música, Inglés, Educación Infantil y Primaria, propuesta de actividades, interdisciplinariedad.

Abstract

This proposal stems from the results and conclusions of two researches carried out in the academic year 2010/2011. Conclusions point out the need to create new materials that use music in the English classroom from an interdisciplinary perspective. After reaching the conclusion on the need to create new materials that use music as a fundamental pillar in the English classroom of Kindergarten and Primary school, setting clear learning objectives, we present a series of musical activities based on English folk songs and rhymes to develop English learning in Kindergarten and Primary education.

Key words: Music, English, Kindergarten and Primary education, activities proposal, interdisciplinary.

1. Introducción

Son muchas las investigaciones que demuestran que la educación a través de la música enriquece la experiencia del aprendizaje en general. Un ejemplo de ello son los estudios llevados a cabo por el profesor Daniel J. Levitin (2007) quién afirma que mediante el uso de la música nuestro cerebro produce un aprendizaje más acelerado y significativo.

En el aprendizaje de lenguas extranjeras en particular, la música ocupa un lugar destacado ya que, entre otros muchos aspectos, esta contribuye a mejorar la motivación y a crear una atmósfera propicia para la interacción (Kelly y Rieg 2008; Schön et al. 2008; McGowan y Levitt 2011; Miranda 2011).

Considerando la importancia que la música representa en la educación, nuestro objetivo es emplearla como vehículo facilitador para el aprendizaje de la lengua inglesa de forma interdisciplinar e integradora. La música es una herramienta potencial de trabajo por su capacidad para proporcionar desarrollo y bienestar, conocer culturas, impulsar habilidades sociales, fomentar la creatividad y la afectividad y tener “ probada justificación lingüística basada en estudios neurológicos que investigan como el cerebro procesa y produce el habla” (Forster, 2006:63). Desde un sentido artístico y de acuerdo con las palabras de Menuhin (1997: 142):

De todas las artes, la música es posiblemente la más satisfactoria; carente de los límites de la palabra, lleva un mensaje universal desde el compositor al intérprete y al oyente en un continuo fluir, dejando una esfera de acción entre el actor y el público para transformar la concepción y la recepción según sus naturalezas y necesidades.

Tras realizar un análisis de estudios relacionados con la utilización de la música y con el fin de contextualizar su uso, se llevaron a cabo dos investigaciones en centros educativos públicos en la etapa Primaria de la Comunidad Valenciana durante el curso 2010/2011.

En primer lugar, se realizó un estudio exploratorio mediante el cual se evaluaron los conocimientos y actitudes de 20 docentes de lengua extranjera de Primaria hacia el uso de la música en sus clases. Para ello se administró un cuestionario adaptado del MCI de Blasco, J.L., Bueno, V. y Torregrosa, D. (2004), formado por 15 ítems afirmativos en una escala Likert de 5 valores. Los resultados obtenidos mostraron que los docentes hacían un uso escaso de la música en sus clases, principalmente por falta de conocimientos y por tener un repertorio de recursos musicales escaso. No obstante, los participantes mostraron una buena actitud hacia la música como herramienta en el aula de inglés de Primaria, reconociendo la gran motivación que despierta en los niños y su potencial para construir un aprendizaje significativo (Pérez Aldegue y Leganés 2012).

En segundo lugar, se llevó a cabo un análisis cualitativo de libros de texto de inglés de 3º de Primaria. Estos libros de texto fueron *Find out!* de McMillan, *Sparks* de Richmond y *Surprise!* de Oxford. Mediante una plantilla elaborada *ad hoc* se recogieron datos relativos a la presencia de canciones, rimas, cuentos musicales y juegos musicales. Se concluyó que las actividades musicales se utilizan generalmente como refuerzo del tópico de cada unidad didáctica, principalmente para los aspectos de vocabulario y pronunciación, pero: “no parece existir una conciencia más profunda de la importancia de la música a la hora de utilizarla como aceleradora del aprendizaje en el aula de inglés y creadora de aprendizajes significativos” (Leganés y Pérez Aldegue 2012:18).

De las conclusiones de ambas investigaciones se desprende la necesidad de elaborar materiales que utilicen la música y el inglés de forma interdisciplinar, que puedan ser una herramienta de utilidad y un punto de partida para los docentes. Dada la gran capacidad motivadora del uso de las canciones y su potencial para desarrollar un aprendizaje significativo - ambos aspectos fundamentales en las etapas de Infantil y Primaria- se presenta en este trabajo una propuesta didáctica formada por una serie de canciones que creemos serán de gran ayuda para facilitar el aprendizaje del inglés en edades tempranas.

2. Propuesta didáctica

En nuestra propuesta utilizamos la canción como principal recurso didáctico dado que esta “constituye la actividad musical escolar más importante y en ella se engloban una serie de aspectos como sensibilidad, afectividad, ritmo y educación tonal” (Ballesteros, 2010:124). Más concretamente, en el aula de inglés la canción resulta una herramienta de gran utilidad tal y como señala Jiménez (1997):

En las pocas líneas de que se compone su letra se encuentran una gran cantidad de estructuras gramaticales y actos de habla que pueden ser estudiados y analizados por el profesor y aprendidos casi inconscientemente por parte de los alumnos ya que aparecen en un contexto tan cercano al mundo de los estudiantes como es una simple canción (p. 1).

Además, según De La Torre (2007:2), el uso de canciones en el aula de inglés contribuye a introducir el arte de la recitación y fomentar la lectura en voz alta, desarrollar la comprensión lectora del lenguaje poético, perfeccionar la pronunciación de los alumnos, aumentar el vocabulario activo y pasivo, incrementar el interés por las clases de inglés, ofrecer oportunidades para ejercitarse en el canto, permitir la práctica de la lectura musical sobre los pentagramas y el estudio de algunos elementos musicales como la melodía, el ritmo, la armonía, la forma, presentar la historia y cultura anglo-americana a través del tema de las

canciones, y enseñar y divertir al mismo tiempo. El trabajo con la música, potencia además el aprendizaje de la misma.

Las actividades que se presentan más abajo han sido ideadas principalmente para su implementación en la etapa de Primaria y de Infantil mediante las adaptaciones oportunas. Cada una de ellas está justificada y se señalan sus objetivos didácticos, materiales, temporalización y desarrollo. Estas actividades presentan la música como eje central para el aprendizaje de la lengua inglesa al favorecer la asimilación de nuevo vocabulario, estructuras gramaticales, acento y pronunciación, además del conocimiento de la cultura anglosajona de una forma motivadora y participativa. Es decir, se pretende llevar a cabo un aprendizaje interdisciplinar.

El hecho de presentar una serie de actividades abiertas a modificaciones, que se exponen como ideas que el docente puede adaptar, trabajar y desarrollar, está basado en Menuhin (1997):

La creatividad se apoya en grandes cantidades de originalidad e inspiración; en otras palabras, en algo espontáneo, profundo y real. Es un estado de gracia, una condición equilibrada de la que forman parte nuestra herencia del pasado antiguo, así como nuestras experiencias en la vida diaria y en nuestra proyección de futuro. Es importante recordar en todo momento que la creatividad, el derecho de todo ser humano, es un esfuerzo activo hacia conseguir un propósito y no debería de servir sólo como un escape (pp.141-142).

Se trata de inspirar al profesorado para que, basándose en sus experiencias personales y en sus conocimientos, pueda llevar a cabo las actividades de forma espontánea y creativa. Las herramientas musicales que se presentan en la propuesta son versátiles y fáciles de adaptar a diferentes niveles de dificultad, permitiendo realizar múltiples variaciones. Los patrones rítmicos y melódicos son estables aunque los motivos que los constituyen fluctúen acorde a la vitalidad del niño. Las actividades están repletas de acción ya que los movimientos llevan implícito el significado de aquello que se está verbalizando.

En la webgrafía se han incluido los diferentes enlaces a las letras y melodías de las canciones, así como a la discografía y videos de ejemplo. Como el docente de inglés no tiene por qué ser un experto en lectoescritura musical, partimos de la premisa de que se pueden aprender las canciones de la misma forma que aprendemos a hablar: por imitación.

3. Propuesta de actividades

3.1 Tell me, what's your name?

Justificación: Esta actividad resulta muy interesante para los primeros días de clase ya que permite a los alumnos presentarse en inglés de forma lúdica. Se trata de una rima con una entonación sencilla donde además, están aprendiendo tres acciones con las que jugar a la pelota (rodar, botar, lanzar). La actividad puede trabajarse tanto en Infantil como en Primaria. Para los alumnos más jóvenes es conveniente utilizar una sola acción, por ejemplo, rodar la pelota. Según el ritmo de aprendizaje de los alumnos, el docente puede incrementar la dificultad hasta trabajar con las tres acciones.

Objetivos:

- Conocer los nombres de los participantes.
- Lograr una mayor integración en el grupo.
- Trabajar el ritmo musical y la improvisación melódica.
- Desarrollar las capacidades psicomotrices.
- Aprender posibles acciones en inglés con un objeto.

Material: Una pelota

Temporalización: 15 minutos o hasta que todos los componentes del grupo hayan tenido la oportunidad de decir su nombre.

Desarrollo: Pedimos a los alumnos que, sentados en el suelo, formen un círculo. Iniciamos el ejercicio repitiendo la siguiente rima por partes a la vez que con la pelota y mediante gestos, mostramos el significado de la acción:

Roll the ball, play the game, when you get the ball tell me, What's your name?

Bounce the ball, play the game, when you get the ball tell me, What's your name?

Toss the ball, play the game, when you get the ball tell me, What's your name?

Cuando los alumnos han aprendido la rima, realizan las acciones indicadas mientras se pasan la pelota o bien la hacen rodar (*roll*), botándola (*bounce*) o lanzándola (*toss*). Cuando termina la rima, el alumno que tiene la pelota en sus manos, debe contestar: *My name is...* Como ejemplo de variante de esta actividad, podemos pedir a los alumnos que, cuando sea su turno, improvisen una melodía para la rima.

3.2 How does your name sound?

Justificación: Tal y como refleja el Real Decreto 1513/2006 por el que se establecen las enseñanzas mínimas de Educación Primaria, en los bloques de contenido de música y lenguas extranjeras, para el aprendizaje de una lengua es fundamental la escucha, que además, constituye uno de los pilares fundamentales del aprendizaje musical. La actividad que aquí se propone trabaja interdisciplinariamente la música y el inglés; por un lado desarrolla la conciencia sonora y la audición de los alumnos, por otro, el aprendizaje de vocabulario y estructuras gramaticales sencillas. La dificultad de la actividad puede establecerse en función de la edad o conocimientos del alumnado. Por ejemplo, pueden utilizarse objetos cotidianos u objetos menos comunes.

Objetivos:

- Conocer los nombres de los participantes.
- Lograr una mayor integración en el grupo.
- Desarrollar la creatividad.
- Discriminar sonidos.
- Trabajar la memoria auditiva.
- Aprender nombres de objetos de clase en inglés.

Material: Objetos del aula.

Temporalización: 20 minutos o hasta que todos los componentes del grupo hayan tenido la oportunidad de decir su nombre.

Desarrollo: Pedimos a los alumnos que busquen un objeto de clase y que produzcan con dicho objeto un sonido que represente sus nombres. Formando un círculo sentados en el suelo, cada alumno nombra el objeto que ha escogido y dice su nombre mientras produce el sonido: *This is a... My name is...*

Al terminar de escuchar todos los nombres, pedimos a los alumnos que cierren los ojos. Cuando toquemos la cabeza de un alumno, éste tendrá que expresar su nombre con el sonido del objeto que ha escogido; el resto del grupo deberá adivinar quién es su compañero y que objeto suena.

3.3 When is your birthday?

Justificación: Esta actividad combina el reconocimiento auditivo con el movimiento. No se ha seleccionado una canción en concreto ya que la actividad puede realizarse con cualquier canción en inglés que trabaje los meses del año. A modo de ejemplo, se ofrece una versión sencilla para trabajar con los alumnos de Infantil y primer ciclo de Primaria, y una versión más larga y compleja para trabajar con el segundo y tercer ciclo de Primaria. Es el docente el que puede escoger el grado de dificultad según el nivel de sus alumnos.

Objetivos:

- Aprender los meses del año.
- Discriminar los nombres de los meses del año a través de la escucha.
- Conocer a los compañeros.
- Trabajar cooperativamente.
- Practicar la pronunciación del fonema inglés /θ/.

Temporalización: 15 min.

Desarrollo: Para Infantil y Primer ciclo hemos escogido *Months of the year song* de Michael Finnegan; para Segundo y Tercer ciclo la canción *Sing Through the year* de Kim Mitzo Thompson, Karen Mitzo Hilderbrand y Hal. Una vez aprendida la canción, pediremos a los alumnos que hagan una señal clara (un salto, una palmada, levantar las manos...) al escuchar el nombre del mes de su cumpleaños. Después de varias repeticiones, les pediremos que se agrupen con los compañeros/-as que cumplan los años el mismo mes y que se pongan de acuerdo para realizar todos la misma acción.

3.4 It's nice to see you

Justificación: Es importante crear contextos donde la lengua se utilice de forma significativa. Uno de los aspectos importantes en la etapa Infantil y Primaria es el establecimiento de rutinas (Pérez y Roig, 2009). Esta rima por su sencillez puede utilizarse en ambas etapas y resulta útil como rutina de bienvenida durante el primer mes escolar. Permite, además, diversas variaciones tal y como se especifica en el desarrollo.

Objetivos:

- Mejorar la autoestima personal.
- Fomentar las buenas relaciones entre el grupo.
- Aprender el nombre de los compañeros.

Temporalización: 10 min.

Desarrollo: Todos los alumnos van diciendo la rima por orden (puede ser una forma original de pasar lista). Para evitar que resulte demasiado monótono, cada alumno puede dar la bienvenida al compañero que tiene al lado de diferente forma (cantando, rapeando, etc.). También puede utilizarse para dar la bienvenida a nuevo compañero/a o si este/a ha faltado a clase durante algún tiempo por enfermedad. La rima es:

Hello (nombre del alumno), how are you? It's nice to see you at school.

3.5 Winter, spring, summer and fall.

Justificación: Este poema sobre las estaciones del año se caracteriza por el movimiento ya que los alumnos tendrán que realizar una acción diferente para cada una de las palabras. El movimiento forma parte del aprendizaje musical y al acompañar a las palabras ayuda a aprenderlas de forma más eficaz.

Objetivos:

- Aprender las estaciones del año.
- Aprender parejas de adjetivos antónimos.
- Trabajar cooperativamente.
- Fomentar la creatividad.
- Potencial la improvisación.

Temporalización: 10 min.

Desarrollo: Dividimos la clase en 4 grupos de forma que cada grupo represente un verso del poema. Primero cada grupo de alumnos recita su parte del poema realizando los gestos que sugerimos más abajo. A continuación, les proponemos realizar cambios tanto en los gestos y las acciones como en la entonación, añadiendo melodía, etc. De esta forma los alumnos tienen que trabajar de forma cooperativa. Finalmente los alumnos muestran sus propuestas por separado, unificándolas para recitar juntos el poema, primero en grupos y finalmente todos juntos. El poema es el siguiente:

Winter, Spring, Summer, Fall.

I am short and I am tall.

Faster, faster, up and down.

Now sit down and touch the ground.

Los gestos que sugerimos son:

- *Winter*: tiritar de frío.
- *Spring*: saltar.
- *Summer*: abanicarse de calor.
- *Fall*: dar un giro.
- *I am short*: agacharse.
- *I am tall*: estirarse levantando las manos.
- *Faster, faster, up and down*: saltar y agacharse.
- *Now sit down and touch the ground*: sentarse y tocar el suelo.

3.6 Let's go travel!

Justificación: Esta actividad combina el aprendizaje de profesiones y medios de transporte con el movimiento y la creatividad. En niveles iniciales se puede comenzar con una sola estrofa. Al ir avanzando de nivel y con ayuda del docente, los alumnos pueden desarrollar su creatividad añadiendo nuevas profesiones y transportes.

Objetivos:

- Lograr una mayor interacción en el grupo.
- Desarrollar la creatividad y la imaginación.
- Asociar los nombres de transportes con profesiones.
- Potenciar la improvisación musical.

Material: *Flashcards* con dibujos de la profesión y el medio de transporte.

Temporalización: 20 min.

Desarrollo: Enseñamos la canción *A pilot flies her plane, plane, plane* de Kim Mitzo Thompson, Karen Mitzo Hilderbrand y Hal Wright, utilizando *flashcards* con las imágenes de los transportes y las profesiones. Cuando todos los alumnos hayan aprendido la canción, dividimos la clase en 5 grupos y asignamos a cada grupo una de las profesiones. Comenzamos a cantar y cada grupo tendrá que inventar gestos para la profesión que le corresponde mientras el resto de los compañeros de otros grupos cantan. Por ejemplo, el grupo de pilotos pueden hacer como si pilotaran un avión. Como apoyo, podemos ir mostrando las *flashcards* mientras los alumnos cantan y gesticulan. Si se trabaja con alumnos más mayores, pueden añadirse estrofas que incluyan nuevas profesiones y transportes. Si se trabaja con más pequeños, pueden eliminarse estrofas e ir aumentando la dificultad progresivamente.

3.7 Do you feel happy?

Justificación: Esta canción permite aprender y reconocer diferentes acciones en inglés, así como crear nuevas e ir añadiendo estrofas. Puede utilizarse desde la etapa Infantil, mediante una estrofa sencilla, hasta toda la etapa Primaria puesto que el nivel de dificultad puede adaptarse en función de la cantidad de acciones que los alumnos vayan aprendiendo.

Objetivos:

- Trabajar cooperativamente.
- Desarrollar la creatividad y la memoria.
- Discriminar órdenes en inglés.

Temporalización: 30 min.

Desarrollo: Enseñamos la canción popular *If You're Happy And You Know It* utilizando gestos. Cuando todos los alumnos hayan aprendido la canción, se divide la clase en grupos. Cada grupo tiene 10 minutos para pensar en una nueva acción y enseñarla al resto de los grupos con el fin de añadirla a la canción inicial. Entre todos crean una nueva canción partiendo de la inicial o añadiendo más estrofas. Si los alumnos no conocen el nombre de la acción en inglés, el docente puede facilitárselo. Si son más mayores, podemos animarles a que utilicen el diccionario.

3.8 What is your color?

Justificación: De forma parecida a la actividad anterior, esta canción trabaja los colores y las acciones en inglés, permitiendo crear tantas estrofas como colores y acciones se les ocurran a los alumnos. Por ello, puede utilizarse desde Infantil hasta toda la etapa Primaria.

Objetivos:

- Reconocer los colores y las prendas de vestir
- Seguir órdenes en inglés.
- Practicar la escucha y la atención.
- Fomentar la creatividad.

Material: *Flashcards* con los colores.

Temporalización: 30 min.

Desarrollo: Enseñamos a los alumnos la canción *What Color Are You Wearing?* de Kim Mitzo Thompson, Karen Mitzo Hilderbrand y Hal Wright, utilizando *flashcards* con dibujos de los colores. Los alumnos de pie y en círculo cantan la canción, realizando la correspondiente acción según el color que lleven. Por ejemplo,

los alumnos con alguna prenda de color azul, levantarán la mano en el momento que estén todos juntos cantando “If you are wearing blue, raise your hand”. Si se trabaja con alumnos más pequeños, el docente puede utilizar las *flashcards* como apoyo visual. Cuando hayan terminado, el profesor divide la clase en grupos para que estos propongan nuevos colores y acciones, dado que la canción original contiene únicamente cinco colores (*blue, red, green, orange, black*) con sus correspondientes acciones (*raise your hand, stand up tall, march in place, touch your toes, start jumping jacks*). Al ser los alumnos quienes proponen nuevos colores y acciones, se construirá un aprendizaje más significativo. Para terminar, y a modo de refuerzo, los alumnos pueden completar una ficha donde escriban los colores que llevan en sus diferentes prendas. Por ejemplo: *I am wearing black in my shoes*.

3.9 How many?

Justificación: Mediante esta canción se puede trabajar de forma interdisciplinar música, inglés y matemáticas, ya que presenta los números en retrogradación. La canción comienza desde el número 10 pero puede adaptarse a diferentes niveles. Por ejemplo, en Infantil podríamos pedir a los niños y niñas que sólo dijeran el número correspondiente mientras escuchan la canción; en ciclos de Primaria más avanzados podríamos comenzar con números más altos.

Objetivos:

- Aprender los números por retrogradación.
- Fomentar la creatividad.
- Favorecer el trabajo en equipo.
- Potenciar la improvisación.

Temporalización: 20 min.

Desarrollo: Cantamos juntos la canción popular *Ten in the bed* utilizando una serie de gestos propuestos inicialmente y acordes con la letra. Por ejemplo, los números (*ten, nine...*) pueden indicarse con los dedos, la palabra *bed* puede hacerse mediante el gesto de dormir apoyando la cara sobre las manos, *little* puede gesticularse también con las manos, *roll over* puede hacerse girando de pie. Seguidamente, se escogen diez alumnos del grupo y mientras los compañeros cantan la canción, los diez alumnos irán representándola teatralmente de la forma que ellos consideren oportuna. Se hará lo mismo con otros grupos de 10 hasta que todos los alumnos hayan participado. Para terminar, el profesor formará una fila recta con los alumnos y todos comenzarán a cantar la canción partiendo del número de alumnos total; es decir, si hay 25 comenzarán a cantar desde el número 25 en retrogradación. Los alumnos dramatizarán la canción de nuevo, pero esta vez todos juntos. La dificultad de la canción dependerá de las edades de los alumnos y de los conocimientos que estos hayan adquirido.

3.10. It's time to clean up

Justificación: Esta canción resulta ideal como rutina para finalizar las sesiones de clase. En Infantil los niños pueden escuchar la canción mientras recogen y en Primaria podemos pedir a los alumnos que la canten mientras ordenan el aula.

Objetivos:

- Favorecer el trabajo colaborativo.
- Aprender los nombres de diferentes objetos de clase.
- Establecer una rutina para dejar la clase ordenada.

Material: Objetos de clase

Temporalización: 10 min.

Desarrollo: Como hemos señalado anteriormente, esta actividad puede realizarse como rutina al terminar la clase, mientras los alumnos recogen sus cosas para marcharse a otra clase y ayudan a dejar todo ordenado. La canción es *It's time to clean up* de Kim Mitzo Thompson, Karen Mitzo Hilderbrand y Hal Wright. La frase "Pick your toys" puede sustituirse por el nombre de diferentes objetos de clase como: pick your case, pick your jacket, pick up your backpack, etc.

3.11. Ejemplos para trabajar aspectos concretos

Finalmente, se presentan a modo de ejemplo una serie de canciones con las que podemos trabajar otros aspectos concretos de la lengua inglesa:

- ✓ *Old MacDonald Had A Farm*. Popular. Se pueden trabajar la pronunciación de las vocales y nombres de animales.
- ✓ *B-I-N-G-O*. Popular. Deletreo y pronunciación de consonantes y vocales.
- ✓ *Mary had a Little lamb*. Popular. Trabajo del fonema vocálico /a:/ y de los fonemas consonánticos /l/, /w/, /n/ y /s/.
- ✓ *Row, Row, Row your boat*. Popular. Trabajo del fonema /r/.
- ✓ *Twinkle Twinkle Little star*. Popular. Trabajo de las rimas en inglés: *are-star, high-sky, set-wet, light-night*, etc.

4. Otras propuestas para trabajar el inglés con música

El principal objetivo de la propuestas presentadas en este trabajo es el de servir de guía para que los docentes elaboren sus propias actividades según las necesidades concretas del aula. Sin embargo es importante contar con un repertorio de canciones, rimas, cantos, cuentos y poemas. Entre los materiales que existen para trabajar el inglés a través de la música resultan de gran interés en el aula Infantil y Primaria los elaborados por Carolyn Grahams (2011), quien ofrece una gran cantidad de recursos que emplean el lenguaje natural de los niños. Entre sus numerosas publicaciones destaca la serie *Jazz Chants* (Graham y Rosenthal, 2000).

Patterson y Willis (2008) elaboran también materiales para trabajar el inglés a través de la música en Infantil y Primaria. Destaca su libro *English Through Music* cuyo objetivo es orientar a los docentes sobre el uso de la música en el aula. El libro, acompañado de un CD, está formado por 8 secciones: (1) calentamiento, (2) escuchar y experimentar con sonidos, (3) canciones, rimas y acciones, (4) ritmo, juegos y patrones, (5) escuchar y responder con música, (6) canciones, rimas y acciones que refuerzan aspectos concretos del idioma, (7) cuentos con sonido y acción, (8) composición de dibujos musicales.

5. Conclusión

Las conclusiones de las dos investigaciones a partir de las cuales nace esta propuesta, evidenciaban la necesidad de elaborar materiales interdisciplinares para la enseñanza del inglés a través de la música como herramienta facilitadora. Los resultados de la primera investigación mostraban una buena actitud por parte de los docentes, quienes también reconocieron no tener conocimientos ni repertorios suficientes por lo que el uso de la música en sus clases era escaso (Pérez Aldegue y Leganés, 2012). En segundo lugar, tras analizar

tres editoriales de libros de texto en inglés, se llegó a la conclusión de que la música es concebida como un recurso más en el aula, utilizada generalmente para reforzar los tópicos de la unidad (Leganés y Pérez Aldegue, 2012:18). Por todo ello, se consideró la necesidad de elaborar unos materiales sencillos que utilizaran la música y el inglés de forma interdisciplinar, y que pudieran ser de utilidad para los docentes, constituyendo así mismo un punto de partida para que éstos elaboren sus propios materiales.

Las actividades propuestas tienen un alto componente motivacional por la utilización de la música y la constante participación del alumnado. Todas ellas pueden adaptarse al nivel de dificultad de los diferentes cursos tanto de Infantil como de Primaria, y permiten tantas variaciones como imaginación y creatividad tengan aquellos que las utilicen. En este sentido, el método Willems insta a los maestros a estar atentos a la participación activa y desarrollo creativo de su alumnado, mediante el trabajo con canciones, movimiento, melodías, ritmos, y momentos compartidos para crear un aprendizaje significativo (Chapuis, 1990).

La música forma parte del ser humano: “El lenguaje musical acompaña desde la antigüedad a las sociedades humanas: la música ha constituido desde siempre un recurso imprescindible para todo pueblo, deseoso de transmitir inquietudes, padecimientos, temores y alegrías [...]” (Pérez Aldegue, 2010:643). Como señalábamos al principio de este trabajo, no es necesario que los docentes de inglés sean expertos en lectoescritura musical. No obstante, cuantos más conocimientos adquiera un docente, más recursos tendrá para llevar a cabo su profesión de forma eficaz ya que: “es preciso aprovechar todas las oportunidades educativas posibles, y de un modo especial las contenidas en el arte y la literatura [...]. Entre los recursos que propician tales oportunidades se encuentran la música y los ritmos musicales” (Pérez Aldegue, 2010:643).

Finalmente, señalar que se considera importante continuar investigando acerca de las posibilidades de la música como vehículo facilitador en la enseñanza del inglés como lengua extranjera. Facilitador no solo por los aspectos gramaticales, fonéticos, etc. que pueden trabajarse a través de las canciones, sino también por la capacidad de la música para crear un ambiente distendido y relajado donde alumnos y alumnas se sientan libres para comunicarse.

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- Popular "Twinkle Twinkle Little star". <http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=yCjJyiqpAuU>

Letras de las canciones de la propuesta:

Consultado en: <http://www.twinsistersip.com/PDF/TW5126.pdf>

Consultado en: <http://www.twinsistersip.com/PDF/TW5236.pdf>

Consultado en: <http://www.twinsistersip.com/PDF/TW5137.pdf>

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La motivación del profesor. Un factor fundamental para la eficacia del proceso de enseñanza-aprendizaje de idiomas

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Resumen

En este artículo se presentan los resultados de una investigación acerca de las causas y el estado de la motivación del docente de idiomas en Asturias. Partimos de la hipótesis de que en la actualidad el grado de motivación del profesor en el proceso de enseñanza ha aumentado pues entre otras causas tiene a su disposición un variado catálogo de recursos didácticos que facilitan y dinamizan su labor docente. La metodología empleada para llevar a cabo el estudio se fundamenta en la realización y análisis de una encuesta¹ donde el profesorado podrá reflexionar sobre los factores motivacionales y emocionales que influyen en el proceso de enseñanza-aprendizaje de un idioma. El estudio lo realizamos con docentes que imparten alemán, francés e inglés en tres ámbitos educativos, Primaria, Secundaria y Universidad.

Palabras clave: motivación, diferencias individuales, enseñanza-aprendizaje.

Abstract

In this article we submit the outcomes of a research about the grounds and the state of play of the motivation of teachers of foreign languages in Asturias. We take as a starting point the hypothesis that nowadays the degree of motivation of teachers in the educational process has improved because they have access to a richer and better assorted catalogue of resources, among other reasons. The methodology we used for this study is based on the analysis of the data extracted from an open survey we carried out in which teachers express their ideas about the motivational and emotional factors that influence their professional practice. This study was conducted with teachers of German, French and English at three educational levels: Primary, Secondary and University levels.

Keywords: motivation, individual differences, teaching-learning

1. Introducción

Este artículo tiene su razón de ser en el convencimiento personal, en contra de algunas teorías ultraprogresistas, que el profesor de idiomas es un protagonista del acto didáctico, un elemento esencial en el proceso de enseñanza-aprendizaje de lenguas extranjeras. El profesor, como protagonista del escenario, es observado metódicamente por los estudiantes y comunicará cómo se siente con respecto a los demás y qué intenciones tiene. Su estado interno, sus sentimientos y su motivación determinarán su conducta e influencia en el aprendizaje de sus estudiantes.

¹ Esta investigación se enmarca en el contexto de una tesis doctoral fundamentada en una encuesta de treinta preguntas, tipo abiertas, de las que comentamos la cuestión número catorce.

2. Marco teórico

2.1 El profesor: un nuevo modelo en el paradigma educativo

A tenor de los métodos de enseñanza que se han ido imponiendo, emerge un cambio de paradigma educativo cuyo centro de gravedad es el aprendizaje y la persona que aprende. El docente “se enfrenta hoy a una situación de cambio en la que se le solicita que asuma un rol diferente al hasta ahora asignado” (Rodríguez, 2002: 53), no solo ha de ser el especialista que conoce bien la materia y sabe explicarla sino que ha de dar un giro a su orientación y convertirse en el profesional del aprendizaje, en el supervisor de la formación del estudiante. Como apunta López (2009), en este giro copérnico del paradigma en la educación, el docente se convierte en guía, facilitador y asesor de la adquisición de competencias en los estudiantes. De forma similar, Tébar (2003) sugiere que el quehacer didáctico del enseñante como trasmisor ha de ser limitado y que el proceso de enseñanza ha de centrarse en asesorar y proveer al alumno de los recursos más adecuados para cada situación. Numerosas investigaciones sobre la función y el rol del profesor en el aula (Skaalvik y Skaalvik, 2007; Pozo y Pérez, 2009; Pérez Cañado, 2010) destacan que la función del profesor es fundamental para promover un cambio en las actitudes, los estereotipos, los valores y la motivación de los estudiantes. Ser enseñante compromete a la vida personal y profesional del docente, una negativa disposición del estudiante hacia el aprendizaje puede anular el valor de la intervención del profesor pero, como apunta Day (2006), involucrarse emocionalmente en exceso tiene sus consecuencias negativas en la motivación del profesor. Del mismo modo que la motivación es esencial para el éxito en el aprendizaje, también lo es para la consecución exitosa del proceso de enseñanza.

A partir del desarrollo de la Ley de Ordenación General del Sistema Educativo en 1990 y de otras leyes posteriores como la L.O.E. en el 2006, en la que se establece la obligatoriedad de la enseñanza entre los 12 y 16 años, el sistema educativo español ha experimentado grandes cambios que afectan al modelo de profesor. En la nueva ley educativa se contempla, entre otras cuestiones, la responsabilidad de la Administración Educativa para fomentar la investigación e innovación en el ámbito metodológico, didáctico, curricular y organizativo y velar por la motivación y competencia de los docentes. La reforma educativa precisa de determinado perfil docente y se formula la necesidad de mejorar su formación inicial, su permanente adaptación a la renovación pedagógica. Así mismo, en el año 2002 el Marco Común Europeo de Referencia para las Lenguas perfila un enfoque innovador de enseñanza-aprendizaje basado en “las competencias y en los resultados de aprendizaje: lo que un alumno sabe, entiende y puede hacer” (CEDEFOP, 2010: 8). Estos planteamientos ponen de manifiesto la difícil labor del docente que ha de generar las condiciones favorables para potenciar el proceso de aprendizaje y tomar conciencia de los sentimientos, acciones y pensamientos del alumno, pues como afirma Laguna González (2009: 8) “en el momento del aprendizaje, nuestros alumnos se encuentran determinados por su entorno, por sus preocupaciones, quizás minúsculas a nuestros ojos, pero prioritarias para ellos”. En definitiva, en este contexto educativo, el docente se convierte en un individuo activo que pone al alcance del alumno las herramientas necesarias para que construya su propio conocimiento, en oposición a las tradicionales funciones de director, orquestador o instructor (Pérez Cañado, 2010: 105)

2.2 Características del profesor ideal

Numerosos investigadores han tratado de determinar cuáles son las condiciones imprescindibles que ha de cumplir el profesor ideal. Ballester y Padrón (2005) destacan diversas características:

- Tener preparación académica en Educación, o estudios en Idiomas Modernos, es decir estar formado profesionalmente en las tareas de docencia.

- Conocer diferentes teorías y enfoque lingüísticos para la enseñanza de idiomas.
- Conocer las necesidades de los alumnos.
- Tener criterios para seleccionar y diseñar material según las necesidades de los estudiantes.
- Tener destrezas para generar buen ambiente en el aula.
- Ser mediador en el proceso de enseñanza-aprendizaje.
- Tener habilidades docentes específicas: organización y estructuración de los conocimientos, planificación de las actividades a corto y largo plazo, claridad expositiva, presentación de los contenidos de manera que despierte el interés de los estudiantes y promueva el aprendizaje.

A este modelo añadimos otras propuestas señaladas por Cruz Tome (1999: 229-256) que completarían las anteriores:

- Conocer la lengua meta y aspectos metodológicos: el profesor ha de ser un especialista del área de conocimiento y ha de estar vinculado con la investigación sobre el contenido de su materia y de la docencia de la misma.
- Estar motivado por la tarea.
- Poseer ciertas características: paciencia, tolerancia, apertura, adaptación, flexibilidad y sentido del humor. Para Fernández y Francia (1995) la risa constituye una herramienta que actúa contra la rigidez e inflexibilidad de algunos individuos. Al provocarse la risa se beneficia el sistema cardiovascular y se produce un incremento de los neurotransmisores que favorecen los estados de atención y memoria.
- Tener ciertas habilidades básicas: facilidad para las relaciones interpersonales, habilidades para la comunicación, control del estrés...
- Actitud crítica y reflexiva respecto a su propia actuación docente.
- Ser innovador y estar abierto al cambio.

Uno de los grandes cambios que se han generado en los materiales empleados en el aula es el uso de las TIC. La utilización de las Tecnologías de la Información permite asumir mayores cotas de autoaprendizaje, lo que concede al profesor mayor tiempo para actuar como “guía” y “facilitador” (mediador) de los aprendizajes de sus alumnos. En este contexto tecnológico, más sofisticado, se enriquece el proceso de aprendizaje y se potencian nuevas experiencias.

2.3 El aula de idiomas

En el aula de idiomas el enseñante, los alumnos y la situación grupal se encuentran sometidos a interacciones de tipo psíquico que crean una atmósfera específica. El profesor se encuentra influenciado por los alumnos y éstos, a su vez, por el inconsciente del profesor, su actitud o su lenguaje corporal —gestos, miradas, tacto, expresiones faciales— cumplen una función didáctica. Partimos de la premisa de que el aprendizaje no es solo un proceso individual² sino que también se encuentra influido por el entorno sociocultural³ —la experiencia de aprendizaje, el valor que el entorno del estudiante concede a la adquisición de idiomas, lo que se espera de él como aprendiz y lo que él espera del profesor—. Williams y Burden

² Hemos encontrado escasas investigaciones que sostienen que el aprendizaje es un proceso individual. Riemer, por ejemplo, plantea la hipótesis del aprendiz solitario sin embargo, en la actualidad, su teoría no ha alcanzado un gran éxito —*Einzelgänger-Hypothese* (Riemer, 2000)—.

³ En opinión de Tudor las aulas de idiomas reflejan la realidad sociocultural en la que el individuo está inmerso: «Classrooms are therefore likely to reflect the core belief and value systems of a society as they stand at a given point in time» (Tudor, 2001: 124).

reflejan desde una perspectiva constructivista el sentido de un entorno de aprendizaje individual y sociocultural:

Se puede considerar que el entorno tiene componentes personales y sociales en el sentido de que está construido partiendo de las experiencias previas de los alumnos, sus creencias y valores junto a un grupo compartido de creencias, metáforas y significados (Williams y Burden, 1999: 209).

En el contexto cultural en el que se desarrolla el sujeto se forjan las ideas y creencias sobre sí mismo, sobre el papel del profesor, de los compañeros o sobre el significado y el valor que se concede al dominio de un idioma. Por consiguiente, a lo largo del tiempo, tanto el profesor como el aprendiz van creando su identidad y llegan al aula con un extenso bagaje de conocimientos integrado por las experiencias previas de aprendizaje, creencias y factores individuales, que no abandonan en el aula, y que contribuyen o interactúan con los procesos de aprendizaje.

2.4 La motivación del docente

Los testimonios anteriores dan fe de la diversidad de funciones que ha de desarrollar el profesor de idiomas, de quien se espera eficacia en el proceso de enseñanza-aprendizaje, mantener el interés de los alumnos, evitar su frustración y fracaso, desarrollar actitudes positivas, crear un buen clima en el aula, mediar entre el discente y los contenidos de la asignatura, estar actualizado en el campo científico y pedagógico, etc. Ciertas actitudes del profesor, su estilo de enseñanza, su personalidad, su grado de motivación influirán en la del alumno.

El término motivación lo define Martín Sánchez como “el conjunto de factores internos que junto con los estímulos externos de la situación determinan la dirección y la intensidad de la conducta de un sujeto en un momento determinado. Los motivos son aquellos factores que originan, dirigen y mantienen una determinada conducta” (2007:25). La motivación del docente se suele explicar de manera similar a la del alumno, haciéndose referencia al placer por enseñar y compartir el hecho educativo con los aprendices, motivación intrínseca, o a los premios y satisfacciones que pueden recibir de los alumnos, motivación extrínseca. Estos términos provienen de la Teoría de la Autodeterminación de Deci y Ryan, reelaborada más tarde por Noel, Clément, Pelletier y Vallerand (2003) que establece que las orientaciones motivacionales pueden clasificarse según el grado de elección, de autodeterminación por parte del sujeto.

3. Hipótesis y objetivos de la investigación

Partimos de la hipótesis de que existen cambios en la motivación de los profesores ocasionados, por ejemplo, por las comunicaciones interculturales, necesidades profesionales o avances en las tecnologías de la comunicación. El objetivo de la investigación consistió en recabar la opinión de los profesores, inducirles a reflexionar y que nos relaten, desde la perspectiva de su actividad docente, cual ha sido la evolución de su experiencia profesional, explorar si existe un aumento o una disminución de su motivación y las causas a las que las atribuyen.

Existen diferentes alternativas que permiten conocer el pensamiento de los docentes, en nuestro caso optamos por la elaboración de una encuesta.

4. Metodología: elaboración del cuestionario

A continuación presentamos un breve resumen del procedimiento seguido para la elaboración del cuestionario (ANEXO)

4.1 Diseño y validación del cuestionario

Este estudio se adapta a los modelos de investigación cualitativa. Analizamos un cuestionario cumplimentado por cincuenta y ocho profesores de idiomas comprometidos con la didáctica de la enseñanza de lenguas extranjeras. Optamos por la realización de preguntas tipo abiertas, sin respuestas preestablecidas, puesto que nuestro interés reside en que el encuestado relate su opinión individual y sin límite de espacio para responder. Para validar el cuestionario realizamos en primer lugar un “pretest” con doce profesores expertos en didáctica de idiomas y que representaban la diversidad de los sujetos a los que íbamos a encuestar. Entre otras sugerencias incluimos en el cuestionario las preguntas relacionadas con la influencia de la motivación en las alumnas y en los alumnos.

4.2 Participantes y metodología para la recogida del cuestionario

La población de estudio la constituyen los profesores de alemán, francés e inglés, por ser las lenguas extranjeras que con mayor frecuencia se estudian en nuestro medio, el Principado de Asturias. La investigación la realizamos con docentes de tres ámbitos educativos, Primaria, Secundaria y Universidad. Debido a que el interés de la investigación radica en la exhaustividad y profundidad de las observaciones, y no tanto en la cantidad de sujetos encuestados, contactamos con profesores inmersos en preocupaciones específicas en el proceso de enseñanza-aprendizaje de idiomas pues sus aportaciones podrían enriquecer los estudios realizados hasta el momento sobre las causas que generan la motivación. Por ello, seleccionamos una muestra de enseñantes que habían realizado cursos de formación.

En la tabla 1 se presentan las características de la muestra de los profesores encuestados según género, idioma que imparten, nivel de enseñanza en el que trabajan y años de experiencia. En ella podemos observar que el colectivo de mujeres tuvo mayor implicación en la realización de las encuestas. La escasa representación del idioma alemán es consecuencia del reducido número de centros educativos en los que se imparte. Así mismo, el menor número de profesores universitarios respecto a los de primaria y secundaria es consecuencia lógica del número de docentes que pertenecen a esos ámbitos educativos. La gran mayoría de los encuestados tiene una antigüedad en la docencia superior a los 10 años, puesto que es el colectivo que ha realizado un número mayor de cursos de formación específica en enseñanza-aprendizaje de lenguas extranjeras.

Variables y categorías		Número	Porcentaje
Género	Mujer	34	58,6
	Hombre	24	41,4
Idioma	Alemán	3	5,2
	Francés	28	48,3
	Inglés	27	46,6
Nivel de enseñanza	Primaria	22	37,9
	Secundaria	24	41,4
	Universidad	12	20,7
Años en docencia	<10	7	12,1
	10 a 20	23	39,7
	> 20	28	48,3
Total		58	100 %

Tabla 1. Distribución de la muestra a encuestar

4.3 Metodología para la entrega del cuestionario

La distribución del cuestionario se realizó de manera personalizada puesto que nos interesaba explicar detalladamente el objeto de la encuesta y la finalidad del estudio. La recogida de todos los datos concluye a finales del curso escolar 2007/2008. Los profesores enviaron la encuesta de forma anónima al investigador principal. De los 90 docentes con los que se contactó, recibimos 58 cuestionarios cumplimentados.

4.4 Procesamiento de los datos

Para el manejo y procesamiento de la ingente cantidad de información y su interrelación con los diferentes encuestados utilizamos el programa informático Atlas/ti5 versión 3.03 (Muñoz Justicia 2005). Desde el inicio del análisis se codifican las respuestas de los encuestados y se establecen una serie de categorías y subcategorías que se van afinando y cambiando según avanza el análisis. En este proceso se va generando teoría a partir de los datos recogidos. Este programa también ofrece los mismos datos desde la perspectiva cuantitativa aunque este tipo de estudio se realizó únicamente con la intención de enriquecer nuestra investigación por tanto, el análisis, fundamentalmente, se ha realizado desde una perspectiva cualitativa, en la que la respuesta de un único docente puede suscitar la reflexión. En la exposición de los resultados presentamos aquellos relatos que consideramos de interés y para mantener el anonimato de los encuestados identificamos sus textos con la letra P seguida de un número según aparece en el programa informático Atlas/ti.

5 Análisis e interpretación de los datos

Pregunta catorce del cuestionario: *Usted mismo, ¿Se encuentra motivado o desmotivado, en estos momentos, como profesor de lengua extranjera? ¿Por qué?*

El análisis de los datos evidencia que más de la mitad de los profesores (36) reconoce sentirse motivada. En la siguiente tabla⁴ se presentan las categorías y subcategorías que surgen de las respuestas de los docentes, el número de profesores y su distribución en cuanto al género, el ámbito educativo y los años de docencia.

⁴ Para la interpretación de la tabla hay que tener en cuenta que unos docentes pudieron aludir a diversas subcategorías y que otros respondieron de forma escueta, por ejemplo: «sí, estoy motivado» (P8); «No me encuentro motivado» (P3); «Depende el momento» (P52). Para estas respuestas no se establecieron subcategorías.

Tabla 2. Distribución de la muestra según género, ámbito educativo y años de docencia

Categorías y Subcategorías	Nº Profesores	Género: M: Mujer H: Hombre	Ámbito P: Primaria S: Secundaria U: Universidad	Años docencia 1º: <10 2º: 10 a 20 3º: >20
P. MOTIVADOS				
<i>La enseñanza exige innovar en metodologías</i>	20	M:15/H:5	P:10 S:6 U:4	1º: 10 2º: 8 3ª: 2
<i>Años de experiencia, seguridad en el aula</i>	6	M:4/H:2	S:6	1º: 4 2º: 2
<i>La enseñanza: compartir experiencias culturales</i>	6	M: 4/H: 2	S: 2 U: 4	2º: 6
<i>Entorno favorable en el centro</i>	6	M:3/H: 3	P: 4 S: 1 U: 1	1º: 3 2º: 1 3º: 2
<i>Adscripción definitiva al centro</i>	6	M: 4/H: 2	S: 6	1º: 6
<i>Respuesta positiva de alumnos</i>	3	M:2/H:1	P:3 S:	1º:1 2º:2
<i>Reconocimiento social de la profesión</i>	3	M:3	P:3	1º:2 2º:1
P. DESMOTIVADOS	11			
<i>Escaso apoyo Administración</i>	8	M:5/H:3	P: 6 S: 2	1º:2 2º:4 3ª: 2
<i>Desprestigio social de la profesión</i>	9	M:4/H: 5	P: 3 S: 5 U: 1	1º: 2 2º: 4 3º:3
<i>Escasos incentivos económicos</i>	11	M: 7/H: 4	P: 5 S:6	1º: 4 2º: 5 3º: 3
<i>Reformas educativas. LOGSE</i>	9	M:4/H: 5	S: 9	2º: 5 3ª: 4
<i>Años de experiencia profesional</i>	8	M: 4/H: 3	S: 6 U: 2	3ª: 7
<i>Dificultad para satisfacer las demandas del mercado laboral</i>	7	M:2/H:3	U: 5	2º:2 2º: 3 3º:2
<i>Evaluación del profesorado</i>	4	M:2/H:2	U:4	1º:1 2º:3
NO SE PRONUNCIA: La motivación depende de factores	9	M:3/H:6	P:1 S:5 U:3	1º:2 2º:5 3ª:2
4. No responden	2	H:2	S:2	3ª: 2

En la figura 1 presentamos gráficamente estos mismos datos sobre el total de las manifestaciones realizadas por los 58 profesores para todas las categorías.

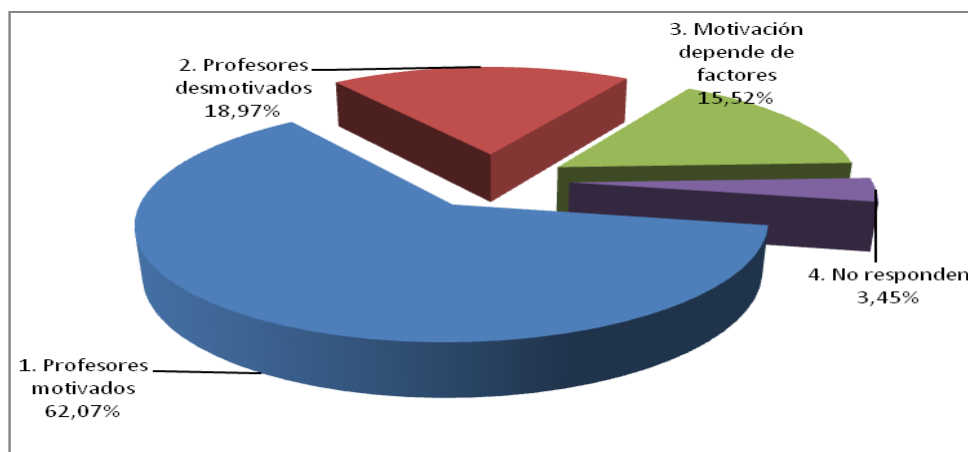


Figura 1. Distribución de respuestas por categorías

5.1 Causas que generan la motivación del profesor

- *La enseñanza exige una constante innovación metodológica*

Los profesores (20), mayoritariamente mujeres, del ámbito de Primaria y Secundaria, noveles y entre 10 y 20 años de experiencia, manifiestan que la profesión les exige una constante innovación en las actividades, los materiales y la obligación permanente de conocer las novedades metodológicas, circunstancias que les facilitan la adquisición de nuevas habilidades, les espolean, estimulan, avivan y alejan de la rutina diaria: “Es un campo en constante evolución y transformación, que exige mantenerse al día tanto en contenidos como en métodos. Es, al fin y al cabo, algo vivo y que nos hace estar vivos” (P14). La constante actualización es una fuente de energía para combatir el aburrimiento y la rutina que podría derivarse de la práctica en el aula con materiales y niveles similares durante mucho tiempo.

- *Los años de experiencia: una seguridad en el aula*

Para seis profesores los años de experiencia son el factor determinante de su motivación. A lo largo de su trayectoria profesional han adquirido seguridad y confianza para afrontar las dificultades y los retos diarios con éxito. Un docente del ámbito educativo de Secundaria con once años de experiencia afirma: “Dada mi juventud y carácter optimista, aún no he cedido al desánimo o apatía e intentaré que así sea hasta el final” (P8).

- *La enseñanza permite compartir experiencias culturales*

Algunos encuestados, la mayoría del ámbito universitario, destacan la posibilidad de compartir con otros individuos el entusiasmo por el conocimiento de otra cultura: “Intento transmitir el gusto por las lenguas extranjeras, por lo que tienen de apertura a nuevas ideas, a otras formas de pensar, etc.” (P54).

- *Entorno favorable en el centro. Mejora de las condiciones del profesorado*

Cinco docentes alaban el poder disponer de un ambiente apropiado para el crecimiento personal y ensalzan los beneficios de trabajar en grupos pequeños: “Los grupos son más reducidos, ello permite que la relación con los alumnos sea más cercana, favoreciendo la interacción” (P5). Otros motivos alegados son: “Un departamento bien dotado con medios audiovisuales y multimedia suficientes, autonomía en la confección de la programación” (P27).

Un docente alude al aumento de la dotación económica de los departamentos de idiomas, a los proyectos docentes en el extranjero, a los centros bilingües o a la decisión de impartir Bachillerato Internacional.

- *Adscripción definitiva a un centro educativo*

Se valora la adscripción del profesor definitiva a un centro educativo: “Sentirse miembro integrante de un departamento, con perspectivas futuras de trabajo con el mismo grupo de alumnos” (P15). El destino definitivo en un centro le permite emprender proyectos nuevos y poner en práctica las iniciativas personales en relación a la didáctica de las lenguas como “...nuevas metodologías, organización de viajes, etc.” (P5) o como relata otro encuestado: “ mi mayor desasosiego es el no saber si el año siguiente voy a estar en el mismo centro”(P28) .

▪ *Respuesta positiva del alumno hacia el proceso de aprendizaje*

En la motivación del docente influye la respuesta entusiasta de los alumnos hacia el proceso de aprendizaje, que muestren interés, que logren los objetivos educativos y que surja un adecuado “feedback” entre el grupo y el profesor:

En estos momentos estoy bastante motivada aunque ha habido momentos en que de verdad mi nivel de motivación estaba bajo mínimos. Creo que se debe a muchos factores. El primero, por supuesto, es la respuesta del alumnado y el interés que ellos manifiestan por la asignatura y por las clases y aunque tengo que reconocer que hay más alumnos interesados por aprobar que alumnos interesados por aprender inglés de verdad, por lo menos “trabajan”, que ya es algo (P7).

▪ *Reconocimiento social de la profesión*

Tres profesores del ámbito educativo de Primaria destacan: “Socialmente se valora el aprendizaje de una L2 y se considera útil mi trabajo” (P10). Además, añaden que la enseñanza es un instrumento educativo que permite el desarrollo de valores personales, colaborar en la integración de los alumnos o mantener contacto con otras materias curriculares.

5.2 Causas que generan la desmotivación del profesor

▪ *Escaso apoyo de la Administración*

En la etapa de Primaria seis enseñantes acusan la escasez de materiales didácticos y el retraso en la implantación de dos idiomas en estas edades.

Así mismo, los docentes de francés en la etapa de Secundaria declaran que este idioma se ha convertido, en los centros de enseñanza, en una lengua meramente testimonial (P46), o que se considere una *maría* (P40).

Los encuestados lamentan el tener que compartir el aula de idiomas con otras materias.

La distribución del mobiliario no puede ser la misma en matemáticas que en francés. La Administración debería hacer un esfuerzo e invertir dinero en los centros educativos (P1).

No es lo mismo aprender Francés que Física, los alumnos no pueden darse la espalda en el aula pues la adquisición de idiomas requiere la interacción, desde la Administración no se está haciendo nada por mejorar la enseñanza (P12).

▪ *Desprestigio social de la profesión docente*

Del ámbito de Secundaria se recogen testimonios en los que se atribuye la desmotivación del docente al deterioro de la enseñanza pública debido, especialmente, al desinterés de los políticos hacia los idiomas. Opinan que se ha producido un desprestigio social de los profesores y en el contexto familiar no se reconoce su labor como educadores.

▪ *Escasos incentivos económicos*

Seis docentes de Secundaria y cinco de Primaria reprueba que la Administración no facilite la movilidad de profesores, el intercambio con docentes de otros países y la realización de cursos de idiomas en el país de la lengua meta. Por un lado, se quejan de que los cursos se tengan que realizar en época de vacaciones y por otro del escaso número de becas para realizar cursos de perfeccionamiento en idiomas. Un profesor de Secundaria relata: “ Estoy cansado de abandonar a mi familia en épocas de vacaciones, puesto que solo tengo

posibilidad de reciclarme con cursos de idiomas en época de verano. Además esos cursos resultan carísimos y la Administración no nos cubre ningún gasto “ (P15).

▪ *Influencia negativa de las reformas educativas*

La reforma educativa (LOGSE) ha supuesto para la etapa de Secundaria la modificación del currículo de asignaturas, la revisión de los criterios de evaluación, la promoción automática de curso y la edad obligatoria de la enseñanza hasta los 16 años. Los docentes de Secundaria observan que antes de la implantación de la LOGSE la atención y concentración de los alumnos era mayor, no se encontraban tan dispersos y profundizaban más en las asignaturas, su grado de motivación era más elevado y dedicaban más tiempo y mayor esfuerzo al trabajo personal. A continuación transcribimos dos respuestas esclarecedoras en este sentido:

En general la motivación del alumnado estos últimos años es escasa y esto acaba influyendo al profesor. Resulta fácil contagiarse de la apatía tan grande que existe hacia todo lo que esté relacionado con estudiar. Cuando, por ejemplo, se llega a un aula y el alumnado no muestra interés, las ganas de enseñar del profesor disminuyen (P55).

Hoy nos llegan todo tipo de alumnos, algunos acostumbrados a pasar y promocionar de curso simplemente por la edad o después de repetir uno o más cursos, sin ningún tipo de motivación, sin saber estudiar, sin ningún tipo de control ni ayuda ni exigencia en sus casas, sin la mínima base no solamente lingüística sino también en cuanto a técnicas y hábitos de estudio (P9).

Un docente especifica: “Cada día desgasta más pues la energía invertida no ve resultados tan buenos como antes, a pesar de la gran inversión realizada: desdobles, el énfasis educativo a veces esta más puesto en el profesorado que en el alumno” (P2).

▪ *La docencia genera monotonía y rutina*

Anteriormente hemos recogido testimonios en los que se apunta a la larga trayectoria profesional como fuente de motivación. Contrariamente a esos argumentos, cinco profesores reconocen que tantos años de docencia han generado rutina, aburrimiento, cansancio y desmotivación. En este sentido, un profesor de Universidad se plantea la posibilidad de realizar otras actividades: “Después de 22 años, uno siente necesidad de dejar el aula y reflexionar un poco sobre aquello que está haciendo y sobre lo que podría hacer y no hace” (P36).

▪ *La sociedad demanda alumnos muy bien formados*

Establecemos esta categoría para recoger las encuestas que aluden a las exigencias del mercado laboral, que requiere sujetos con alto nivel de formación en idiomas y donde se responsabiliza al docente y centro educativo de las posibles deficiencias.

Un docente de inglés de la Universidad relata:

El mundo laboral demanda profesionales que se manejen bien en un idioma extranjero, sin embargo, los alumnos no realizan estancias fuera por lo que no alcanzan los objetivos comunicativos planteados en la asignatura. Los profesores nos sentimos responsables de su formación pero el sistema no favorece el éxito en el aprendizaje, los grupos son numerosos, los laboratorios de idiomas escasos, deberían tener más horas de clase, favorecer los intercambios, el tándem, las relaciones con otras universidades, [...] me causa mucho estrés que los alumnos no salgan con los conocimientos suficientes como para entrar en el mercado laboral (P58).

▪ *Evaluaciones del profesorado*

Los profesores de Universidad explican que nunca se han sentido tan presionados como ahora, desde la implantación de la ANECA, pues las evaluaciones de los alumnos condicionan su estilo de enseñanza. Una evaluación desfavorable del alumnado puede suponer la evaluación negativa de la Agencia Nacional de Acreditación del Profesorado.

5.3 La motivación depende de diversos factores

Nueve docentes no pueden referir si se encuentran o no motivados ni las causas que fomentan, mantienen o generan su motivación. La motivación depende de cada momento, situación y circunstancia —del estado de ánimo, de su propio humor, de la existencia de un número elevado de alumnos avezados o con dificultades en el aprendizaje, de la empatía con el docente, etc—.

6. Género, ámbito educativo y años de experiencia

El análisis cuantitativo da como resultado que las profesoras obtienen valores más altos en la motivación que los profesores y que el número de docentes masculinos desmotivados es casi el doble que el de mujeres. Se concluye que las mujeres que imparten en el ámbito de Primaria poseen una motivación más alta que las de Secundaria y Universidad. Debido a la extensión del artículo no presentamos estas tablas aunque los datos en relación a la motivación en las mujeres con respecto a los hombres según ámbito educativo fueron los siguientes: Primaria: el 68%, Secundaria, 60% Universidad 53%. La causa más citada por este grupo es su entusiasmo por innovar en materiales y métodos.

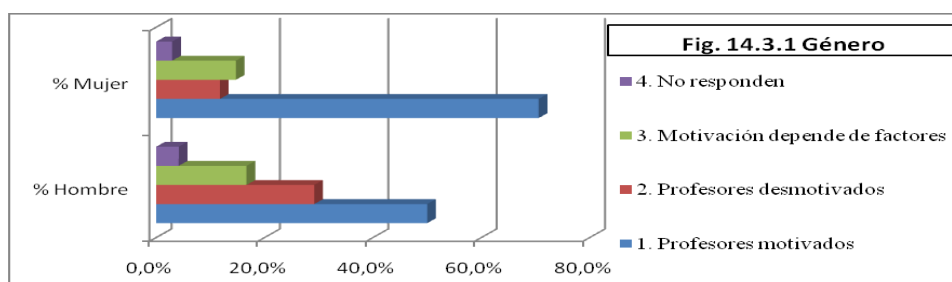


Tabla 3. Análisis comparativo según género

Los profesores motivados son mayoría en los tres ámbitos educativos sin embargo destaca un porcentaje más alto en los docentes de Primaria. El colectivo de enseñantes que pertenecen al ámbito de Secundaria afirma sentirse más desmotivado.

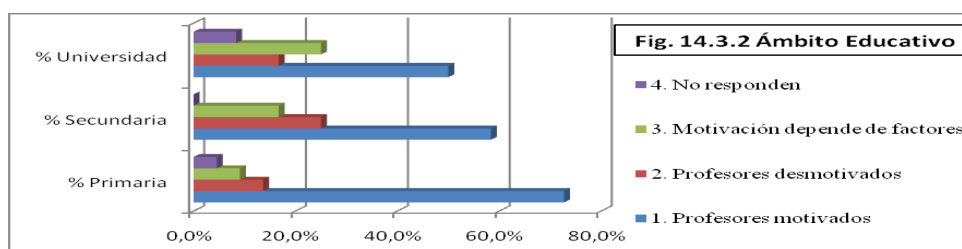


Tabla 4. Análisis comparativo según ámbito educativo

Respecto a los años de docencia, el mayor número de profesores desmotivados se encuentra representado por aquellos que tienen más de veinte años de experiencia. Las causas más citadas generadoras de desmotivación son las reformas metodológicas y su responsabilidad de conocer las innovaciones pedagógicas, las reformas educativas que establecen la obligatoriedad de la enseñanza hasta los 16 años y los años de experiencia profesional.

Los profesores con mayor motivación son aquellos con experiencia entre 10 y 20 años. En la comparativa entre los profesores motivados con respecto al ámbito educativo, destaca que en Primaria la motivación de los docentes noveles es más alta mientras que en Secundaria y Universidad la motivación es

más alta entre los docentes con experiencia. Respecto a los docentes en la Universidad el factor determinante en la motivación es la responsabilidad en cuanto a la formación lingüística de los egresados.

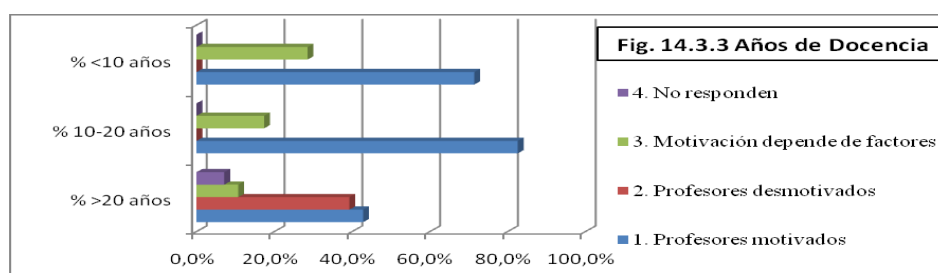


Tabla 5. Análisis comparativo según años de docencia

7. Discusión de los resultados

El análisis de las encuestas da como resultado que el 62,07% de los profesores se encuentra motivado. El perfil del docente con mayor motivación es mujer, ámbito educativo de Primaria y novel. Este colectivo considera la práctica de la enseñanza como algo dinámico y en continuo desarrollo, la profesión les exige una formación permanente pedagógica y didáctica. Por el contrario, estos requerimientos que exigen los nuevos tiempos son un factor desalentador para el enseñante cercano a la jubilación, con más de 20 años de docencia. Comentarios como “qué aburrimiento, esa lección la llevo dando toda mi vida” (P4) expresan el dilema de los enseñantes de idiomas con larga experiencia docente. Desde esta perspectiva, uno de los grandes retos que debería plantearse el docente sería el innovar o adaptar sus estrategias de enseñanza al nuevo modelo, tener altas creencias de autoeficacia, de competencia y eficacia personal, pues las expectativas de éxito como docentes tendrá sus consecuencias sobre la motivación y el rendimiento de sus estudiantes (Skaalvik y Skaalvik, 2007). Las investigaciones llevadas a cabo por Esteve (2003) concluyen que la docencia puede acabar generando sensación de monotonía y rutina por lo que sería aconsejable, como se reclama en la encuesta, que desde la dirección de los centros educativos se facilite e incentiven propuestas como la movilidad del profesorado al extranjero, la renovación de los libros de texto, la innovación en propuestas didáctica, por ejemplo el uso de las TIC en el aula. Sin duda, ello evitaría la desviación de su energía hacia otras facetas fuera del contexto de aprendizaje y se rompería con rutinas que “de dondequiera que procedan, esta serie de rutinas necesitan ser deconstruidas y reconsideradas” (Woodward, 2002: 24).

En nuestro país, el estudio de idiomas está estrechamente ligado a las aulas, donde el aprendizaje de una segunda lengua no difiere de cualquier otra asignatura. Es precisamente el tratar el idioma como una materia más en el sistema educativo del alumno, sin identidad propia, lo que puede generar la desmotivación del docente y, en consecuencia, limitar el aprendizaje del alumno. El estudiante no puede comprobar, por ejemplo, su trascendencia comunicativa, por lo que la motivación y la actitud positiva vendrán determinadas por su disposición hacia la actividad discente misma y por el tipo de enseñanza que recibe en un contexto artificial donde la motivación y actuación del profesor será de vital importancia.

La desmotivación de los profesores de Secundaria se imbrica en la implantación de la LOGSE, que lega una herencia de alumnos desmotivados y que promocionan todos los cursos. El alumno al estar obligado a ir a clase, muestra sumisión, rebeldía e intereses diferentes a los contenidos de las programaciones de idiomas. Estas opiniones coinciden con las investigaciones de Torres Santomé:

Las diversas reformas educativas que se promovieron en las últimas décadas y la muy escasa implicación que el colectivo docente tuvo en ellas contribuyeron a acentuar el despiste de un importante sector del profesorado en todo lo relacionado con el qué hacer y sus porqués en las aulas (2006: 36).

Esta situación genera, además, el establecimiento de una relación forzada con el estudiante e incluso de desinterés por el éxito en el proceso de enseñanza-aprendizaje.

En la encuesta encontramos referencias a que la motivación del profesor está en consonancia con la implicación del alumno en el proceso de aprendizaje. Martín Sánchez (2007: 26) manifiesta que muchos profesores de E/LE encuentran su profesión intrínsecamente motivadora porque les permite observar cómo los alumnos van progresando en su aprendizaje.

Los resultados encontrados permiten sugerir que las causas que generan el desánimo en los profesores de educación Primaria y Secundaria son la escasez de materiales y medios didácticos novedosos y el retraso en la implantación de dos idiomas para todos los alumnos. Estos colectivos apuntan al insuficiente apoyo de la Administración educativa y a los escasos incentivos económicos para la realización de viajes y cursos de actualización.

Los docentes de Universidad refieren su obligación de formar al alumno acorde con las necesidades laborales, lo cual suscita un desafío en la organización de los planes de estudio. El hecho de que el alumno no termine su formación en la Universidad con el nivel requerido por el mercado laboral, desmotiva al docente generándole sentimientos de frustración y ansiedad. A tenor de esta línea argumental, Pozo y Pérez (2009) sostienen que la meta de la nueva filosofía educativa ha de atender las necesidades contextuales de los alumnos, no sólo transmitirles conocimientos sino hacerles competentes en su profesión.

Finalmente destacamos las referencias de los encuestados a la evaluación del profesorado, un hecho que tendrá sus consecuencias, positivas o negativas, en su motivación. La creación de la Agencia Nacional para la Evaluación de la Calidad y la Acreditación constituye un cambio profundo en los usos evaluativos de las universidades. El personal que pretende acceder a una plaza de funcionario remite su información curricular y la Agencia lo valora. Entre los parámetros a evaluar se encuentran las encuestas que los alumnos realizan de la docencia, materiales, actitudes, etc. del docente. En virtud de las respuestas se debería reflexionar si estos resultados deben influir en la decisión de la Agencia Nacional puesto que una evaluación negativa no servirá de estímulo para los necesarios procesos de innovación metodológica pudiendo influir en la motivación intrínseca del enseñante y generar estrés y ansiedad.

8. Conclusiones y reflexión final

Carrasco y Bernal (2008:407) establecen relación entre el carácter innovador de los docentes con la satisfacción profesional, motivación, ilusión y placer con las iniciativas. De nuestra encuesta se deriva que los profesores noveles, especialmente el colectivo de mujeres que imparte docencia en educación Primaria, posee un carácter más innovador y por ello una motivación más elevada que los profesores expertos y cercanos a la jubilación. El colectivo de Primaria y Secundaria se refiere al interés por innovar métodos, materiales didácticos, por mantenerse al día en cuanto a modas e inquietudes de los alumnos, tomar decisiones respecto a la programación de las tareas —*qué, cuándo, cuánto tiempo, etc.*— e incluso, mantener un control de sus sentimientos. Las exigencias de los nuevos tiempos requieren el desarrollo de nuevas habilidades, les animan, les impulsan a seguir trabajando y constituyen una fuente de energía para continuar su labor docente que les aleja de la rutina diaria.

Por el contrario, uno de los retos a los que se enfrenta el colectivo docente cercano a la jubilación es la adaptación de sus estrategias de aprendizaje al nuevo modelo, una exigencia desalentadora, a tenor de los resultados de la encuesta. El éxito de una metodología, como manifiesta Tudor (2001: 145), no radica en ella

misma sino en la capacidad de que ésta conecte con los estudiantes y logre la participación activa en el proceso de aprendizaje, por ello proponemos que el profesor intente investigar en otros enfoques o actividades en consonancia con el alumno.

Como reflexión final, a partir de los resultados de las encuestas, proponemos algunas actuaciones que podrían redundar en beneficio de la motivación del profesor:

- Formación pedagógica del profesor sustentada en principios científicos y prácticos desarrollados a partir de la experiencia y de reuniones con otros profesionales de la enseñanza. El profesor de idiomas, a lo largo de su carrera profesional, se forma en materias lingüísticas pero muy pocos terminan los estudios con una formación didáctica, por consiguiente, sería aconsejable encontrar un equilibrio entre la formación lingüística y psicopedagógica, ahondar en cuestiones de motivación, psicología educativa, didáctica y estilos de enseñanza
- Formación lingüística permanente dirigida a actualizar el nivel de lengua del enseñante.
- Cada centro ha de ser autónomo y autosuficiente para gestionar el desarrollo curricular.
- Dotación de ayudas económicas a los Departamentos de lenguas para la renovación de materiales y medios didácticos.
- Consensuar con los docentes con más de veinte años de docencia una renovación en el ejercicio de la profesión (ocupar otros cargos en el centro educativo, movilidad del profesorado dentro y fuera del país...).
- La Administración debe velar por la motivación y competencia de los docentes, apoyándolos con una adecuada remuneración y el reconocimiento social.
- Adscripción definitiva al centro de estudios.
- Considerar la evaluación del profesor como elemento de reflexión del personal docente pero no como datos de evaluación por ANECA.

En síntesis, los resultados de este trabajo parecen confirmar que la motivación del docente está íntimamente relacionada con lo que acontece en el aula y con el entorno social del aprendiz. La influencia que el profesor ejerce en los alumnos y las interpretaciones que éstos realizan del comportamiento interpersonal del profesor influirán de manera decisiva en la forma en que los alumnos llegan a considerar el proceso de aprendizaje y en el entusiasmo y motivación del profesor para continuar en su labor docente. Aunque se trate de conocimientos subjetivos, el docente acumula una serie de experiencias sobre el aprendizaje, sobre conductas humanas que, aún sin intención, transmitirá a sus alumnos, e incluso se ha demostrado que dicha ascendencia a veces se prolonga hasta bien entrada la vida adulta.

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Modelo de encuesta

DATOS PERSONALES Y PROFESIONALES	
1. Sexo:	2. Edad:
3. Profesión:	4. Estudios realizados:
5. Materia/s que imparte:	
6. Años de docencia: ☐ de 1 a 10 años ☐ de 11 a 20 años ☐ más de 21 años	
7. Nivel que imparte: ☐ Tercer ciclo de Primaria ☐ Primer ciclo de la ESO ☐ Segundo ciclo de la ESO ☐ Bachillerato ☐ Universidad	
8. Lengua materna:	9. Conocimiento de otras lenguas:

CUESTIONARIO

*Si necesita más espacio para contestar a las preguntas, puede utilizar la parte posterior del folio

1. ¿Por qué optó usted por la docencia en el campo de la lengua extranjera?
2. ¿Cuál fue su experiencia –sus vivencias– como alumno de idioma en sus estudios primarios, secundarios y universitarios?
3. ¿Alguno de los elementos de esa experiencia pasada determina en alguna manera su práctica actual como profesor?
4. ¿Qué ha representado en su vida personal y qué representa actualmente la relación que tiene con la lengua que enseña?
5. ¿Viaja usted –o desearía hacerlo– con alguna frecuencia al país de la lengua que enseña? ¿Con qué finalidad personal o profesional?
6. La mayoría de los profesores consideramos que la motivación de nuestros alumnos por la materia de la que somos responsables es un factor determinante para el éxito en el aprendizaje. Si comparte esta opinión, razónela. Haga lo mismo, en caso de que no la comparta.
7. ¿Cómo definiría el concepto de motivación?

8. En su caso concreto ¿diría que los alumnos están motivados por el aprendizaje de la lengua extranjera? ¿La mayoría? ¿Una parte importante de ellos? ¿Una minoría?
9. ¿Qué factores de la conducta de los alumnos le permiten a usted decir que...
 - están motivados
 - carecen de motivación
10. ¿A qué causas personales, académicas, metodológicas adjudica usted la motivación de sus alumnos?
11. ¿A qué causas personales, académicas, metodológicas adjudica usted la desmotivación de sus alumnos?
12. ¿Ha notado usted a lo largo de su vida profesional un aumento o disminución de la motivación por el aprendizaje de la lengua extranjera de sus alumnos? ¿Cuáles cree que son las causas de lo uno o de lo otro?
13. En general, ¿cree usted que la motivación juega un papel más determinante en las alumnas que en los alumnos y, de manera especial, en el aprendizaje de una lengua extranjera?
14. Usted mismo ¿se encuentra motivado o desmotivado, en estos momentos, como profesor de lengua extranjera? ¿Por qué?
15. ¿Qué hace usted para despertar, mantener o aumentar la motivación de sus alumnos por la lengua extranjera...
 - en lo que respecta a las actitudes hacia ellos
 - en relación con las actividades de aula
 - en relación con los materiales y soportes utilizados
 - en relación con la organización de la propia aula
 - en relación con otro tipo de actuaciones en su centro educativo o fuera de él?
16. ¿Qué relación establece usted entre motivación y procesos emotivo-afectivos?
17. ¿Qué relación establece usted entre procesos cognitivos y procesos emotivo-afectivos?
18. ¿Cómo definiría usted las emociones?
19. ¿Cree usted que las emociones y los afectos tienen efectos de potenciación o de bloqueo de los procesos de enseñanza-aprendizaje? Razónelo ampliamente.
20. ¿Cree usted que el estudio de una lengua extranjera es causa en los alumnos de movimientos emotivo-afectivos específicos? ¿Cuáles? ¿Por qué?
21. ¿Qué emociones y afectos positivos –y, por lo tanto, potenciadores del aprendizaje– constata usted en sus alumnos en relación con el aprendizaje de la lengua extranjera? ¿A qué causa los adjudica?
22. ¿Qué emociones y afectos negativos –y por lo tanto, bloqueadores del aprendizaje– constata usted en sus alumnos en relación con el aprendizaje de la lengua extranjera? ¿A qué causa los adjudica?
23. ¿Cree usted que hay alumnos especialmente predispuestos a reaccionar emotivo-afectivamente –tanto positiva como negativamente– en relación con la lengua que estudian? En caso afirmativo ¿cómo lo explicaría? ¿Podría usted dibujar un perfil de unos y otros?
24. En general, ¿cree usted que las emociones juegan un papel más determinante en las alumnas que en los alumnos y, de manera especial, en relación con el aprendizaje de una lengua extranjera?
25. ¿Cómo interviene usted en el aula para...
 - despertar, mantener o potenciar emociones y afectos positivos,
 - eliminar o reducir las emociones y afectos negativos?
26. Indique cualquier cosa que le parezca significativa en relación con estas dos cuestiones –motivación y afectos– en los procesos de aprendizaje de lenguas extranjeras según su propia experiencia y/o conocimientos.

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CLIL. Content and language integrated learning.

Coyle, D., Hood, P. & Marsh, D.

Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. 2010 (3º edición, 2011)

(Reseña por **Antonio Rafael Roldán Tapia**)

I.E.S. Alhaken II, Córdoba

No cabe duda que el título del libro, *CLIL*, sin más ambages ni añadiduras, es un anticipo de lo que su interior nos depara: una clara, precisa y práctica descripción del aprendizaje integrado de contenidos y lenguas extranjeras¹. La difusión del mismo y su aceptación por docentes e investigadores, con una tercera edición en el espacio de un año, pone de manifiesto la buena acogida recibida entre los expertos y docentes de programas CLIL.

La publicación de este volumen aparece en un momento álgido de implantación y desarrollo de los modelos CLIL en la práctica totalidad de Europa y en los sistemas educativos de las comunidades autónomas de nuestro país, que corre paralelo a una profusión importante de publicaciones en un corto espacio de tiempo (Mehisto, Marsh&Frigols, 2008; Marsh, Mehisto et alii, 2009; Dale, van der Es & Tanner, 2011, entre otros).

Los autores, por su parte, avalan con su trayectoria la publicación que aquí nos ocupa. Mientras Philip Hood y Do Coyle acumulan en su haber innumerables publicaciones y actividades de formación del profesorado en CLIL, muchas de ellas con profesorado de nuestro sistema educativo (por ejemplo, Coyle, 2006), David Marsh es identificado en toda la bibliografía especializada como uno de los *padres* del CLIL europeo, allá en la década de los noventa (Marsh&Langé, 1999, entre otros).

Dicho lo anterior, a modo de exitoso preámbulo, nos queda pasar a la revisión de los contenidos del libro. Éste se articula en torno a ocho capítulos que van desde *A window on CLIL* (cap. 1), que hace las veces de introducción al tema, hasta *Future directions* (cap. 8), donde se apuntan las líneas de desarrollo de este modelo de aprendizaje integrado. Todos los capítulos del libro cuentan con su propia sección de referencias bibliográficas, en vez de una común al final de la publicación, amén de un apéndice que se incluye dentro del capítulo 4.

En el primer capítulo, se define el concepto CLIL, como un enfoque educativo con un doble interés, en el que se utiliza una lengua adicional para el aprendizaje y la enseñanza tanto de contenidos como de la propia lengua. Se revisa, igualmente su historia, su origen y la acuñación del término, su función dentro de la era del conocimiento y su relevancia en la educación contemporánea, prestando especial atención al desarrollo cognitivo que lleva aparejado la implementación de este modelo integrado. El libro no presenta una visión triunfalista e irreflexiva de CLIL, y, en ese sentido, en los últimos párrafos del capítulo (p. 12) se apunta de

¹En español, se utiliza el acrónimo AICLE para referirse a este mismo término.

manera realista que CLIL representa tanto una oportunidad como una amenaza para la práctica docente convencional.

El segundo capítulo es importante para los profesionales que deben adoptar decisiones (administración, inspección o dirección de centros docentes) de índole curricular en el sentido en que describe, con una amplia profusión de ejemplos, la idea de que no hay un modelo único de CLIL porque son muchos los factores que contribuyen a caracterizar cada uno de los modelos concretos que se implementan a cualquiera de los niveles: a saber, disponibilidad y formación del profesorado, tiempo disponible dentro del horario escolar, limitaciones formales o normativas, porcentaje de uso de las lenguas, diseño, desarrollo y planificación de los proyectos, etc.

El tercer capítulo, con el título de *CLIL as a theoretical concept*, pone el énfasis en la necesidad de acompañar las exigencias de desarrollo cognitivo con un nivel de L2 apropiado a la edad del aprendiz y ajustado al contenido no lingüístico del tema en cuestión. Se recurre, en este sentido, a la taxonomía de Bloom sobre los procesos cognitivos de orden inferior y superior, y a la progresión lingüística de CLIL que se sustenta en la distinción entre lengua de aprendizaje, lengua para el aprendizaje y lengua a través del aprendizaje. La integración de estos elementos, desde una perspectiva holística, toma forma en el esquema de las 4Cs (p. 41 y ss.), ya apuntado por Coyle en publicaciones anteriores (Coyle, 2006), que presenta a CLIL como un modelo que integra estos cuatro elementos: a saber, el *contenido* curricular propiamente dicho, los elementos *culturales* de la lengua adicional, el desarrollo *cognitivo* que lleva aparejado su implementación y la *comunicación*, como aprendizaje y, a la vez, uso de la lengua.

The CLIL tool kit: transforming theory into practice es el título del cuarto capítulo, el de mayor extensión de todo el libro, en el que se incluye un generoso apéndice donde se aplica de forma práctica la teoría desarrollada hasta el momento. El apéndice propone seis pasos, con una serie de preguntas que invitan a la reflexión, y que van desde las etapas iniciales del diseño de un proyecto AICLE, hasta el momento de evaluar nuestra propia práctica docente, pasando por un esquema de desarrollo de unidad didáctica (*lesson plan*) que puede resultar muy sugerente para todos los docentes que deben elaborar las programaciones, las unidades y los materiales, como consecuencia de la implantación de un proyecto bilingüe en su centro de trabajo.

El capítulo anterior se ve complementado con el número cinco, dedicado propiamente a los materiales, en el que se ofrecen muestras de ellos elaborados por el propio profesorado (p. 102 y ss.) en ámbitos tan dispares como pueden ser los engranajes y sistemas de transmisión de la fuerza y el movimiento (Tecnología) o los mitos y la mitología (Cultura Clásica).

Assessment issues in CLIL es el nombre del sexto capítulo, que aborda uno de aspectos más controvertidos de la implantación de los modelos AICLE. Entendemos que la controversia y la discusión pedagógica que genera entre nuestro profesorado es compartida más allá de los límites de nuestras propias escuelas. Los autores traen a colación y reflexionan sobre los interrogantes que permanentemente se plantean: a saber, ¿qué evalúan los profesores de ANL², lengua, contenidos o ambas cosas?, ¿en qué lengua se debe evaluar?, ¿se deben penalizar los errores lingüísticos?, ¿puede el alumnado responder en su propia lengua?, etc. Los

²Por ANL nos referimos a los docentes de áreas no lingüísticas; es decir, aquellos que imparten su materia total o parcialmente en la segunda lengua. Por ejemplo, el profesor bilingüe de Geografía e Historia.

autores citan a Genesse&Upshur³ (p. 116) para clarificar que la evaluación de los contenidos en L2 no debe suponer una minusvaloración de niveles y que los niveles exigidos en este proceso deben ser los mismos con independencia de la lengua de aprendizaje. El capítulo vuelve a incluir materiales de muestra elaborado por el profesorado y concluye con un resumen de aquellos principios, que una vez discutidos a lo largo del capítulo, deben iluminar el proceso de evaluación del alumnado.

El séptimo capítulo hace un análisis interesante sobre la evaluación de los propios programas CLIL. Se revisan cuatro elementos que pueden propiciar una visión de conjunto de los avances de un determinado programa: es decir, el rendimiento del alumnado, la valoración afectiva del programa, el proceso de aprendizaje y la evaluación de materiales y actividades. A decir verdad, se ha avanzado bastante en los dos primeros aspectos, aunque en el rendimiento del alumnado se ha prestado más atención a la evaluación de la L2 que a los contenidos impartidos en la misma.

El libro se cierra con una reflexión sobre las *futuras direcciones* en las que los programas CLIL van a evolucionar. Se hace una valoración del crecimiento de los programas CLIL desde los años 1990s, reconociendo el volumen y calidad de las investigaciones llevadas a cabo desde entonces, la implantación progresiva de CLIL en distintos formatos a pesar, a veces, de dificultades puramente administrativas, y el valor añadido que significan las redes y asociaciones profesionales ya consolidadas. Se insiste, entendemos que con buen criterio, en la necesidad de mantener y mejorar la formación del profesorado CLIL, tanto en su formato inicial como permanente, con la participación del profesorado que está en activo trabajando en los centros educativos.

Como conclusión, sólo nos queda repetir lo apuntado en el primer párrafo. El libro está bien estructurado, presenta las ideas de forma clara y ordenada, consiguiendo ofrecer al lector una visión realista y puesta al día del estado de desarrollo de las enseñanzas tipo CLIL. No es probablemente una lectura para los docentes que se inician en CLIL, pero sí para responsables de centros docentes, formadores e investigadores.

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³Véase al respecto la página 47 de la obra citada: Genesse, F. & Upshur, J. A. (1996). *Classroom-based evaluation in second language education*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Introduction

Terminology

Target
Professional
Competences

Professional
Development
Modules

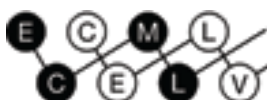
European Framework for CLIL Teacher Education

A framework for the professional
development of CLIL teachers

© David Marsh, Peeter Mehisto, Dieter Wolff, María Jesús Frigols Martín



EMPOWERING LANGUAGE PROFESSIONALS
VALORISER LES PROFESSIONNELS EN LANGUES
SPRACHLEHRENDE IN IHRER ROLLE STÄRKEN



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Introduction

This introductory section describes in general terms the European Framework for CLIL* Teacher Education. The importance of curriculum development in general, and more specifically in a CLIL context, is outlined. Challenges faced in establishing a common European CLIL curriculum are discussed, as are the implications of these challenges for teacher training and professional development.

* CLIL (Content and Language Integrated learning) is a dual-focused approach in which an additional language is used for the learning and teaching of both content and language.

1. Aim

This European Framework for CLIL Teacher Education aims to provide a set of principles and ideas for designing CLIL professional development curricula. Additionally, the Framework seeks to serve as a tool for reflection. It is proposed as a conceptual lens and model, not as a prescriptive template.

2. Background

This framework is the result of a CLIL curriculum development (CLIL-CD) project financed by the Empowering Language Professionals Programme of the European Centre for Modern Languages. As CLIL programmes in the Council of Europe member states differ from country to country, in their organisation, content, intensity and choice of languages, this European Framework for CLIL Teacher Education focuses on macro-level universal competences of CLIL educators. These have been identified through an examination of teacher education learning and curricular needs in CLIL contexts, and through a pan-European process of consultation.

3. Curriculum development

In the literature on curriculum design at least five different functions can be distinguished. These functions are also relevant for the development of a CLIL curriculum:

(1) A curriculum **defines an educational programme**. Curricula list the contents of a programme which the learners are expected to acquire within a fixed period of time. Content is sequenced in the curriculum, i.e. built according to different parameters depending on desired learning outcomes and existing learner competences.

(2) A curriculum is seen as **a source of innovation** by education authorities and/or higher education providers. New subjects or fields can be introduced; already existing content can be renewed. A new curriculum contains renewed learning aims, content and methodological guidelines.

(3) A curriculum serves as **a tool for planning and carrying out teaching-learning sequences**. A detailed curriculum helps teachers, for example, to plan, prepare and carry out a sequence of learning. An educationally grounded curriculum is fundamental for constructing modules and designing courses.

(4) A curriculum is used as **an instrument to evaluate teaching and learning**. Curricula are issued by ministries of education or higher education authorities. These authorities need to evaluate and assess what is going on in a learning environment. Curricula also serve as terms of reference for the individual teacher to evaluate and improve his/her own teaching, and for students and parents to evaluate student progress and to guide them in planning for improved learning.

(5) A curriculum serves as a **means for regulating, standardising and comparing teaching and learning** at all levels. The curriculum is an important instrument for streamlining standards in a region, country, or collection of countries such as those of the Council of Europe.

Curriculum development is also a means for building high quality CLIL programming. This European Framework for CLIL Teacher Education is intended to serve as a point of reference for providers of teacher training across Europe. It aims to contribute to the development or enhancement of CLIL training that will support teachers in enriching their students' learning experience.

This European Framework for CLIL Teacher Education provides curricular modules that can be adapted to meet the needs of educators working in diverse regional and national contexts. As well, this Framework seeks to provide a conceptual lens and model for situating discussion about CLIL. The Framework can also offer a focus for additional research into CLIL. Such situated discussion and research can assist in the further legitimisation of this educational approach, facilitating its progression from that of an innovative 'project' to that of an even more solidly-rooted and potentially widespread modern educational practice.

4. Challenges

The overall major challenge, in the development and implementation of a teacher education curriculum in CLIL, is its integrative nature. This is the case at all levels of education – primary, secondary, tertiary, vocational and adult. CLIL seeks to teach two subjects in one – a content subject and a language. Content subjects, such as mathematics and an additional language, are usually taught separately.

With the exception of primary teachers, other educators are often trained to teach just one subject be that a content subject or a language, as opposed to both. Even where teachers are trained in both a content subject and a language, training in the integration of language and content is not widespread. Teachers undertaking CLIL will need to be prepared to develop multiple types of expertise: among others, in the content subject; in a language; in best practice in teaching and learning; in the integration of the previous three; and, in the integration of CLIL within an educational institution.

The European Framework for CLIL Teacher Education

cannot focus on all the content subjects which are taught in school systems, or on the languages which might be used as a medium of instruction. The Framework as such is neutral with respect to these aspects, and it does not cater for specific competence development in any one content subject or language. Rather, it is focused on the competences necessary to teach content subjects and an additional language in an integrated manner.

Terminology

The definitions presented here seek to situate key terms used in the Framework within a defined scope of meaning. Where pan-European bodies have already defined terms, those definitions are given preference.

Attitude

(Preconceived) ideas or beliefs which a person has towards other persons, situations, members of society, ideologies, events, etc. Sarnoff (1970) defines attitude as 'a disposition to react favourably or unfavourably to a class of objects.' Attitude becomes visible through behaviours and an outward expression of beliefs or feelings and can either support or impede learning. Critical reflection and dialogue about the socially constructed nature of attitude can help individuals to better understand and manage their own attitudes and learning, as can meta-affective and meta-cognitive awareness.

Assessment

A process of collecting and interpreting evidence for some purpose. In education, assessment is intended to be a tool that supports learning and helps measure progress being made toward achieving planned learner outcomes. The term assessment is sometimes used interchangeably with the term 'evaluation'. Assessment more often relates to individual students' achievements, whereas 'evaluation' deals with systems, materials, procedures and their values.

A distinction is made between formative and summative assessment. In formative assessment the student's learning (attitudes, skills, habits and knowledge) is analysed with the student over longer stretches of time and used to improve learning and teaching. Summative assessment is based on discrete-point testing of a student's learning, often at the end of a unit or year of study.

Summative assessment procedures are often linked to external tests validated by statistical measures and are often used to make very important decisions about stu-

dents (e.g., pass/fail) and/or teachers (e.g., adequate/inadequate teaching performance).

Whereas formative assessment helps build learner and teacher autonomy including the capacity to better manage learning, so-called 'high-stakes' summative assessment is considered by many researchers to lead to significant negative consequences including reduced learning outcomes.

Change models

Change models are frameworks that support organisations in managing change such as the introduction of innovation in education.

Kotter (1995, 2002) details eight steps that characterise change: establishing a sense of urgency; creating a guiding coalition; developing strategy and vision; communicating the change vision; empowering broad-based action; generating short-term wins; consolidating gains and producing more change; and anchoring new approaches in culture.

Fullan (2001) proposes: maintaining a focus on moral purpose; understanding change; increasing coherence among various aspects of a planned change; relationship-building; knowledge creation and sharing; and building commitment among an organisation's internal and external members (stakeholders).

Bennet and Bennet (2008) suggest professionals undertake the changes they see fit. Individuals are encouraged to manage their own learning, and to plan change by taking into account the following factors: awareness, understanding, personal feelings and beliefs, ownership, empowerment, and impact.

Awareness of change models can help educators manage change more effectively. Moreover, awareness of

and building skills in using these models can help both educators and students develop autonomy and agency.

CLIL (Content and Language Integrated Learning)

CLIL is a dual-focused educational approach in which an additional language is used for the learning and teaching of content and language with the objective of promoting both content and language mastery to pre-defined levels (Maljers, Marsh, Wolff, Genesee, Frigols-Martín, Mehisto, 2010).

Competence

The demonstrated ability to use knowledge, skills and personal, social and/or methodological abilities, in work or study situations and in professional and personal development. In the context of the European Qualifications Framework, competence is described in terms of responsibility and autonomy (European Commission, 2008).

(European key) competences for lifelong learning

These eight interdependent key competences describe the essential knowledge, skills and attitudes central to lifelong learning. They all emphasise critical thinking, creativity, initiative, problem solving, risk assessment, decision taking, and constructive management of feelings. The eight key competences are: communication in the mother tongue; communication in foreign languages; mathematical competence and basic competences in science and technology; digital competence; learning to learn; social and civic competences; sense

of initiative and entrepreneurship; cultural awareness and expression (European Parliament and the Council, 2006).

Evaluation

The term is often used 'to denote the process of collecting evidence about programmes, systems, procedures and processes' and the interpretation of that evidence with respect to stated or desired objectives (Harlen, 2007). For example, evaluation provides information about the quality of a curriculum, a study programme or teaching. Like assessment (*cf.*), evaluation makes use of formative and summative approaches; but instead of assessing the student's individual efforts and results these are analysed with respect to wider 'system-based' issues such as a whole programme, significant parts of the programme or key features such as how teachers teach and how groups of students learn.

Grounded professional confidence

Knowing when one's thinking and skills are sound enough to make one's own decisions, and taking action thereon when appropriate, whilst maintaining a high level of professional standards and advancing one's own learning (Mehisto, 2010).

Knowledge

The outcome of the assimilation of information through learning. Knowledge is the body of facts, principles, theories and practices that is related to a field of work or study. In the context of the European Qualifications Framework, knowledge is described as theoretical and/or factual.

Learner autonomy

‘The ability to take charge of one’s own learning’ (Holec, 1981). Expanding on this definition, David Little (1991) states that learner autonomy includes a ‘capacity for detachment, critical reflection, decision-making and independent action’.

Learning outcomes

An outcome describes the enduring knowledge, skills, abilities and attitudes which allow a student to exercise and apply learning in his or her personal and professional life. More simply expressed, it is what a student knows and can do as a result of what he or she has learnt. Outcomes are often defined in terms of competences.

Professional learning communities

‘A professional learning community is an inclusive group of people, motivated by a shared learning vision, who support and work with each other, finding ways, inside and outside their immediate community, to enquire on their practice and together learn new and better approaches that will enhance all pupils’ learning’ (Stoll *et al.*, 2006).

Professional learning communities tend to:

- have shared values and visions
- assume collective responsibility for student learning
- foster reflective professional inquiry
- facilitate collaboration, which includes open and frank debate
- promote group, as well as individual learning (Bolam *et al.*, 2005).

Skills

The ability to apply knowledge and use know-how to complete tasks and solve problems. In the context of the European Qualifications Framework (European Parliament and Council, 2008), skills are described as cognitive (involving the use of logical, intuitive and creative thinking) or practical (involving manual dexterity and the use of methods, materials, tools and instruments).

Target Professional Competences

These are the target professional competences that the CLIL teacher is expected to acquire or further develop during the training programme.

1. PERSONAL REFLECTION

Commitment to one's own cognitive, social and affective development is fundamental to being able to support the cognitive, social and affective development of students.

CLIL teachers are able:

- a) to explore, and to articulate their own understanding of, and attitudes towards, generally accepted principles of teaching and learning (**P**rofessional **D**evelopment **C**omponent 3).*
- b) to explore and to articulate their understanding of, and attitudes towards content and language (L1, L2, L3) learning, as well as learning skills development in CLIL (PDC 3)
- c) to define their own pedagogical and content (subject field) competences, and related developmental needs (PDC 3)
- d) to define their level of language competence according to the *Common European Framework of Reference* (CEFR), and to articulate related developmental needs (PDC 8)
- e) to explore and to articulate ways of working with learners to jointly identify teacher and student socio-cultural, personal and vocational learning needs (PDC 4, 5, 6, 7)
- f) to explore and to articulate the necessity to cooperate with colleagues and other key CLIL stakeholders, and describe mechanisms for cooperation (PDC 4, 8, 11)
- g) to work according to the principles of grounded professional confidence (PDC 6)
- h) to develop and to update their own professional

* NB: The numbering of the twelve PDC components is consecutive throughout the three Professional Development Modules.

development plan (PDC 2)

- i) to explore and to manage the multiple roles and identities of a CLIL teacher (PDC 6)
- j) to explore and to manage the impact of one's own attitudes and behaviour on the learning process (PDC 6)

2. CLIL FUNDAMENTALS

An understanding of the core features of CLIL, and how these link with best practices in education, is central to the CLIL approach, as are building inclusive and constructive relationships with students and other stakeholders.

CLIL teachers are able:

- a) to describe core features of the CLIL approach (definition, models, planned outcomes, methodology, driving principles) (PDC 1, 6)
- b) to describe common misconceptions vis-à-vis CLIL (PDC 1, 2, 3)
- c) to contextualise CLIL with respect to the school, regional and/or national curriculum (PDC 1, 4)
- d) to articulate and discuss CLIL with school's internal and external stakeholders (PDC 4, PDC 5)
- e) to describe strategies for integrating CLIL and existing school ethos (PDC 4)

3. CONTENT AND LANGUAGE AWARENESS

In CLIL, successful content learning is particularly dependent on language: enhanced language learning is dependent on content learning. Research-based knowledge of the interdependence of language (L1, L2, L3) and cognitive development facilitates both content and language learning.

CLIL teachers are able:

- a) to identify the appropriate content to be taught and obstacles to content learning (PDC 3, 5, 6)
- b) to view content through different cultural perspectives (PDC 5, 7)
- c) to deploy strategies to support language learning in content classes (PDC 3, 4, 5, 6)
- d) to create opportunities for reinforcing content learning in language classes (PDC 3, 4, 6)
- e) to apply strategies for fostering critical thinking by students about content and language (PDF 3, 4, 6)
- f) to apply strategies for fostering in students the habit of linking new learning with their personal experience (e.g., language, content subjects, personal experience and the out-of-school world) (PDC 3, 9, 11)
- g) to promote learner awareness of language and the language learning process (PDC 3, 6)
- h) to describe how the first language can support additional language learning (PDC 3)
- i) to model strategies for making the transition from monolingual to bi/plurilingual teaching and learning (PDC 1, 2, 3)
- j) to devise and implement strategies that take into account key concepts such as (critical) discourse, domains and registers, Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills, Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency in order to promote language and content learning, as well as learning skills development (PDC 3, 6)
- k) to describe the implication of age for language learning and use (PDC 3, 5, 6)
- l) to link language awareness issues to content learning and cognition (PDC 3, 5, 6)
- m) to scaffold language learning during content classes (PDC 5, 6)

- n) to propose instructional strategies that take into account social constructivist theory, including exploratory and other forms of discourse that promote dialogic teaching and learning (PDC 3)
- o) to draw on knowledge and theories from language learning fields such as SLA to propose instructional and learning strategies (PDC 3)

4. METHODOLOGY AND ASSESSMENT

In CLIL aspects of good pedagogy are applied in a new manner. Due to the challenges of learning through an additional language, many aspects of good pedagogy require enhanced and detailed scaffolding. A wide range of knowledge and skills relating to methodology and assessment are integrated in order to create meaningful and supportive learning experiences for students.

Building learner capacity

CLIL teachers are able:

- a) to support learners in building their capacity:
 - to self-motivate (PDC 1)
 - to self-assess so that they can become more reflective and autonomous (PDC 6, 7, 8, 10)
 - to constructively give, receive and use teacher and peer assessment/feedback (PDC 6,10)
 - to cooperate with the teacher so as to reflect on, and improve learning (PDC 6, 7)
 - to identify and analyse preferred learning styles, and to expand and effectively use these and others (PDC 3, 7)

Co-operating with colleagues

CLIL teachers are able:

- a) to nurture cooperation with colleagues and have a repertoire of cooperation strategies and skills (PDC 4, 5)
- b) to cooperate with colleagues so as to reflect on and improve learning (PDC 6, 7)

Deploying strategies

CLIL teachers are able to:

- a) deploy strategies:
 - for the co-construction of knowledge with learners and for cooperative learning (PDC, 3, 5, 6, 7)
 - for fostering critical thinking (PDC 3, 6)
- b) support continuous language growth through a repertoire of didactic strategies (e.g., Zone of Proximal Development, error awareness and correction, first language transfer and interference, translanguaging, anti-plateauing strategies and modelling) (PDC 3, 6)
- c) deploy blended learning approaches in the CLIL classroom (PDC 3, 6)

Building direction and focus

CLIL teachers are able:

- a) to work with learners to jointly identify learners' needs in CLIL (PDC 3, 5, 6, 7)
- b) to design CLIL modules and lessons within the context of a given curriculum (PDC 4, 5, 6)
- c) to identify key concepts of content subjects and make them accessible to learners by modifying teaching to take into account students' diverse language competences and needs (PDC 6, 7)

- d) to set outcomes together with learners regarding language, content and learning skills (PDC 5, 6)
- e) to maintain a triple focus that supports content, language and learning skills development (PDC 6)
- f) to build on prior language and content knowledge, skills, attitudes and experiences of learners (PDC 6, 7)
- g) to take guidance from the European *Key Competences for Lifelong Learning* (PDC 10)

Building safe and meaningful learning experiences

CLIL teachers are able:

- a) to support students in managing the affective side of learning through an additional language (PDC 7)
- b) to create authentic and meaningful learning environments and experiences for students (e.g., group work, peer teaching and work placement) (PDC 3, 5, 7)
- c) to create supportive structures to foster contact and communication with other speakers of the CLIL language (PDC 6, 11)

Assessing

CLIL teachers are able:

- a) to articulate CLIL-specific assessment needs and goals, and to develop and implement related assessment tools (PDC 8, 9, 10)
- b) to identify what learners already know (PDC 5, 10)
- c) to guide learner reflection on previously agreed upon content, language and learning skills, goals/outcomes, achievements (PDC 2, 10)
- d) to guide learners in using portfolio-based approaches (including the *European Language Portfolio*) as tools for fostering learning, teaching and assessment (PDC 10)
- e) to use formative and summative assessment strategies to support content, language and learning skills development (PDC 5, 6, 8, 10)
- f) to use benchmarking in supporting progress in learning (PDC 6, 8, 10)
- g) to introduce the concepts of self-assessment and peer-assessment to support learners in taking greater responsibility for their learning (PDC 6, 8, 10)
- h) to detail the pitfalls of assessment and propose ways of circumnavigating these (PDC 8, 10)

5. RESEARCH AND EVALUATION

A dynamic CLIL teacher is a learner who follows a personal path of enquiry, reflection, and evaluation. This provides an active model for students to develop the ways and means of learning through their own research and evaluation. These are powerful tools for improving teaching and learning.

CLIL teachers are able:

- a) to discuss, in a knowledgeable manner, classroom and learner research methodology (e.g., action research) (PDC 2, 9)
- b) to conduct action research in collaboration with colleagues and other stakeholders, including students (PDC 2, 9)
- c) to articulate key research findings relevant to CLIL and learning in general (e.g., second language acquisition research, psychology of knowledge and evidence-based teaching) (PDC 2, 9)
- d) to critically analyse research articles on CLIL (PDC 9)
- e) to use benchmarking (regional, national or international) when interpreting and planning research and evaluation (PDC 2, 10)
- f) to describe strategies and instruments for self, peer and student evaluation of their teaching practices (PDC 2, 9, 10)
- g) to use self, peer and student evaluation to improve their own practice and student learning (PDC 2, 9, 10)
- h) to critically interpret research and evaluation results (PDC 2, 9, 10)

6. LEARNING RESOURCES AND ENVIRONMENTS

CLIL requires CLIL-specific learning resources, and enriched learning environments. These are highly integrative, multilayered and cognitively demanding, yet are balanced by enhanced scaffolding and other support systems. These help students build a sense of security in experimenting with language, content, and the management of their own learning.

CLIL teachers are able:

- a) to maintain a triple focus on content, language and learning skills (PDC 4, 5, 8)
- b) to design and use cognitively and linguistically appropriate learning materials (PDC 4, 5, 8)
- c) to create criteria for developing CLIL resources (including multimedia) that embed the core features of CLIL (PDC 8)
- d) to describe criteria and strategies for using non-classroom and non-school learning environments (PDC 5, 11)
- e) to assess learning resources and environments and to identify potential difficulties and solutions to overcome these (PDC 4, 8, 11)
- f) to articulate techniques for developing cooperative networks aimed at choosing, creating, adapting and accessing materials or developing learning resources and accessing learning environments (PDC 8,11)
- g) to help students build cross-curricular links (PDC 4, 8, 11)

7. CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

CLIL classroom management aims to facilitate the integrated learning of content, language and learning skills. It requires specific knowledge about classroom dynamics and management techniques and about how these affect learning in CLIL. Classroom management also centres on helping students to access intrinsic motivations for learning. This is partly done by enabling them to share responsibility for classroom management and the co-construction of learning.

CLIL teachers are able:

- a) to use diverse classroom set-ups to promote student communication, cooperative learning and leadership (PDC 6, 7, 8)
- b) to use appropriate language for classroom interaction in order to manage classroom proceedings (PDC 5, 6)
- c) to recognise and make use of opportunities provided by learners' linguistic and cultural diversity (PDC 6, 7)
- d) to cater for learners with a wide range of needs (e.g., special and specific needs, socio-economic and socio-cultural background, and gender) (PDC 5, 7)
- e) to co-create with students a non-threatening environment that is driven by learning and the active participation of all students (PDC 5, 7)

8. CLIL MANAGEMENT

Developing quality CLIL is a complex undertaking involving many stakeholders including students, parents, CLIL teachers, non-CLIL teachers and administrators. This calls on stakeholders to build common knowledge about programme management and an understanding of each other's role in supporting its development.

CLIL teachers are able:

- a) to work within change models (PDC 1, 4, 5)
- b) to apply the principles of professional learning communities, models and strategies (PDC 4)
- c) to work with internal and external stakeholders (PDC 1, 4)
- d) to apply the principles of professional self-management (PDC 4)
- e) to represent the interests of CLIL in public relations (PDC 4)
- f) to describe ethical issues pertaining to CLIL including gender and other inclusion issues (PDC 4, 7)

Professional Development Modules

These descriptions summarise the contents of the modules in the European Framework for CLIL Teacher Education. Each module consists of non-sequential components and their description. These descriptions are based on, and linked to, the Target Professional Competences defined in the previous section of this publication.

Module 1: Approaching CLIL

(four components)

1. Situating CLIL

- Competences for the information age
- Bi-, multi- and plurilingualism: overview
- Bilingual education: past and present; assumptions and facts
- CLIL contexts, models and variants
- CLIL objectives
- CLIL aims and objectives within a regional/national and institutional infrastructure
- Autonomy, authenticity, agency
- Professionalism and personal profile

(Target Professional Competence standards: 1, 2, 4, 8)

2. Adopting action research

- Grounded theory and cyclic learning
- Literature review and application
- Action research in the school context: objectives, tools, design
- CLIL teaching and learning processes: data analysis
- Evidence-based planning and action

(Competence standards: 1, 5)

3. Examining good pedagogy and CLIL

- Awareness-raising of personal established teaching practice
- Socio-constructivist theories and content/language teaching
- Autonomy, authenticity and agency
- Critical and creative thinking
- Language learning/acquisition theories

- Language awareness and knowledge about language learning
- Content awareness and knowledge about content learning
- Content-subject specific awareness
- Awareness of language user profiles, identities, and affective factors
- Integration of personal established practice and new approaches
- Learning styles
- Learning skills

(Competence standards: 1, 3, 4)

4. Focusing on CLIL in the school context

- Legislative and policy frameworks
- School change management
- Self-management and professional capacity-building
- Curriculum integration and team dynamics
- Student inclusion, exclusion and access
- Tools for planning and co-operation
- School ethos (i.e. beliefs, attitudes, work processes)

(Competence standards: 7, 8)

Module 2: Implementing CLIL

(four components)

5. Designing CLIL classroom curricula

- Theoretical constructs of curriculum design
 - CLIL course construction
 - Objectives/targets of content learning
 - Course syllabus (including learner-teacher negotiation)
 - Cross-curricular linkages
 - Planned learning outcomes (content, language, learning skills and cognition)
 - Intercultural aspects of course design
 - Design of teaching and learning units/modules
 - CLIL course scheduling
 - Embedding CLIL in the school curriculum
 - Time allocation
 - Teacher interaction and cooperation
- (Competence standards: 4, 7, 8)

6. Anchoring CLIL in the classroom

- General principles of educational practice applied to CLIL
- CLIL core features
 - Multiple focus
 - Safe and enriching learning environments
 - Authenticity
 - Active learning
 - Scaffolding
 - Cooperation

- CLIL driving principles
 - Cognition
 - Community
 - Content
 - Communication
 - Interdisciplinarity and multimodality
 - Constructivist and cognitive psychological approaches
 - Lessons from brain sciences
 - Integration of subjects
 - Blended modalities
 - Learner autonomy and agency
 - Deciding on and managing one's own learning
 - Planning targets
 - Benchmarking and self-assessment
 - Intrinsic motivation
- (Competence standards: 4, 5, 8)

7. Interweaving psychological and pedagogical aspects in the CLIL classroom

- Affective dimensions of learning
 - Impact of e-learning
 - Vehicular language threshold levels
 - Reduced personality syndrome
 - Expansion of personal learning styles repertoire
 - Attitude awareness
 - Group dynamics
 - Special and specific educational needs
 - Intercultural and plurilingual dynamics
 - Multicultural and multilingual issues
 - Student learning profiles and identities
- (Competence standards: 4, 7)

8. Accessing and adapting CLIL learning resources and environments

- Criteria for and evaluation of learning materials
 - *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages*
 - Learning materials and environments which support peer co-operation, authenticity and autonomy
 - Teacher co-operation through networking
- (Competence standards: 4, 6)

9. Becoming an evidence-based practitioner

- Evidence-based analysis, planning and decision making
 - Research questions, design and testing
 - Data analysis and reporting
 - Application of evidence-based learning
- (Competence standards: 5)

Module 3: Consolidating CLIL (three components)

10. Assessing for learning

- Principles and objectives of assessment and evaluation as a basis for improvement
 - Summative and formative evaluation: principles, modes and tools (*Common European Framework of Reference for Languages, European Language Portfolio*)
 - Risks and gate-keeping
 - Certification
- (Competence standards: 4, 5)

11. Networking locally, nationally and internationally

- Network theory, systems, tools and resources
- Professional support and synergy
- Professional learning communities
- Learning environments development
- Knowledge management
- Linkages to local, national and international communities

(Competence standards: 4, 8)

12. Practising CLIL

- Criteria and frameworks for practice-teaching
- Planning tools
- Analysing and addressing individual needs
- Potential problems: diagnosis and solutions
- The mentor-practice teacher relationship
- Self-management
- Evaluation, assessment and analysis
- Professional development plan

(Competence standards: 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8)

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The European Framework for CLIL Teacher Education (EFCT) is a tool for guiding the design of curricula for CLIL teacher professional development. The EFCT is proposed as a conceptual lens and model.

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